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A NEW AND COMPLETE

# DICTIONARY

OF

# TRADE and COMMERCE:

CONTAINING

A Diſtinct EXPLANATION of the

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF COMMERCE;

An ACCURATE DEFINITION of its TERMS;

AN

Ample ILLUSTRATION of the LAWS and CUSTOMS of all Commercial States, with reſpect to MERCANTILE AFFAIRS, in general; including the ſeveral TREATIES of COMMERCE actually ſubſiſting at this Time between the different Powers of EUROPE.

A Particular DESCRIPTION of the different

PRODUCTIONS OF ART AND NATURE,

Which are the BASIS and SUPPORT of COMMERCE;

Particularly diſtinguiſhing the

Growth, Product, and Manufactures of GREAT BRITAIN and its Colonies;

AN

Exact Specification and Valuation of all FOREIGN COINS, with Eaſy Conciſe TABLES for reducing them to the BRITISH STANDARD. An Hiſtorical and Critical Account of all Public and Private COMPANIES, and of all Public BANKS and FUNDS, with the Nature of their Securities. An Abſtract of the BYE-LAWS and CUSTOMS of all Ports and Harbours; with a Deſcription of the OFFICE and DUTY of CONSULS, AGENTS, and other Perſons reſiding in Foreign Parts, for the Protection of the Commerce of their reſpective Nations.

ALSO

Obſervations on the PRESENT STATE of our FOREIGN COMMERCE, and of the NEW MANUFACTURES eſtabliſhed and brought to Perfection of late Years in GREAT BRITAIN, of which no Account has hitherto been given in any other Commercial Dictionary.

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By THOMAS MORTIMER, Eſq;

His Majeſty's VICE-CONSUL for the AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

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VOL. II.

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LONDON: Printed for the AUTHOR;

And ſold by S. CROWDER, at the Looking-Glaſs; and J. COOTE, at the King's Arms, in Pater-noſter-row; and J. FLETCHER, in St. Paul's Church-yard.

MDCCLXVII.

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A NEW AND COMPLETE

# DICTIONARY

OF

# TRADE and COMMERCE.

## F.



F, The fourth conſonant, and ſixth letter of the alphabet, ſtands in phyſical preſcriptions for *fiat*, or let it be done. Thus, F. S. A. ſignifies *fiat ſecundum artem*. It was alſo a numeral letter ſignifying forty, and when a daſh was added a-top, thus, $\bar{F}$, it ſignified forty thouſand.

FABRIC, a term uſed in commerce to diſtinguiſh the different ſpecies of the ſame article or commodity; thus we ſay, cambricks of the *fabric* of St. Quintin, or of the Valenciennes *fabric*. Dowlas of the letter L. *fabric*, and thus the name and place of abode of the fabricator or manufacturer is particularly defined, and when particular marks denote a ſuperior quality in the commodity to all others of the ſame ſpecie, theſe diſtinctions are very uſeful and neceſſary; but it too often happens that the fabricators themſelves, taking advantage of the reputation of their marks, make the commodity below the ſtandard of goodneſs uſually expected under theſe marks; or that others baſely counterfeit the ſaid marks, the conſequences of which in both caſes are highly detrimental to the public, and eſpecially where it happens with reſpect to articles exported to foreign markets. Impoſtures of this kind cannot be too ſeverely proſecuted.

FACTITIOUS, is any thing made by art, and is uſually taken in oppoſition to natural. Thus ſoap is a *factitious* body or concrete, but fuller's earth is a natural one.

FACTOR. All the denominations of *factors*, *ſupercargoes*, and *agents*, import and ſignify the ſame thing, in regard of their function, though different in the method and place of diſcharging it, and are always underſtood to be one who acts for another, and who buys, ſells, and negociates, in conformity with the orders of his principal, under the various circumſtances of his principal's limitations and directions.

The former of theſe are generally eſtabliſhed in ſome foreign parts, to tranſact the buſineſs of purchaſing, ſelling, tranſporting, and exchanging, that ſhall be committed to his care; and the latter more properly for the receiving and paying of monies; whilſt the ſupercargo's employ is confined to the ſales of goods under his direction on ſome voyage, and it may be the purchaſe of others, in conformity with the orders his employer may give him: they ought all to be maſters of the trade and buſineſs they engage in, as many advantages, or the reverſe, depend on their conduct and proceedings.

A *factor* is but a ſervant to the merchant, and receives from him, in lieu of wages, a commiſſion of factorage, according to the uſage of the place where he reſides, or the buſineſs he tranſacts, this being various in different countries, and on the purchaſes and ſales of different commodities: he ought to keep ſtrictly to the tenor of his orders, as a deviation from them, even in the moſt minute particular, expoſes him to make ample ſatisfaction for any loſs that may accrue from his non-obſervance of them; and it is very reaſonable it ſhould be ſo, as the diſtance of his ſituation renders him unable to judge of his principal's views and intentions; therefore he ſhould ſubmit blindly to them, though always exerting his beſt endeavours for the merchant's intereſt, as his gain is certain, whilſt his employer's is precarious.

When unlimited orders are given to *factors*, and they are left to ſell or buy on the beſt conditions they can, whatever detriment occurs to their conſtituents, they have their excuſe in their hands, as it is to be preſumed they acted for the beſt, and were governed by the dictates of prudence.

A *factor* is barely a truſtee for his principal; therefore, if this latter, having goods in the other's hands, owes him money by ſimple contract, and then dies indebted by ſpecialty more than his aſſets are worth, the *factor* cannot retain the goods. 2 *Vern.* 117. vol. i. *Vern.* 428. and 2 *Vern.* 638.

If a *factor* receives only a bare commiſſion to ſell and diſpoſe, it will not enable him to truſt; for, in the due execution of his authority, he ought on a ſale to receive *quid quo pro*; and, on the delivery of the one, to receive the

other; for, otherwiſe, by that means, as they may truſt ſix months, they may truſt ſixteen years; nor by virtue of any clauſe in their orders that leaves them at liberty to act as they think beſt, or of doing as if the affair was their own, may they truſt an unreaſonable time, as ten or twenty years, inſtead of one, two, or three months, ſuppoſing this the accuſtomary time of credit for the like commodities: and ſo it was adjudged, where one had remitted jewels to his *factor* in Barbary, who diſpoſed of the ſame to Mulleſhack, the emperor, for a ſum certain, to be paid at a time, which being elapſed, the *factor* not obtaining it, was forced to make the ſame good to his principal. 7 *Jac. B. R. Rot.* 416. *Barton* and *Saddocks. Bulſt.* 1. part 103. *Yelv.* 202. 2. *Mod.* 100, 101.

Again, one and the ſame *factor* may, and generally does, act for ſeveral merchants, who muſt run the joint riſk of his actions, though they are mere ſtrangers to one another; as if five merchants ſhall remit to one *factor* five diſtinct bales of goods, and the *factor* makes a joint ſale of them to one man, who is to pay one moiety down, and the other at ſix months end; if the buyer breaks before the ſecond payment, each man muſt bear a proportionable ſhare of the loſs, and be contented to accept of their dividend of the money advanced.

But if ſuch a *factor* draws a bill of exchange upon all thoſe five merchants, and one of them accepts the ſame, the others ſhall not be obliged to make good the payment, *tamen quære de hoc. Salk.* 126.

And as the authority and truſt repoſed in *factors* is very great, ſo ought they to be provident in their actions for the benefit of their principals; and therefore, if *factors* ſhall give time to a man for payment of monies contracted on ſales of their principals goods, and after the time is elapſed, they ſhall ſell goods of their own to ſuch perſons for ready caſh (leaving their principals unreceived) and then ſuch man break and become inſolvent, the *factor* in equity and honeſty, ought to make good the loſſes; for they ought not to diſpenſe with the non-payment of their principals monies, after they become due, and procure payment of their own to another man's loſs, though, by the laws of England, they cannot be compelled. *Heath* v. *Turner Winch.* 24, 25.

If goods are remitted to a *factor*, and upon arrival he ſhall make a falſe entry at the cuſtom-houſe, or land them without entering, whereby they ſhall incur the ſeizure or forfeiture, whatſoever the principal is endamaged, he muſt inevitably make good, nor will ſuch general clauſe help him, as above; but, if a *factor* makes his entry, according to invoice, or his letters of advice, and it happens that theſe are erroneous, if the goods are then loſt, the *factor* is diſcharged. *Leviſon* v. *Kirke, Trin.* 7. *Jac.* in *B. R. Lane's Rep.* 65.

And as fidelity, diligence, and honeſty, are expected from the *factor*, ſo the law requires the like from his employer, judging the act of the one to be the act of the other; and, therefore, if a merchant ſhall conſign counterfeit jewels to his *factor*, who ſells and diſpoſes of them for valuable conſiderations, as if they were right; if the *factor* receives any loſs or prejudice thereby, by impriſonment or other puniſhment, the maſter ſhall not only make good the damage to the *factor*, but alſo render the ſatisfaction to the party damnified: and ſo it was adjudged, where one How was poſſeſſed of three counterfeit jewels, and having *factors* in Barbary, and knowing one Southern, a merchant, was reſident on the place, conſigns thoſe jewels to his *factor*, who receiving them, intreated Southern to ſell them for him, telling him that they were good jewels; whereupon Southern, not knowing they were counterfeit, ſold them to the king in whoſe dominions he reſided, for eight hundred pounds (they being worth really but one hundred pounds) and delivered the money to the *factor*, who remitted the ſame to How: the king, not long after, finding himſelf cheated, committed Southern to priſon, till he repaid the eight hundred pounds. Whereupon, Southern, coming to England, brought his action againſt How, and had judgment to recover his damage; for the principal ſhall anſwer for his *factor* in all caſes, where he is privy to the act or wrong: and ſo it is in contracts, if a *factor* ſhall buy goods on the account of his principal, (eſpecially if he has uſed ſo to do) the contract of the *factor* will oblige the principal to a performance of the bargain. 2 *Rolls*, 5. 2 *Cro.* 461. *Bridgman* 126, 127. *Popham* 143.

When *factors* have obtained a profit for their principal, they muſt be cautious how they diſpoſe of it, for if they act without commiſſion or order, they become reſponſible. Goods remitted to *factors* ought in honeſty to be carefully preſerved, as the truſt repoſed in them is great; and therefore a *factor* robbed, in an account brought againſt him by his principal, the ſame ſhall diſcharge him. *Southcote's* caſe. *Cok.* lib. 4. fol. 84. And ſo it is as if a *factor* buys goods for his principal, which afterwards happen to be damnified, the principal muſt bear the misfortune; but, if a *factor* ſhall diſpoſe of the goods of his principal, and take money that is falſe, he ſhall make good the loſs; yet, if he receives monies, and afterwards the ſame is by edict or proclamation leſſened in value, the merchant, and not the *factor*, muſt then bear the loſs.

The *factor* muſt likewiſe be careful in regard of letters of credit; obſerving nicely whether they are for a time limited, or to ſuch a value, or not exceeding ſuch a ſum, or general, as he may otherwiſe bring himſelf into conſiderable loſſes.

If a merchant remits goods to his *factor*, and about a month after draws a bill on him, the *factor*, having effects in his hands, accepts the bill, then the principal breaks, againſt whom a commiſſion of bankrupt is awarded, and the goods in the *factor's* hands are ſeized; it has been conceived, the *factor* muſt anſwer the bill notwithſtanding, and come in a creditor for ſo much as he was inforced by reaſon of his acceptance to pay. *Quere*, if equity may not relieve in ſuch caſes?

A *factor*, who enters into a charter-party with a maſter for freightment, is obliged by the contract; but if he loads aboard generally, the goods, the principal's, and the lading are made liable for the freightment, and not the *factor*.

The *factor*, having money in his hands appertaining to his principal, receives orders from him to make inſurance on ſhips and goods, as ſoon as he has loaded, which, if he has neglected to perform, and the ſhip miſcarries, he ſhall (by the cuſtom of merchants) be obliged to make good the damage; and, in caſe of loſs, he ought not to make a compoſition without orders from his principal.

One *joint-factor* may account without his companion, by the law of merchants; for *factors* are often diſperſed, ſo as they cannot be both preſent at their accounts. *Goore* and *alii cont. Dawbeny.* 2 *Leon.* 75, 76.

A merchant delivered goods to be ſold in Spain, and the *factor* ſells them to one who becomes a bankrupt; we judge here that he ſhall be diſcharged. In *Capp's* and *Tucker's* caſe. 2 *Rolls's*.

In account it was held *per curiam*, that if a man delivers money to his bailiff or *factor* to lay out for him in commodities, he cannot bring an *aſſumpſit*, but only an account; for it may ſo happen, that the *factor* hath laid out more money than he hath received. *Repts.* 497. 1 *Vent.* 113.

A *factor* ſhould always be punctual in the advices of his tranſactions, in ſales, purchaſes, affreightments, and more eſpecially in draughts by exchange, for if he ſells goods on truſt without giving advice thereof, and the buyer breaks, he is liable to trouble for his neglect; and, if he draws without adviſing his having ſo done, he may juſtly expect to have his bill returned proteſted, to his no ſmall detriment and diſcredit.

If a *factor* deviates from the orders he receives in the execution of a commiſſion for purchaſing goods, either in price, quality, or kind, or if after they are bought, he ſends them to a different place from that he was directed to, they muſt remain for his own account, except the merchant, on advice of his proceedings, admits them according to his firſt intention.

A *factor* that ſells a commodity under the price he is ordered, ſhall be obliged to make good the difference; and, if he purchaſes goods for another at a price limited, and afterwards they riſe, and he fraudulently takes them for his own account, and ſends them to another part, in order to ſecure an advantage that ſeemingly offers, he will (on proof thereof) be obliged, by the cuſtom of merchants, to ſatisfy his principal for damages.

If a *factor*, in conformity with a merchant's orders, buys with his money, or his credit, a commodity he ſhall be directed to purchaſe, and, without giving advice of the tranſaction, ſells it again to profit, and appropriates to himſelf the advantage, the merchant ſhall recover it from him, and beſides have him amerced for his fraud.

If a merchant orders his *factor* to ſhip him a ſum, in the current coin of a kingdom, when exportation is prohibited, and the money is ſeized in endeavouring to get it abroad, the loſs is for the merchant's account, and not the *factor*'s.

If a *factor* pays money of a merchant's without his orders, it is at his own peril; and if he lends his caſh, without his leave, (though he propoſes the intereſt ſhall be the merchant's), and any loſs happens before his principal's determination about it be known, it ſhall remain to the *factor*.

And as a *factor*, who has nothing in view but his own intereſt, and who pays no regard to the calls of honour and honeſty, ought to be treated as ſuch a wretch deſerves; one with a contrary character, who follows the dictates of conſcience, and makes right reaſon and integrity the rules of his actions, ſhould meet (as he generally does) a treatment adequate to his merits, and be regarded by his employers with that eſteem, which his faithful, diligent, and careful diſcharge of their commiſſions juſtly challenge from them. And as what has been ſaid of the *factor* may ſerve equally the ſame for the ſupercargo, we ſhall only add under this head, that of both denominations there are conſiderable diſtinctions, viz. in the beneficial part of them, as ſome only tranſact the buſineſs of private merchants, whilſt others are employed in the more lucrative ſervice of public companies, ſuch as the Eaſt-India, South-Sea, &c. though the obligations of all are alike, only the latter are better paid for their trouble, and reap greater advantages from their employs, than the former can do.

It will not be amiſs to obſerve here, with Mr. Hanway, that no foreigners ought to be our *factors* abroad. "If our firſt concern, ſays he, ought to be for our own children, it ought then to be conſidered how many ſons of tradeſmen, merchants, gentlemen, and even noblemen, are loſt to their parents, their country, and their God, for want of employment! Merchants are no where more honourably eſteemed than in this country; but they often lay the foundation of that knowledge for which they are eſteemed in diſtant climes; and ſhall we encourage foreigners to take their place? There cannot be more trade carried on than a country will bear: it will uſually employ ſo much money, ſo many hands, and no more. Do we want money in this nation to carry on our trade? by no means. It is true, the national intereſt is already very low, perhaps it will be lower ſtill, and what will be the conſequence, but that we muſt throw more money into trade, and extend our ſettlements and commercial intereſt over the earth as much as poſſible? Why ſhould we encourage foreigners to do any thing for us abroad, which we can do better ourſelves? What circumſtances ſhould we be in, if all our *factors* abroad were foreigners? What tie, or what ſecurity could we have of their integrity in the ſale of our commodities, much leſs in the proportion of national manufactures in oppoſition to thoſe of other countries, or zeal in the purchaſe of the commodities of the countries where they reſide, if they left us no pledge of their fidelity, nor ſpent any part of their lives in this iſland.

"On the other hand, what riches do not our *factors* bring home! How many conſiderable men have not we in this metropolis from Liſbon! Who can be ignorant of the wealth that has been brought here by Eaſt-India *factors*? Are not theſe great national objects? Italy, Spain, and other countries, are ever ſending us new recruits to our commercial ſtrength, ariſing from factorage." *See* BANKRUPTCY, BILLS *of exchange*, CONSULS.

FACTORAGE, is the wages or allowance paid and made to a factor by the merchant. The gain of *factorage* is certain, however the ſucceſs proves to the merchant; but the commiſſions and allowances vary, according to the cuſtoms and diſtance of the country, in the ſeveral places where factors are reſident: in the Weſt-Indies, the commiſſion runs at about eight *per cent.* but in France and Spain, &c. not above two *per cent.* and in Holland but one and a half *per cent.*

FACTORY, is a place where a conſiderable number of factors reſide, to negociate and officiate, for their maſters, or employers. The nobleſt *factory* is that of the Engliſh at Smyrna, conſiſting of five or ſix hundred perſons. It is a ſort of ſeminary for merchants. The cuſtom is for perſons of fortune to bind their younger ſons to ſome merchant, who, after three or four years of their apprenticeſhip are expired, go to Smyrna, where they have not only the management of their maſters affairs, and very plentiful allowance, but are likewiſe permitted to trade for themſelves.

FAIRS *and* MARKETS. A *fair* is a ſolemn or greater ſort of market, granted to any town by privilege, for the more ſpeedy and commodious proviſion of ſuch things as the ſubject needeth, or the utterance of ſuch things as we abound in above our own uſes and occaſions. Our Engliſh word *fair* ſeems to come from the Latin *feriæ*, becauſe it is always incident to a *fair* by privilege, that a man may not be moleſted or arreſted in it for any other debt, than what was firſt contracted in the ſame, or at leaſt was promiſed to be paid there. *Cowell.*

The firſt inſtitution of *fairs* and *markets* ſeems plainly to be for the better regulation of trade and commerce, and that merchants and traders may be furniſhed with ſuch commodities as they want, at a particular mart, without that trouble and loſs of time, which muſt neceſſarily attend travelling about from place to place; and therefore as this is a matter of univerſal concern to the commonwealth, ſo it hath always been held, that no perſon can claim a *fair* or *market*, unleſs it be by grant from the king, or by preſcription, which ſuppoſes ſuch a grant. 2 *Inſt.* 220. 3 *Mod.* 123.

And therefore if any perſon ſets up any ſuch *fair* or market, without the king's authority, a *quo warranto* lies againſt him; and the perſons who frequent ſuch *fair*, &c. may be puniſhed by fine to the king. 3 *Mod.* 127.

Alſo it ſeems, that if the king grants a patent for holding a *fair* or market, without a writ of *ad quod damnum* executed and returned, that the ſame may be repealed by *ſcire facias*; for though ſuch *fairs* and markets are a benefit to the commonwealth, yet too great a number of them may become nuſances to the public, as well as a detriment to thoſe who have more ancient grants. 3 *Lev.* 222.

It ſeems clearly agreed, that if a perſon hath a right to a *fair*, and another erects a *fair* or market ſo near his, that it becomes a nuſance to his *fair*, &c. that for this detriment and injury done to him, an action on the caſe lies; for it is implied in the king's grant, that it ſhould be no prejudice to another. 2 *Roll. Abr.* 140.

Alſo, although the new market be held on a different day, yet an action on the caſe lies; for this, by foreſtalling the ancient market, may be a greater injury to the owner, than if held on the ſame day with his. 2 *Saund.* 172. 1 *Mod.* 69.

If the king grants unto one a *fair* or market, he ſhall have, without any words to that purpoſe, a court of record, called a *court of pie-powder*, as incident thereto, for that is for advancement and expedition of juſtice, and for the ſupporting and maintenance of the *fair* or market. 2 *Inſt.* 220.

Owners and governors of *fairs* are to take care that every thing be ſold according to juſt weight and meaſure, who for that and other purpoſes may appoint a clerk of the *fair* or market, who is to mark and allow all ſuch weights, and for his duty herein can only take his reaſonable and juſt fees. *See* 4 *Inſt.* 274. *Moor* 523. 1 *Salk.* 327.

*Fairs* and markets are ſuch franchiſes as may be forfeited, as if the owners of them hold them contrary to their charter, as by continuing them a longer time than the charter admits, by diſuſer, and by extorting fees and duties where none are due, or more than are juſtly due. 2 *Inſt.* 220. *Finch* 164. 3 *Mod.* 108.

Toll payable at a *fair* or market is a reaſonable ſum of money due to the owner of the *fair* or market, upon ſale of things tollable within the *fair* or market, or for ſtallage, package, or the like. 2 *Inſt.* 222. 2 *Jon.* 207.

Toll is a matter of private benefit to the owner of the *fair* or market, and not incident to them; therefore if the king

king grants a *fair* or market, and grants no toll, the patentee can have none, and such *fair* or market is counted a free *fair* or market. *Cro. Eliz.* 558. 2 *Inst.* 220. *S. P. Lutw.* 1336. *S. P.* resolved.

Also if the king, at the time he grants a *fair* or market, grants a toll, and the same is outrageous and excessive, the grant of the toll is void, and the same becomes a free *fair* or market. 2 *Inst.* 220. 2 *Lutw.* 1336.

But the king, after he grants a *fair* or market, may grant that the patentee may have a reasonable toll; but this must be in consideration of some benefit accruing from it to those who trade and merchandize in such *fair* or market. 2 *Inst.* 221.

No toll shall be paid for any thing brought to the *fair* or market, before the same is sold, unless it be by custom time out of mind, and upon such sale the toll is to be paid by the buyer; and therefore my lord Coke says, that a *fair* or market by prescription is better than one by grant. 2 *Inst.* 221.

If the king or any of his progenitors have granted to any to be discharged of toll, either generally or specially, this grant is good to discharge him of all tolls to the king's own *fairs* or markets, and of the tolls, which together with any *fair* or market have been granted after such grant of discharge; but cannot discharge tolls formerly due to subjects, either by grant or prescription. 2 *Inst.* 221.

Also the king himself shall not pay toll for any of his goods; and if any be taken, it is punishable within the statute *Westm.* 1. *c.* 31. 2 *Inst.* 221.

So tenants in ancient demesne are free and quit from all manner of tolls in *fairs* and markets, whether such tenant hold in fee, or life, years, or at will. 4 *Inst.* 269. 2 *Inst.* 221. 1 *Rol. Abr.* 321.

But this privilege does not extend to him who is a merchant, and gets his living by buying and selling; but is annexed to the person in respect to the land, and to those things which do grow and are the produce of the land. 2 *Inst.* 221.

For the encouragement of trade, and to render contracts in *fairs* and markets secure, by the common law, every sale made in a *fair* or market overt transfers a compleat property in the thing sold to the vendee; so that however injurious or illegal the title of the vendor may be, yet the vendee's is good against all men. *Latch.* 144. 2 *Inst.* 713.

But this general rule, that a sale in a market changes the property, must be understood with the following restrictions: 1. That this sale in a market overt shall not bind the king, although it bindeth all others, as infants, feme coverts, *non compos*, beyond sea, or in prison, and whether they were possessed of them in their own right, or as executors or administrators. 2. That though all *fairs* and markets are overt, yet the sale must be in some open place, as in a shop, and not in a warehouse, or other private part of the house, so that people who go along may see what is doing; and therefore if the shop-door or window be so shut, that the goods cannot be seen, this alters no property. 3. The things bought must be of the nature and quality of those which the buyer deals in; and therefore if plate, &c. are bought in a scrivener's shop in London, this alters no property, and the true owner may maintain trover for them. 5 *Co.* 83. case of market overt, determined at the *Old Bailey*, by *Popham*, *Egerton*, *Anderson*, *Brian*, and others.

By 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 21. no sale, exchange, pawn, or mortgage of any jewel, plate, apparel, household-stuff, or other goods, of what kind, nature, or quality soever, that shall be unjustly robbed or stolen, within the cities of London and Westminster, the borough of Southwark, or within twelve miles of the same, shall make any alteration of property from those they have been robbed or stolen.

4. The goods must be sold, and a valuable consideration actually paid for them. 2 *Inst.* 713.

5. If the buyer knows at the time of the sale that the owner has not the absolute property; this will not bar the right owner. 2 *Inst.* 713. 2 *And.* 115. and 3 *Co.* 78. *b. S. P.*

6. The sale must be without covin, or any combination between the buyer and seller, to defraud the true owner. 2 *Inst.* 713.

7. If a sale be made of goods by a stranger in a market overt, whereby the right of A is bound; yet if the seller acquireth the goods again, A may take them again, because he was the wrong doer, and he shall not take advantage of his own wrong. 2 *Inst.* 713.

8. There must be a sale and contract, and therefore a sale to a man of his own goods in market overt by an infant of such tenderness of age, as it may appear to the buyer that he is within age, or by a feme covert, if the buyer know her to be a feme covert, unless for such things as she usually trades for, or by the consent of her husband, bindeth not. 2 *Inst.* 713.

9. The contract must be originally, and wholly made in the market overt, and not to have the inception out of the market, and the consummation in the market. 2 *Inst.* 713, 714.

10. The sale must not be in the night, but between sun-rising and sun-set; but a sale made in the night is good to bind the parties, but not a stranger.

By 31 *Eliz. cap.* 12. sellers of horses are to procure vouchers of the sale of the horse to them, and, for every false voucher, shall forfeit five pounds. The names of the buyer, seller, and voucher, and price of the horse, are to be entered in the toll-taker's book, and a note thereof delivered to the buyer. A horse stolen may be redeemed by the owner, in six months, repaying the buyer, &c.

### *The principal* fairs *of England.*

1. Sturbridge *fair*, near Cambridge, beyond all comparison the greatest in Britain, and perhaps in the world. 2. Bristol, two *fairs*, very near as great as that of Sturbridge. 3. Exeter. 4. West-Chester. 5. Edinburgh. Also several marts, as Lynn, Boston, Beverley, Gainsborough, Howden, &c. 6. Weyhill and Burford *fairs*, for sheep. 7. Pancras *fair* in Staffordshire, for saddle-horses. 8. Bartholomew *fair* at London, for lean and Welsh black cattle. 9. St. Faith's in Norfolk, for Scots runts. 10. Yarmouth fishing *fair* for herrings, the only fishing *fair* in Great-Britain, or perhaps in the world, except the fishing for pearl oysters, near Ceylon in the East-Indies. Ipswich butter *fair*. 12. Woodborough-hill near Blandford in Dorsetshire, famous for West Country manufactures, Devonshire kerseys, Wiltshire druggets, &c. 13. Two cheese *fairs* at Atherston and Chipping Norton; with innumerable other *fairs*, besides weekly markets for all sorts of goods, as well our own as of foreign growth.

While the *fairs* of Great-Britain were duly attended by the eminent tradesmen from the metropolis, and other chief trading cities, shop-keepers resident in the interior countries were more cheaply supplied with merchandizes, and could afford to sell their own at a much cheaper rate than they have been able to do, since the custom of *riders* has been introduced among the country shop-keepers; for this custom has been instrumental to the laying of a voluntary kind of additional taxation upon our own commodities.

### *The principal* fairs *in other countries.*

There are several *fairs* in France, and some of them very considerable, as of Beauxaire; *see that article:* St. Lawrence, St. Germain; the *fairs* of Lyons, Rheims, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Troyes, and St. Denys; the *fair* of Caen, Dieppe, and Toulon.

The most noted *fairs* of Germany are those of Frankfort, Leipsic, and Naumbourg, not only on account of the great trade, but the vast concourse of princes of the empire, nobility, and people, who come to them from all parts of Germany, to partake of the diversions to be had. In discoursing of BILLS *of exchange*, we have considered under that *head*, the *fairs for exchanges* at Lyons, Francfort, Leipsic, and Naumbourg.

Besides these, there are some other *fairs* much reforted to, as Zurick in Switzerland; Novi, in the Milanese; Sinigaglia, in the duchy of Urbino, Italy; Riga, in Livonia; Rama, in the Holy Land; and the *fairs* of Porto-Bello, La Vera Cruz, and the Havannah, in Spanish America.

FALSTER. *See* DENMARK.

FAN-PAINTING, is an ingenious buſineſs, and requires ſkill in drawing, in perſpective, in the proper diſpoſition of the lights and ſhades, and in laying on the colours. This buſineſs is, however, almoſt ruined by the introduction of printed *fan-mounts*; and therefore it would be a pity, that any ingenious girl, who has a taſte for drawing, ſhould be put apprentice to it.

FAN-SHOP. In theſe ſhops nothing is ſold but *fans* and *mounts*. They are generally kept by women, who employ themſelves in inventing and colouring printed *fan-mounts*, and in mounting theſe fluttering implements of the ladies. They ſell fans brought from China; and ſome of them export conſiderable quantities of all kinds of *fans*. They take about ten pounds with an apprentice; but there is but little employment for the journey-women, who may earn, when they get a good ſhop, twelve or fifteen ſhillings aweek.

FAN-STICK-CARVER. This is a buſineſs fit for lads who have more ingenuity than bodily ſtrength. But there are few who practiſe it; and there is not employment for many of them. They take about ten pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, will require but little money to enable him to ſet up.

FAN-STICK-MAKER. This alſo is a buſineſs fit for weakly boys. The *fan-ſtick-makers* are employed by thoſe who keep the *fan-ſhops*, and make *fan-ſticks* of ivory, tortoiſhell, wood, &c. They take about five pounds with an apprentice; but the many fans brought ready mounted from the Eaſt-Indies, and ſold here extremely cheap, have almoſt ruined this branch of buſineſs.

FANO, a ſmall weight uſed at Goa, and ſome other places in the Eaſt-Indies, for weighing rubies, being two Venetian carats.

FANON, *or* FANOS, a coin current on the coaſt of Malabar, Coromandel, in the Iſle of Ceylon, and ſeveral other parts of India. There are of them both gold and ſilver; the former not the ſame in all places, either in goodneſs or weight, which makes a great difference in their value. The heavieſt are not worth above five pence to five pence halfpenny ſterling, and the lighteſt more than five farthings. They weigh ſeven grains; but the gold is of ſo baſe an alloy, that twenty-two of them hardly make half a crown; theſe are made at Aſem; and thoſe of Pegu are of the ſame weight, but being of a better ſtandard, fifteen are equal in value to the aforeſaid twenty-two. There are likewiſe golden fanons at Pondicherry, worth about threepence halfpenny. They are made like the half of a pea, and nothing bigger. Twelve doudous are given for this fanon, and two caches for the doudou.

The ſilver fanos are not worth at moſt above twopence ſterling, twenty of them going to the pardo, a Portugueſe money made at Goa.

FARATELLE, a weight made uſe of in ſome parts of India, equal to two pounds of Liſbon, of fourteen ounces marc, or one three fourths of Paris.

FARE, ſignifies a voyage or paſſage, or, according as we now uſe it, money paid for paſſing by water, 2 and 3 *Phil.* and *Mar. c.* 16.

FARMER, is he who rents a farm, or is leſſee thereof. By *ſtat.* 21. *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13. no parſon, or ſpiritual perſon, may take farms, or leaſes of land, on pain of forfeiting ten pounds *per* month; and by *ſtat.* 25. *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13. and 32. *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 28. no perſon whatſoever ſhall take above two farms together, and they to be in the ſame pariſh, under the penalty of three ſhillings and four pence a week. Farmers, graziers, &c. not to be deemed bankrupts, 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 40. *See* AGRICULTURE.

FARRIER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs ought not only to learn to read and write, but alſo to get ſome knowledge of anatomy, particularly that of a horſe; and indeed the more knowledge he gets of medicine and ſurgery, the better proſpect will he have of obtaining a good living by this buſineſs. He ought particularly, during his apprenticeſhip, to become thoroughly acquainted with the excellent works pulliſhed within theſe thirty years, by ſeveral ingenious and learned gentlemen on the diſeaſes of horſes. The farrier is a compound of the ſmith, the doctor, and the ſurgeon. He ſhoes horſes, and attempts to cure all the diſeaſes incident to that uſeful animal, in which he has a certain *materia medica* adapted to the conſtitution of the patient: but he is generally very illiterate, and more rough and cruel in his operations than is neceſſary. As this buſineſs requires ſtrength, the boy ought not to be bound till he is about fifteen years of age. The ſum given with an apprentice ſeldom exceeds five pounds, and, when out of his time, he may earn twelve or fifteen ſhillings aweek; or, if he can raiſe about fifty pounds, he may ſet up maſter.

FARTHING, a ſmall Engliſh copper coin, equal to one fourth of a penny.

FAT, or VAT, is a great wooden veſſel, which, among brewers and maltſters, is ordinarily uſed at this day to meaſure malt by for expedition, containing eight buſhels, or a quarter. It is alſo a leaden pan or veſſel for the making of ſalt at Droitwich, in the county of Worceſter, whereof the ſeveral owners or proprietors do claim eſtates of inheritance and burgeſs-ſhip; alſo a great brewing veſſel uſed by all brewers to run their wort into.

FATHOM, a meaſure containing two yards, or ſix feet, taken from the extent of both arms, when ſtretched out into a ſtrait line.

FAYALLE, an imaginary coin, valued by ſome as the piſtole of France, viz. ten livres, and by others twelve livres and a half; which difference apparently proceeds from the firſt valuation made on the French livres of twenty ſous, and the other on the livre or guilder of Holland, worth twenty-five ſous.

FAYENCE, it is ſo in France, that all ſorts of crokery-ware, which are imitations of Indian China, are called.

FEES, are certain perquiſites allowed to officers, &c. of the cuſtoms, &c. as a recompence for their labour and trouble; and theſe are either aſcertained by acts of parliament, or eſtabliſhed by ancient uſage, which gives them an equal ſanction with an act of parliament. *For fees due and payable to the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms and ſubſidies in the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging, ſee the article* ALLOWANCES.

FEES, concerning ſeveral officers, as well inwards as outwards, to be paid to the clerks.

| | Cuſt. | Com. | Surv. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| For every bill of portage | 0 6 | 0 3 | 0 3 |
| For a ſecond or parcel-cocket outwards | 0 2 | 0 2 | 0 2 |

To the king's majeſty's waiters, being in number eighteen.

| | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|
| *Received in the cuſtom-houſe, above ſtairs.*—For every Britiſh man's foreign goods or merchandizes, of what nature ſoever, paying cuſtom of ſubſidy inwards in the port of London, or coming thither from any place or port by cocket | 1 | 0 |
| For every ſtranger's foreign goods in like manner, paying cuſtom or ſubſidy inwards in the ſame port, or coming thither by cocket | 1 | 6 |
| For certifying every cocket of Britiſh goods brought up to London | 0 | 6 |
| *Received at the water-ſide by the ſaid king's waiters, and others attending, to be divided as formerly.*—For a bill of ſtore or portage for any thing above ten ſhillings cuſtom | 1 | 0 |
| For a bill of ſight, bill of ſufferance, or any other imperfect warrant | 1 | 0 |
| For wools, woolfells, leather, hides, and prohibited goods from the outports by cocket | 1 | 0 |

Regiſter of the king's majeſty's warrants.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For every Britiſh warrant for the goods inwards | 0 | 2 |
| For every ſtranger's warrant | 0 | 4 |
| For every certificate foreign | 0 | 4 |
| For all goods not paying twenty ſhillings cuſtom, whether in or out, there ſhall be but half fees taken, whether for warrants, cockets, tranſiers, debentures, or certificates | | |

To the uſher of the cuſtom-houſe.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For every oath adminiſtered by the king's officers outwards | 0 | 2 |

Rules which may ſerve for the ports in general.

Whereas ſome ſocieties and companies of merchants do trade in a joint-ſtock, and enter the whole lading and cargo of a ſhip inwards, in one ſingle entry, when the adventurers therein concerned are many, the officers and waiters may take and receive ſuch gratuity as the ſaid company ſhall hereafter voluntarily conſent to pay unto them; any thing in this order or table of *fees*, or any other act or proviſion to the contrary, notwithſtanding.

All goods under the value of five pounds in the book of rates, paying ſubſidy the ſum of five ſhillings, or leſs, ſhall paſs without payment of any fees.

No Britiſh merchant that ſhall have goods of his own, to be landed out of one ſhip or veſſel at one time (although the receipt of the ſubſidy be diſtributed into ſeveral offices) ſhall be charged to pay any more or other fees than for a ſingle entry.

Goods in partnerſhip to paſs as if the proprietors were one ſingle perſon.

Fiſh by Britiſh in Britiſh ſhipping or veſſel inwards or outwards, or along the coaſt, to pay no fees.

Foreign coin and bullion inwards, may be landed by any perſon, without warrant or fee.

Diamonds, precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls of all ſorts, to paſs outwards without warrant or fee.

Poſt-entries inward to paſs without fee, under five ſhillings; if above five ſhillings, and under forty ſhillings, then ſix-pence: but if the cuſtom to be paid exceed forty ſhillings, then it ſhall pay the full fees as was paid for the firſt warrant.

The merchant ſhall pay for all goods opening that ſhall be ſhort entered, above ten ſhillings cuſtom.

The merchant ſhall pay for weighing of all goods that ſhall be ſhort entered, above twenty ſhillings cuſtom.

The merchant not to be at any charge if duly entered.

Whereas by an act of parliament, intitled, An Act for encouraging and increaſing of Shipping and Navigation, there are granted unto the king's moſt excellent majeſty, ſundry duties upon ſtrangers veſſels importing commodities not of their growth; and thereby it is ordered, that ſuch ſhipping as pretend to enjoy the privilege of Britiſh ſhipping, muſt be manned accordingly; whereby there is a neceſſity of an officer to be employed every tide downwards towards Graveſend, to viſit all ſhips whether they be manned according to the ſaid act; as alſo to gauge French ſhips, and take an account of their tonnage, and to give certificates for making of foreign ſhips free, and taking bonds for ſuch as go to the plantations; for effecting of which buſineſs, the following fees are ſet and appointed by the authority aforeſaid, to be paid as well in all out-ports, as in the port of London, and creeks thereunto belonging, viz.

| | Collector s. | d. | Comp. s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| For gauging every French veſſel, in lieu of the fee paid in France for gauging Britiſh veſſels there, as long as they continue this duty | 5 | 0 | | |
| For making a certificate to make a foreign ſhip free, with ſealing and regiſtering the ſame | 10 | 0 | | |
| For a bond for ſhips going to the plantations | 0 | 6 | | |
| For every entry of French veſſels, and for bills to charge the five ſhillings *per* ton on ſuch veſſel | 0 | 6 | 0 | 6 |
| For a certificate of payment of tonnage | 0 | 6 | | |
| For every entry of goods liable to duties by the act of navigation, which this collector receives | 0 | 4 | 0 | 4 |

*The fees of the chief ſearcher, and of his majeſty's five under-ſearchers in the port of London.*

Duties between the chief ſearcher, and his majeſty's five under-ſearchers that attend at London.

| *For every ſhip that paſſeth into foreign parts.*—Spain, Portugal, the Streights, Weſt-Indies, Guinea, or the Weſtern Iſlands | s. 6 | d. 0 |
|---|---|---|
| Eaſt-India | 10 | 0 |
| All other Britiſh ſhips into foreign parts | 4 | 0 |
| For every ſtranger's ſhip or bottom | 6 | 8 |

Duties of his majeſty's five under-ſearchers that attend at London.

| *Britiſh and aliens.*—For every certificate for ſhipping out goods formerly imported | s. 2 | d. 0 |
|---|---|---|
| But if the half ſubſidy to be received back amounts but to forty ſhillings, then | 1 | 0 |
| *To be paid by Britiſh and aliens for goods that pay ſubſidy, and paſs out by cocket or warrant.*—Pipe, puncheon, or butt | 0 | 4 |
| Hogſhead or bag | 0 | 2 |
| Tin, the block or barrel | 0 | 1 |
| Beer-eager, wood of all ſorts, copperas, alum, and ſuch groſs goods, the ton | 0 | 4 |
| Corn, the laſt; ſea-coal, the chalder; beer, the ton | 0 | 2 |
| Lead, the fodder | 0 | 2 |
| The maund, fatt, or pack | 0 | 6 |
| The bundle, bale, cheſt, or caſe | 0 | 3 |
| Raiſins and figs, the twenty frails or barrels | 0 | 3 |
| Butter, and ſuch goods, the barrel | 0 | 2 |
| For every coaſt-certificate or cocket | 1 | 0 |
| Tranſires for the coaſt, free. | | |
| For every horſe, mare, or gelding | 1 | 0 |
| For certifying every debenture for receiving back half ſubſidy, &c. | 0 | 6 |
| For every piece of ordnance | 1 | 0 |
| For the indorſement of every cocket | 1 | 0 |
| For every certificate out of their books of goods loſt at ſea, taken by pirates, or returned, whereby ſo much may be ſhipped cuſtom free | 1 | 0 |
| For every bill of ſufferance or ſtore, above ten ſhillings in the book of rates | 1 | 0 |
| If under | 0 | 6 |
| The fardle or truſs, by Britiſh, of three hundred weight, or upwards | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen cloth, the bale, not exceeding five cloths, or three hundred weight, ſtuffs, bays, or ſays | 0 | 3 |
| *Merchant-ſtrangers, unfreemen of London, or ſuch as ſhip on ſtrangers ſhips or veſſels.*—The fardle or truſs | 1 | 0 |
| The bale | 0 | 6 |

The *fees* of his majeſty's two ſearchers at Graveſend.

| For every ſhip that paſſeth over the ſeas for Spain, Portugal, Streights, the Weſt-Indies, Guinea, or the Weſtern Iſlands | s. 6 | d. 0 |
|---|---|---|
| For every ſhip to the Eaſt-Indias | 10 | 0 |
| For all other ſhips into foreign parts | 4 | 0 |
| For every ſtranger's ſhip or bottom | 8 | 0 |
| For every ſhip having a coaſt-cocket | 0 | 4 |
| For paſſengers outwards, not being merchants or mariners | 0 | 6 |

*Signed by virtue of an order of the Houſe of Commons, dated the 17th of May*, 1662.

E. TURNER.

*A breviate of the* fees *of his majeſty's officers of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies in the port of London, reducing the particulars (as they are ſet in ſeveral paragraphs, under ſeveral titles) into totals or entire ſums, viz.*

For the officers of the petty cuſtoms outwards.

| For a cloth-cocket by Britiſh freemen of London, paid to the principal officers and their clerks | s. 2 | d. 6 |
|---|---|---|
| For a ſtranger's cocket, or unfreeman | 3 | 2 |
| For a cloth certificate by Britiſh or ſtrangers | 2 | 8 |
| For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas | 1 | 8 |
| For a ſhip's entry to the Streights, Canaries, or Weſtern Iſlands | 4 | 4 |
| For clearing of ſhips, and examining the books | 2 | 6 |
| For every indorſement | 0 | 4 |
| For making a bond to the king's majeſty's uſe | 0 | 6 |
| For every entry in the certificate-book | 0 | 2 |

Subſidy outwards.

| | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|
| For every ſhip's entry within the Levant, or beyond the Streights mouth: to the officers and their clerk | 4 | 4 |
| For every ſhip's entry going to any other foreign parts | 1 | 8 |
| For every ſhip's entry going to the out-ports, and for a coaſt-cocket and bond | 4 | 9 |
| For clearing of every ſhip, paſſing to foreign parts, and examining the ſhip's contents | 2 | 6 |
| For every Britiſh cocket, by freemen | 2 | 6 |
| For every ſtranger's cocket, or unfreemen of London | 3 | 4 |
| For every certificate, cocket, &c. | 2 | 6 |
| For every certificate, upon warrant from his majeſty, or the lord treaſurer, paying no duties | 4 | 4 |
| For indorſement of all warrants and licences | 0 | 8 |
| For a ſoaring bill | 2 | 0 |
| For diſcharging a bond, and filing the certificate | 0 | 4 |
| For making a certificate of return | 2 | 0 |
| For a debenture for repayment of half ſubſidy, &c. To the principal officers two ſhillings, to the ſearchers ſix-pence, for the oath two-pence, examining four-pence, caſting up and paying the money eight-pence, in all | 3 | 8 |
| For making and entering a certificate to let paſs | 0 | 6 |
| For a bill or ticket to the lord mayor | 0 | 4 |

Petty cuſtoms inwards

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For every ſtranger's warrant inwards. *Vide* ſubſidy inwards. | | |
| For taking every bond | 0 | 6 |
| For every bill at ſight | 2 | 0 |
| For diſcharging every bond | 0 | 6 |
| For every great employment | 2 | 6 |

Subſidy inwards.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For every warrant by Britiſh freemen of London: to the principal officers, the king's waiters, and regiſters | 2 | 6 |
| For every warrant for ſtrangers | 4 | 6 |
| Or unfreemen | 3 | 2 |
| For every certificate of foreign goods coming from the out-ports, to London | 2 | 4 |
| For goods ſent by ſea, by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports, from London. | 1 | 0 |

All the reſt of the *fees* under this title of ſubſidy inwards are ſingle, and paid to particular perſons

Great cuſtoms.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For a cocket for calf-ſkins: to the officers and packer | 3 | 6 |
| For wools, woolfels, ſkins, and hides | 3 | 0 |
| For a bond to his majeſty's uſe | 1 | 0 |
| For filing the return | 0 | 6 |
| For a return and diſcharge outward | 3 | 4 |

*Fees* inwards and outwards concerning the clerks.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| For every bill of portage | 1 | 0 |
| For a ſecond, or parcel cocket outward | 0 | 6 |

*The packer*
*The king's waiters for the three firſt articles*
*Regiſters of the king's warrant*
} All theſe are reckoned together with the former entries.

All other *fees* in the table not herein before comprized (except only two concerning the act of navigation.)

The *fees* of the chief ſearcher, and his majeſty's five under-ſearchers at London, and two at Graveſend, are ſingle, and do not admit abbreviation.

For all goods not paying twenty ſhillings cuſtom, whether in, or out, there ſhall be but half *fees* taken.

All goods under the value of five pounds in the book of rates, ſhall paſs without payment of any *fees*.

Coin and bullion inwards
Precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls outwards
} Paſs without warrant or *fee*.

The merchants ſhall pay for all goods opening that ſhall be ſhort entered, above ten ſhillings cuſtom.

The merchants ſhall pay for weighing of all goods that ſhall be ſhort entered, above twenty ſhillings cuſtom.

The merchants not to be at any charge, if duly entered.

Fees for butter, corn, grain, meal, and other goods which may be exported free, carried to or from any place within the port of London, to be only three ſhillings and five-pence; and ſuch goods to paſs by tranſire, without cocket, or bond. 1 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 1.

For corn not exceeding fifty quarters, or hops not exceeding fifty bags, to be only one ſhilling and eight-pence half-penny. 1 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

For a cocket or certificate outwards, to be paid in one ſum to the officer granting the ſame; and after the merchant hath duly paid his cuſtom and ſubſidy, and other duties, in the cuſtom-houſe, as is appointed in the book of rates, he is to be maſter of, and keep his own cocket or certificate, until he ſhall ſhip out his goods ſo entered; when he is to deliver the ſame to the head-ſearcher, or his majeſty's under-ſearcher in the port of London, or other ports, together with the mark and number of the goods.

*Fees* in other ports than London, to be ſuch as were taken in the fourth year of the reign of *Jac.* I. till otherwiſe ſettled by parliament. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 8.

In London, copies of the table of *fees*, and of the order of the Houſe of Commons eſtabliſhing the ſame, to be ſet up to public view in the cuſtom-houſe, in ſuch places where the *fees* or any of them are received.

Payable to the officers of the cuſtoms in any port. For a poſt entry, when the cuſtom is under five ſhillings, nothing; exceeding five ſhillings, and under forty ſhillings, ſix-pence; above forty ſhillings, the ſame *fees* as for the prime entry.

But one *fee* to be paid by Britiſh, for his own goods, entered at one time in one ſhip, though the duty be diſtributed into ſeveral offices.

The merchants are to pay for weighing all goods ſhort entered above twenty ſhillings cuſtom; and for opening all goods ſhort entered above ten ſhillings cuſtom; but if duly entered, not to be at any charge.

Goods in partnerſhip to paſs as the property of one perſon.

Societies or companies of merchants trading with a joint-ſtock, and entering a whole ſhip's cargo inwards in one entry, the officers may take ſuch gratuity as they ſhall voluntarily give them.

Unlawful *fees* exacted by officers; penalty, loſs of employment, and incapacity to hold any office in the cuſtoms for the future, and to be liable to double coſts and damages. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 34.

Legal, not paid, diſpatches may be ſtopped.

None to be paid for foreign coin and bullion inwards and outwards; nor for diamonds, precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls, inwards and outwards; nor for fiſh by Britiſh, in Britiſh ſhipping, inwards, outwards, or coaſtwiſe.

None to be paid for goods under the value of five pounds in the book of rates, paying for ſubſidy five ſhillings, or leſs. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 8. Nor for corn exported, nor corn debentures. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 12 and 13 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 91. Nor for fiſh and fleſh debentures. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 21. 7 *Ann. c.* 11. *ſ.* 2, 10. Nor for gunpowder debentures or certificate. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 1. Nor for ſalt debentures. 9 and 10 *Will.* III, *c.* 44. *ſ.* 13. Nor for the premium on naval-ſtores; nor for any entry, warrant, debenture, certificate, cocket, &c. in relation to one-third or two-third ſubſidies only, upon forfeiture of forty pounds for each duty: one-third to his majeſty, and two-thirds, beſides coſts of ſuit, to the party grieved. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 4. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 5. *ſ.* 3. Nor for paſſing of debentures for goods chargeable with any additional duties, more than was before payable for debentures, for repayment of the half ſubſidy; nor any fee for any oath adminiſtred upon the act of 4 and 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 15. *ſ.* 15.

FELLMONGER. This is a very naſty, diſagreeable trade, much expoſed to wet and cold, and therefore not fit for weakly lads. The *fellmongers* buy up the ſkins of ſheep and lambs, from which they diſcharge the wool, make the ſheep-

ſheep-ſkins into pelts, leather for breeches, alum-leather, &c. They take from five to twenty pounds with apprentices; who require only a common education. They give very poor wages to their journeymen; but it requires four or five hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

FELLOWSHIP, *company*, or *partnerſhip*, is that part of arithmetic by which the accounts of ſeveral partners, trading in a company, are ſo adjuſted or made up, that every partner may have his juſt part of the gain, or ſuſtain his juſt part of the loſs, according to his proportion or ſhare of money he hath in the joint-ſtock: this falls under two conſiderations, called the *ſingle* and *double* rule of *fellowſhip*.

*Single* FELLOWSHIP, *or* FELLOWSHIP *without time.* By this rule are adjuſted the accounts of thoſe partners, that put all their ſeveral and perhaps different ſums of money into a common ſtock at one and the ſame time; and therefore it is uſually called the rule of *fellowſhip* without time: now, all queſtions of this nature are anſwered by ſo many ſeveral operations in the rule of three direct, as there are partners in the ſtock.

For as the total ſum of money in the ſtock is in proportion to the whole gain or loſs; ſo is every man's particular part of that ſtock to his particular ſhare of that gain or loſs.

*Queſt.* 1. Suppoſe three partners, A, B, and C, make a joint-ſtock of 96l. in this manner: A puts in 24l. B puts in 32l. and C puts in 40l. with this 96l. they trade and gain 12l. it is required to find each man's true part of that gain? The firſt operation for A's part of the gain will ſtand

Thus, 96l. : 12l. : : 24l. : 3l. = A's gain.
2dly, 96l. : 12l. : : 32l. : 4l. = B's part of the gain.
3dly, 96l. : 12l. : : 40l. : 5l. = C's part of the gain.
Proof, 3l. + 4l. + 5l. = 12l. the whole gain.

That is, if the ſum of each man's particular gain amount to the whole gain, the work is true; if not, ſome error is committed, which muſt be found out.

*Note*, theſe operations will be very much abbreviated by conſidering that 96 is the common antecedent, and 12 the common conſequent, in all the three proportions.

Therefore, 96 : 12 : : 1 : 0,125 is a common multiplicator.
Then, 24 × 0,125 = 3l. for A's part
And, 32 × 0,125 = 4l. for B's part } As before.
Again, 40 × 0,125 = 5l. for C's part

This method is more readily performed than the other, eſpecially when the partners are many; becauſe one ſingle diviſion ſerves for all the work.

*Queſt.* 2. Three merchants, A, B, and C, freight a ſhip with 248 tuns of wine: A loaded 98 tuns, B 86 tuns, and C 64 tuns. By extremity of weather the ſeamen were forced to throw 93 tuns of it over-board, how much of this loſs muſt each merchant ſuſtain?

Firſt, 248 : 93 : : 1 : 0,375, the common multiplier.
Then, 98 × 0,375 = 36,75 for A's loſs.
And, 86 × 0,375 = 32,25 = B's loſs.
Again, 64 × 0,375 = 24 = C's loſs

Proof, ——— —— 93,000 = to the whole loſs.

Now, if the queſtion were to find how much of the remaining wine that was ſaved, belongs to A, to B, and to C?

Then, 98 — 36,75 = 61,25 belongs to A.
And, 86 — 32,25 = 53,75 belongs to B.
And, 64 — 24, = 40, belongs to C.

That is, A ought to have 61 tuns and 62 gallons. B ought to have 53 and 189 gallons. And C ought to have 40 tuns of what was left.

*Queſt.* 3. Suppoſe ſix men, viz. A, B, C, D, E, and F, make a joint-ſtock of 2558l.

| | | l. | s. | dedimals. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Thus, | A puts in | 654 | 10 | = 654,5 |
| | B —— | 543 | 15 | = 543,75 |
| | C —— | 480 | 00 | = 480, |
| | D —— | 254 | 10 | = 254,5 |
| | E —— | 365 | 05 | = 365,25 |
| | F —— | 260 | 00 | = 260. |
| The whole ſtock | | 2558 | — 00 | = 2558,00 according to the queſtion. |

With the ſtock of 2558l. they trade 18 months, and gain 831l. 7s. it is required to find every man's part or ſhare of that gain?

*Note*, although, the time of trading, viz. 18 months be mentioned in the queſtion, yet it is no way concerned in anſwering it; as may be obſerved by the following work.

Firſt, 2558l. : 831,35l. : : 1l. : 0,325 decimal parts.
Conſequently, 1l. : 0,325 : : 654,5 : 212,7125. That is,
A's ſtock 654,5 × 0,325 = 212,7125 for A.
B's ſtock 543,75 × 0,325 = 176,71875 for B.
C's ſtock 480, × 0,325 = 156,000 for C.
D's ſtock 254,5 × 0,325 = 82,7125 for D.
E's ſtock 365,25 × 0,325 = 118,70625 for E.
F's ſtock 260, × 0,325 = 84,5 for F.

| | l. parts. | | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A gains | 212,7125 | = | 212 | 14 | 03 |
| B —— | 176,71875 | = | 176 | 14 | 04½ |
| C —— | 156,0000 | = | 156 | 00 | 00 |
| D —— | 82,7125 | = | 82 | 14 | 03 |
| E —— | 118,70625 | = | 118 | 14 | 01½ |
| F —— | 84,5 | = | 84 | 10 | 00 |
| Proof, | 831,35 | | 831 | 7 | 00 the gain. |

We have omitted reſolving this queſtion according to the uſual method (as before directed) of finding every man's particular part of the gain by the golden rule, as in the firſt work of example 1. leaving that for the learner's practice.

*Double* FELLOWSAIP, *or* FELLOWSHIP *with time*, is uſually called the double rule of *fellowſhip*, becauſe any particular man's money is to be conſidered, with relation to the time of its continuance in the joint-ſtock.

*Queſt.* 1. A and B join in partnerſhip upon theſe terms, viz. A agrees to lay down 100l. and to employ it in trade three months: then B is to lay down his 100l. and with the whole ſtock of 200l. they are to trade three months more. Now at the end of this time, they find their whole gain to be 21l. it is required to know what each man's part of the gain ought to be, according to his ſtock, and the time of employing it?

Here it is but reaſonable to conclude, that A ought to gain more than B, notwithſtanding their ſtocks of money are equal; becauſe A employed his money a longer time than B.

Now for ſolving of this queſtion, let us ſuppoſe A's 100l. employed the firſt three months to gain Z = a ſum as yet unknown; then it muſt gain two Z, in ſix months; and, to find what B muſt gain, it will be

| l. | mon. | |
|---|---|---|
| 100 | 6 | 2Z = A's gain. |
| 100 | 3 | To B's gain |

Ergo $\frac{100 \times 3 \times 2Z}{100 \times 6}$ = B's gain.

But A's gain added to B's gain muſt = 21l. the whole gain by the queſtion.

Therefore, $2Z + \frac{100 \times 3 \times 2Z}{100 \times 6} = 21$ l.

That is, $100 \times 6 \times 2Z + 100 \times 3 \times 2Z = 21 \times 100 \times 6$, which is contracted is $900 \times 2Z = 21 \times 600$.

Conſequently, $2Z = \frac{21 \times 600}{900}$ which gives this following analogy,

Viz. 900 : 21 : : 600 : 2Z = 14l. for A's gain.
And 900 : 21 : : 100 × 3 = 300 : 7l. for B's gain.

Now this way of arguing hath not only reſolved the preſent queſtion, but it alſo affords (and demonſtrates) a general rule for reſolving all queſtions of this nature, be the particulars never ſo many, as follows:

Multiply every particular man's ſtock, with the time it is employed; then it will be as the ſum of all theſe products, is to the whole gain or loſs; ſo is every one of theſe products to its proportional part of that whole gain or loſs.

*Queſt.* 2. Three merchants A, B, and C, enter into partnerſhip thus: A puts into the ſtock 65l. for eight months; B puts in 78l. for twelve months, and C puts in 84l. for ſix months; with theſe they traffic and gain

1661. 12s. it is required to find each man's ſhare of the gain proportionable to his ſtock and time of employing it?

1. A's ſtock 651.x 8 mon. the time it was employed = 520
2. B's ſtock 781.x12 mon. the time it was employed = 936
3. C's ſtock 841.x 6 mon. the time it was employed = 504

The ſum of theſe products is 1960

Then, according to the rule, the ſeveral proportions will ſtand thus:

1960 : 166,6 : : 520 : 44,2 = 44l. 4s. 0d. for A.
1960 : 166,6 : : 936 : 79,56 = 79 11 2½ for B.
1960 : 166,6 : : 504 : 42,84 = 42 16 9½ for C.

The whole gain = 166 12 0

Or you may work, as in ſome of the former examples, viz. by finding the proportional part of the gain due to one pound, &c.

Thus, 1690 : 166,6 : : 1 : 0,085 the common multiplier.
Then, 520 × 0,085 = 44,1 for A.
And, 936 × 0,085 = 79,56 for B. } As before.
Alſo, 504 × 0,085 = 42,84 for C.

FELT, a kind of ſtuff, either of wool alone, or of wool and hair; neither ſpun, croſſed, nor wove, but deriving all its conſiſtence from its being wrought, and fulled with lees and ſize.

FELUCCA, is a little veſſel with ſix oars, without any deck, uſed in the Mediterranean. This veſſel has this peculiarity, that its helm may be placed on the head or ſtern, as occaſion requires.

FEME SOLE *merchant*, is where the *feme* trades by herſelf in one trade, with which her huſband doth not meddle, and buys and ſells in that trade; there the *feme* ſhall be ſued, and the huſband named only for conformity; and if judgment be given againſt him, execution ſhall be only againſt the *feme*. *Cro. Car.* 69. *Paſch.* 3 *Car. C. B. Langham* v. *Bewett*.

Such a *feme* may ſue an action without her huſband; *per* Wray chief juſtice. *Paſch.* 31 *Eliz. B. R. Le.* 131. in the caſe of *Chamberlaine* v. *Thorp*.

Every *feme ſole*, which tradeth in London, is not a merchant. *Cro. Car.* 69. *Langham* v. *Bewett*.

In a writ of execution the ſheriff returned, that the plaintiff brought his action in the ſheriff's court in London againſt the defendant and his wife as a *feme ſole merchant*, and had a verdict; and how that by cuſtom in the city of London the lord mayor is chancellor, and may call cauſes before him out of the ſheriff's court, and rule them according to equity; and ſhews how that the lord mayor had called this cauſe before him, and ordered the plaintiff ſhould have judgment, and that the defendant ſhould pay coſts within fourteen days; and that ſhe ſhould pay the debt by fifty ſhillings quarterly, or elſe that execution ſhould go; and that this was the reaſon why he could not make execution: the court held the return ſufficient, and the cuſtom reaſonable, though it had of late been abuſed. *Skin.* 67, *Mich.* 34 *Car.* II. *B. R. Barns* v. *Barns*.

Caſe was brought in the mayor's court upon an *indeb. aſſ.* for fifty-ſeven pounds according to the cuſtom of the city. The evidence was for goods ſold to the defendant's wife in her life; the jury found, that the defendant had been a freeman, but left off his trade twenty years before, and turned diſſenting teacher, but the wife lived apart from him within the liberty of the city, and exerciſed the art of making gimp-lace, and the huſband no ways intermeddled; that ſhe paid her own rent, kept no ſhop, but worked in the garret; that ſhe had goods of the plaintiff to carry on her trade, amounting to fifty-ſeven pounds; and that after her death the defendant promiſed payment; judgment was given by *Rider* for the defendant, and he declared, that *Treby* was of the ſame opinion. *Mich.* 2 *Will.* and *Mar. Show.* 183. *Fabian* v. *Plant*. The reporter, who argued this caſe for defendant, makes a *quære*, and ſays it deſerves conſideration, if ſuch a *feme ſole trader* dies, and leaves an eſtate, and the huſband poſſeſſes himſelf of it, if he ſhall not be anſwerable for her debts.

If the huſband relinquiſh, or become bankrupt, or be over ſea, or of another trade, or never intermeddle with her trade, ſhe is within the cuſtom. *Show.* 184. In the caſe of *Fabian* v. *Plant*. cites *Het.* 9, 10. or if both exerciſe the ſame trade diſtinctly by themſelves, and not intermeddle with one another, *Het.* 9, 10. *Paſch.* 3 *Car. C. B. Bewett* v. *Langham*.

A woman, whoſe huſband had left her above twelve years before, had carried on a trade in her own name as a widow, and gave receipts in her own name, being ſued for a debt contracted in the way of her trade, gave coverture in evidence, and gave evidence of her huſband's being lately alive in Ireland; and Holt, chief juſtice, directed the jury to find for the defendant, and ſo they did. 12 *Mod.* 603. *Mich.* 13. *Will.* III. *Anon.*

A widow and adminiſtratrix of B uſed to deal in tea in B's life-time, and bought four tubs of C at ſo much *per* tub, one of which A paid for and took away; leaving fifty pounds in earneſt for the other three. Ruled at Guildhall, *per* Holt, chief juſtice, that the huſband was liable on the wife's contract, becauſe they cohabited. *Paſch.* 3 *Ann.* 1 *Salk.* 113. *Langfort* v. *Adminiſtratrix of Tiler*. See BANKRUPTCY, how *feme ſole bankrupt*'s lands are to be ſold. *Alſo* ſee LONDON.

FENNEL-SEED. We have two ſorts of this ſeed in uſe in the ſhops, very different from each other in ſhape and qualities; the one is called *common fennel-ſeed*, the other *ſweet fennel-ſeed*. The former is well known, but the latter is a larger and more beautiful ſeed. When bruiſed, it is leſs unctuous and damp, of a fragrant ſmell, and aromatic ſweetiſh taſte. It is to be choſen new, large, and fair, and when damp or duſty, to be rejected. We have it from Holland, but it is greatly cultivated in France and Italy. Forty-eighr ounces of *ſweet fennel-ſeeds* yield about an ounce of oil, of a far more agreeable ſmell than that of *common fennel:* it congeals in the cold, like oil of aniſeed, and aſſumes a beautiful cryſtalline appearance.

*Fennel-ſeed* is a carminative and attenuant; it thins the blood and juices, and is conſiderably diuretic and ſudorific. *Fennel-root* is frequently uſed in decoctions for promoting the urinary diſcharges, and anſwers this purpoſe as well as the ſeed. Some recommend *ſweet fennel-ſeed* as a ſpecific in the ſmall-pox and meaſles, and others in malignant fevers. The roots are of the number of what are called the five opening ones of the ſhops, and the juice of them is recommended, four ounces for a doſe, againſt quartan agues. There is an oil drawn from the ſeed by the alembic, four or five drops of which is a doſe, and which is equal to that of aniſeed in virtue, and much more pleaſant, and its diſtilled water is given with ſucceſs to children for the gripes.

It is an ingredient in many of the officinal compoſitions, and in the decoctions for clyſters.

FENUGREEK, is a ſeed of a very ſingular figure, about the ſize of the hemp-ſeed, but of a very irregularly rhomboidal ſhape, conſiderably thick, and having a line or depreſſion running obliquely from one of the angles to another. It is of a pale yellowiſh colour, of a wrinkled ſurface, conſiderably heavy, and of an extremely tough and firm texture, being with difficulty broken in a mortar, and, when bruiſed, very damp and glutinous. It is alſo of a very ſtrong and diſagreeable ſmell, and of a faint nauſeous taſte. We have it from Germany, where, as alſo in many other parts of Europe, it is cultivated in fields.

It is uſed externally on many occaſions; it is emollient and diſcutient, in a great degree, and applied either by way of cataplaſm or fomentation, gives great relief in pains: it is ſometimes alſo made an ingredient in emollient clyſters, where anodines and carminatives are required, without too much pungency. It very happily blunts the acrimony of the humours, and in dyſenteries and diarrheas, where the ſharpneſs of the ſtools have eroded the mucous matter from the inteſtines, the mucilage of this ſeed, given in this manner, excellently ſupplies it for a time.

FERMENT, leaven, barm, yeaſt, or any thing which produces a fermentation. The *ferment* uſed in England is the ſpume or froth of beer concreted.

FERRY, is a liberty by preſcription, or the king's grant, to have a boat or paſſage upon a river, for carriage of horſes and men for reaſonable toll: it is uſually to croſs a river.

A *ferry* is no more than a common highway, and no action will lie for one's being disturbed in his passage, unless he alledge some particular damage. *Ferrymen* are not to overload their boats, otherwise a remedy lies against them. 12 *Coke* 63. 2 *Bulstr.* 280.

FERSHARN, is an island on the Arabian coast, about three leagues distant from *Gezeon*, which, besides the pearl-fishery, has a great trade in wheat, with which it supplies all parts of Arabia.

FEZ. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

FIFESHIRE, *in Scotland*, is an excellent spot of ground, abounding with grain and pasture, and in some places with lead ore, and coal; its seas are filled with fish, as well those guarded with scale as shell. At *Dumfermline* is a manufacture of diaper and other sorts of good linen, which is the sole employ of its inhabitants, and those of the neighbouring towns.

FIGS, of the shops, are the fruit of the common *fig-tree* gathered when moderately ripe, not too mellow, and carefully dried in the sun, before they are packed up.

*Figs*, both fresh and dry, are very wholesome food; they are nutritive and emollient; they are also good in disorders of the breast and lungs; but a too free use of them has sometimes brought on obstructions of the viscera, a common complaint in the Levant. They are frequently made ingredients in our pectoral decoctions, and by some are generally recommended against nephritic complaints. They are much used externally by way of cataplasm, either roasted or boiled in milk, for the ripening of tumours, and for easing the pain of the piles.

FILE-CUTTER. This is a very laborious business. The *file-cutter* forges the iron, forms the roughness of the *file*, by filing it, and makes *rasps*, by punching up the iron in sharp scales; after which he case-hardens them. Those of this business take five or ten pounds with an apprentice. A journeyman may earn twelve or fifteen shillings a week; and it will require a hundred pounds to set up master.

English *files* are much esteemed, and are an article of exportation.

FINANCES in the French polity, signify the revenues of the king and state.

FINE-DRAWER. *Fine-drawing* is a method of sewing up the rents of woollen cloth, in so neat a manner, as to render the place that had been torn imperceptible. This is a trade by itself, performed both by men and women; and requires exceeding good eyes. Those of this business take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; and the journeymen are able to earn half a crown or three shillings a day.

FIRE. Houses in London to be built with party-walls, &c. 19 *Car.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 8. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *f.* 6. Directions for preventing *fires* in London. 6 *Ann. c.* 31. 7 *Ann. c.* 17. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. Firemen exempt from being impressed. 6 *Ann. c.* 31. *f.* 2. Penalty on servants firing houses by negligence. 6 *Ann. c.* 31. *f.* 3. Restrictions of boiling turpentine. 7 *Ann. c.* 14. *f.* 11. Stock in fire-offices how taxed. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 2. *f.* 54.

By 6 *Geo.* III. it being found by experience, that the several rules, regulations, and directions of 4 *Geo.* III. are inconvenient, and no means of preventing the spreading of *fire*, it is therefore hereby enacted, that no timbers, except the timbers of the girders, binding joists, and the templets under the same, and necessary bond-timbers, shall be laid into the party-walls erected or built, or to be erected or built; and that no timbers of the roof be laid into such party-walls, except the purloins, or kerb thereof, and that the ends of girders, and binding joists, lying within such party-walls, shall not exceed nine inches; and that none of the ends of the girders, or binding joists, in adjoining houses, shall meet, or be laid opposite to each other; and that the sides thereof shall be at least nine inches distant from each other; and that there shall be nine inches at least of solid brick-work at or between the ends and sides of all bond-timbers. The penalty on builders, not complying with these regulations, is the same as contained in 4 *Geo.* III.

A workman, taking on himself to act contrary to the directions of either acts, forfeits five pounds; and if not forthwith paid, he is to be committed for three months.

This act is to be taken notice of as a public act, by all judges, justices, and all other persons whatever, without specially pleading the same. *See* ARSON.

FIRKIN, an English measure of capacity for liquid things, containing a fourth part of the barrel. The *firkin* of ale is eight gallons, and that of beer nine. The *firkins* of soap and of butter are of the same dimensions as those of ale.

FISCAL, or solicitor, in Spain, is the king's mouth in causes wherein he is concerned, a check upon those that manage the revenue, a spy upon those who embezzle it, an informer against those that defraud it, an agent to improve it; and lastly, a two-edged sword, in a civil and criminal capacity, to defend the patrimony of the crown; and therefore, this employment is of no less importance than honour, and has in this court of trade, as well as in all others, an equal place with the judges of both chambers. And it being the duty of this *fiscal*, or solicitor, to see all the laws and ordinances observed, he has certainly the greatest share of business; so that the president and he may be accounted the axis the whole affairs of the Spanish West-Indies turn upon.

FISHERY, a place where great numbers of fish are catched, or the commerce carried on in fish; and more particularly the catching them for the foreign markets.

The *fishery* constitutes a considerable branch of the commerce of these islands and the dominions thereto belonging: a great number of hands and vessels are employed in this article, both in Europe and America; and besides what is expended at home, there are between two and three hundred thousand pounds sterling, some calculate upwards of half a million, yearly returned, merely for herring and cod, exported to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, &c.

The situation of the British coasts is the most advantageous for catching fish in the world. The Scottish islands, particularly those to the north and west, lie most commodious for carrying on the fishing trade to perfection: for no country in Europe can pretend to come up to Scotland in the abundance of the finest fish, both sea and fresh-water kinds, commonly called white and grey fish, with which its various creeks, bays, rivers, loughs, and circumjacent coasts, are replenished.

King Charles I. was so sensible of the immense advantages that might be drawn from carrying on and encouraging the *fisheries*, that he began the experiment with a company of merchants; but the civil wars soon laid that project aside. King Charles II. made a like attempt; but his pressing want of money induced him to withdraw what he had employed that way; whereupon the merchants, that joined with him, did so too.

Since the union, several attempts have been made to retrieve the *fisheries*, and a corporation was settled to that effect, intitled, the *Royal British Fishery*. But all this came to little or nothing, till in the year 1750 the parliament of Great-Britain taking the state of the *fisheries* into consideration, an act was passed for the encouragement of the *White Herring Fishery*, granting a charter whereby a corporation is created to continue twenty-one years, by the name of the *Society of the Free British Fishery*, to be under the direction of a governor, president, vice-president, council, &c. who are to continue in office the space of three years, with power to make by-laws, &c. to raise a capital of five hundred thousand pounds by way of subscription: and a gratuity of three pounds *per annum* for every hundred pounds actually employed in the said *fishery* shall be paid out of the customs; and thirty shillings *per* ton bounty for decked vessels, from twenty to eighty tons, built for and employed in the said *fishery*, for the space of fourteen years from the date of the charter. And any number of persons, who in any part of Great-Britain shall subscribe ten thousand pounds into the stock of this society, under the name of the *Fishing-chamber*, and carry on the said *fishery* on their own account of profit and loss, shall be intitled to the same bounty allowed to the society; with other proper regulations, relative to the nets, marks on the herring-barrels, number of hands, and the quantity of salt that is intitled to the bounty. *See* DRAWBACK *relating to this point.*

*Herring*-FISHERY. The herring, *alosa minor*, or *harengus*, according to Rondeletius, is a salt-water fish, of a middling

middling ſize, with a bluiſh back, and a ſilver white belly, pretty much like the ſhad. When in its prime, it is very fat. The modern herring was unknown to the ancients; for the *halec* of the Romans was only a kind of ſauce made of any ſalt fiſh.

Herrings are a fiſh of paſſage; they are chiefly in the northern ſeas, and commonly go in ſhoals, being very fond of following fire or light, and in their paſſage they reſemble a kind of lightning.

About the beginning of June, an incredible ſhoal of herrings, probably much greater than the land of Great-Britain and Ireland, come from the north on the ſurface of the ſea; but where they breed, or what particular place they come from, cannot be certainly known. It is not perceived that any of them ever return to their native coaſt, but come from home with their prolific ſpawn, by the caſting of which every fiſh may be ſaid to produce ten thouſand more in our ſeas.

As this great ſhoal paſſes between the ſhores of Greenland and the North Cape, though two hundred leagues wide, they muſt be greatly ſtraitened as they come ſouthward; ſo that this huge body is neceſſarily divided into two parts, as ſoon as they reach the extremities of Great-Britain. For we find one part of them ſteering weſt, or ſouth weſt, and leaving the iſlands of Shetland and Orkney to the left, paſs on towards Ireland, where, being interrupted a ſecond time, ſome, keeping the ſhore of Britain, paſſing ſouth down St. George's channel, till they meet their friends again in the Severn ſea, while the other party, edging off to the ſouth weſt, coaſt the weſtern ocean, till they reach the ſouth ſhore of Ireland; and then ſteering ſouth eaſt, join their aforeſaid friends in St. George's channel. The other part of the firſt diviſion made in the north, parting a little to the eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt, come down in the German ocean; and ſtill keeping the coaſt of Britain, they paſs by Shetland, and then make the point of Buchanneſs, and the coaſt of Aberdeen, filling, as they go, all the bays, firths, creeks, &c. with their innumerable multitude. Hence they proceed ſouthward, paſs by Dunbar, and round the high ſhore of St. Tabbs and Berwick, are again ſeen off Scarborough; and even then not in leſſened bulk, till they arrive at Yarmouth roads on the coaſt of England; after that they viſit the mouth of the Thames, and from thence, paſſing down the Britiſh channel, they ſeem to be loſt in the weſtern ocean.

In this courſe we find ſeveral nations ſerving themſelves out of their multitudes, in different ſtations. The Dutch have long taſted the ſweets of this fiſhery. The next draught is on the coaſt of Scotland, on the weſt ſide of the Tay, where they ſpread upon the ſands and ſhoals in every creek, harbour, or bay, where the Scotch take very great quantities, cure, pickle up, and ſend to the ſame market as the Dutch, and ſometimes before them, and diſpoſe of them to as good a price. Then as they drive ſouth, the Dunbar fiſhing-boats and the Fifemen intercept great quantities, which they make for the moſt part into red-herrings, and ſalt at Edinburgh, and other populous places in the country. After they have been ſerved, the Engliſh, Dutch, French, &c. receive them with all diligence, as they ſpread themſelves on the banks in Yarmouth-roads in queſt of their food; and it has been known, that the Yarmouth and Leoſtoffmen only have taken and cured fifty thouſand barrels of red herrings in a year; beſides the incredible quantities taken by the Dutch, French, Flemings, Fluſhingers, Bremers, and Hamburghers, who lie with their buſſes on the back of Yarmouth-ſands; and yet the fiſhing ſmacks of London, Folkſtone, Dover, Sandwich, and all the coaſt about the mouth of the river Thames, catch innumerable quantities for the London markets, and all the populous towns up the river, and upon and near the ſea-coaſts of Kent and Suſſex, where they eat them freſh. And as the remainder ſwim down the narrow ſeas, they become an eaſy prey to the French on one ſide, and to the weſt country fiſhermen on the other ſide of the channel, till they become ſhotten, or caſt their rows, and diſappear.

If we view this *fiſhery* on the other ſide of Britain, we ſhall find, that the merchants of Glaſgow, Aire, Dumfries, and on all the coaſts of Galloway; as alſo the merchants of London-derry, Belfaſt, Carrickfergus, Carlingford, and particularly thoſe of Dublin, make great profit of theſe fiſh, which abound in the ſame manner on the ſouth-weſt as on the ſouth-eaſt. Again, after they have ſailed through all the Iriſh Channel, the merchants of Devonſhire, from Minehead to Barnſtaple and Biddiford, and ſo on weſtward to the towns and north ſhore of Cornwall, catch in the Severn ſea and cure many thouſand tons, which they ſhip off for Spain and the Mediterranean; beſides an incredible quantity conſumed by the people on ſhore; which is imitated alſo by the merchants at Pembroke, Swanzey, and on all the coaſt of South-Wales, from Milford haven to the mouth of Briſtol river above King-road; where they grow ſhotten, fall into deep water to the weſtward, and appear no more. Nor is the quantity of herrings by this time exhauſted; for to eſtimate the remaining numbers of herrings by the mighty ſhoals which are ſeen in the Severn ſeas, and on the weſt and ſouth coaſts of England and Ireland, at their departing, it would ſeem that the number taken by the fiſhermen, and deſtroyed by porpuſſes, dog-fiſh, fin-fiſh, whales, and all the other different ſorts of ſea-monſters, is ſcarcely felt. And ſome think that the number taken by all the fiſhermen in Europe does not amount to above one herring in a million of what firſt appeared off Shetland.

The advantage of this *fiſhery* to our nation is the want of it in the ſouthern kingdoms on the coaſt of Spain, Portugal, the ſouth parts of France, on the ſide of the ocean, in the Mediterranean, and on the coaſt of Africa.

There are two fiſhing ſeaſons, the firſt from June to the end of Auguſt; and the ſecond in autumn, when the fogs become very favourable to this kind of fiſhing.

The Hollanders were the firſt who obſerved the ſeveral ſeaſons of their paſſage, in order to fiſh for them; and their firſt regular fiſhing is fixed to 1163.

William Buckelz, or Bachalen, a native of Bier Uliet, was the firſt who diſcovered the ſecret of curing and pickling herrings, in 1416; others ſay the method of ſalting and barrelling them was diſcovered in 1397; and even the emperor, Charles V. with the queen of Hungary, made a journey to the iſle of Bier Uliet, on purpoſe to ſee the tomb of this barreller of herrings.

The Dutch, who have hitherto engroſſed almoſt the whole of this trade, begin their *herring-fiſhery* on the 24th of June, employing therein about two hundred veſſels, called buſſes, being between forty-five and ſixty tons burden, having three or four ſmall cannon.

They never ſtir out of port without a convoy, unleſs there be enough together to make about eighteen or twenty-four cannon among them; with theſe they wait with their nets ſpread in the fair way of the fiſh, ready to take them at their firſt appearance off Shetland. By this means they are ſoon loaden, and making all poſſible haſte home, they cure, repack, and prepare them for the market at Dantzic and the Eaſt Country.

There is nothing particular in the method of fiſhing, only the nets in which the fiſh are drawn ſhould have meſhes an inch ſquare, to let all the leſſer fry go.

The commerce of herring, both white, that is pickled, and red, is very conſiderable. The white Dutch herrings are the moſt eſteemed, being diſtinguiſhed into four ſorts, according to their ſizes; and the beſt are thoſe that are fat, fleſhy, firm, and white, ſalted the ſame day they are taken with good ſalt, and well barrelled. But, by the care which is now taken in preparing, gutting, ſalting, and barrelling our Scotch herrings, they are at leaſt equal to thoſe of the Dutch.

The curing and preparing of white or pickled herrings is thus performed: as ſoon as the herrings are catched, they are cut open, their guts and all taken out, but the milts and rows. Then waſhing them in freſh-water, they are left between twelve and fifteen hours in a tub full of ſtrong brine made of ſea-ſalt and freſh-water. When they are taken out, they are well drained, and barrelled evenly in rows, preſſing them well down, and ſtrewing a layer of ſalt both at top and bottom. When the barrel is full, it is ſtopped up very cloſe, that no air may get in, nor any brine out, either of which ſpoils the fiſh.

Thoſe intended for red herrings are treated in the ſame manner as the white, only that they are to lie double the time in brine, being to take all their ſalt here. When the herrings are taken out of the brine, they ſtring them by

by the head on little wooden ſpits, and ſo hang them in a chimney, made for the purpoſe; and when the chimney is full, it ſeldom contains leſs than ten or twelve thouſand; they make a little fire of bruſh-wood underneath that yields no flame, but a deal of ſmoke. Here the herrings commonly remain for twenty-four hours, till they are ſufficiently ſmoked and dried; and then they are barrelled up. The goodneſs of theſe conſiſts in being large, fat, and pliable; their outſide of a golden colour, their inſide a pure red, with roes or milts in them, and well ſalted and barrelled.

*Cod*-FISHERY. The cod is a fiſh of paſſage, with a large head, a very wide mouth, and a ſharp row of teeth round its jaw; it is alſo a fiſh of prey, as we often find other ſmaller fiſh, as haddock, whiting, &c. taken intire out of its maw, only a little gaſhed and nibbled by the cod's teeth, the contexture of the maw being very ſtrong; its ſkin is of a mottled browniſh-colour on the back, white under the belly, and covered with ſcales of different thickneſs and tranſparency on the different parts of the body. When in its prime, it is obſerved to have a full row or ovarium, a milt, and a large liver, at which time it is excellent eating, when freſh; but when theſe begin to be ſpent, the fiſh then grows lean, and is gradually upon the decline. If cod be well prepared and ſalted, it will keep a long while. It is commonly eaten among us in Lent, &c. and called ſalt-fiſh. Of this there are two kinds, the one green or white cod, though it is all the ſame fiſh differently prepared; the former being ſometimes ſalted and barrelled, and then taken out for uſe; and the latter having laid ſome competent time in ſalt, is dried in the ſun, or ſmoke.

The chief *fiſheries* for green cod are in the bay of Canada off Cape Breton, the great and little banks near Newfoundland, the iſland of St. Peter, and the iſle of Sable; and hitherto fiſhing-veſſels are ſent both from America and Europe. The veſſels are from a hundred to a hundred and fifty tons burden, which will catch between thirty and forty thouſand cod each. *See* the title ARTICLE, wherein the reader will find, under the V. VI. and XVIII. article of the definitive treaty of 1763, whatever is relative to the *Newfoundland fiſhery* between us and the French. The article XVIII. concerns the explicit diſavowal of Spain, to the pretended right of fiſhing in the neighbourhood of Newfoundland. *See* BISCAY, where we have given the thoughts of a Spaniſh miniſter on the *cod-fiſhery*.

The moſt eſſential article in the *cod-fiſhery* are the opening the fiſh, cutting off the heads, and ſalting them; upon the ability of doing this laſt depends the whole ſucceſs of the cargo. All the trading nations in Europe allow the commerce of cod-fiſh to be one of the moſt ſafe and gainful that is known.

The largeſt and fatteſt cod are thoſe taken on the ſouth ſide of the bank, being a kind of ſubmarine mountain, about a hundred and fifty leagues long, and fifty broad, and twenty-five diſtant from Newfoundland: thoſe on the north ſide are not ſo large.

The beſt ſeaſon for cod-fiſhing is from February to the end of April; at which time cod, which in the winter had retired to the deepeſt parts of the ſea, return to the bank, and fatten very much. Thoſe taken from March to June keep well enough, but thoſe from July to September do not keep. The fiſhing holds from a month or ſix weeks to ſix months. If fiſhermen have but half their cargo, as Lent draws on, they ſtrive to make homeward with the firſt. Some will make a ſecond trip, before others are loaded for the firſt. There is only one cod taken at a time, and yet the more ſkilful will catch between three and four hundred a day. It is very fatiguing work, from the weightineſs of the fiſh and the intenſity of the cold on the bank. The captain and ſailors have uſually allowed them one-third of the cod that are brought home well cured and found.

The cod, after the head is cut off, the belly opened, and the guts out, are ranged in the bottom of the fiſhing-veſſel, head to tail; a layer thereof, being made a fathom or two ſquare, is covered with ſalt, over this is another layer made, and covered as before: thus every day's fiſh is arranged, but ſo that the fiſh of different days are never mixed together.

When the cod have lain to drain three or four days, they are moved into another part of the veſſel, and ſalted again, where they continue till the veſſel is loaded. Sometimes they are barrelled up.

In fiſhing for dry cod, veſſels of all ſizes are employed, eſpecially ſuch as have large holds. As cod is to be dried by the ſun only, the European veſſels ſet out in March or April, to have the benefit of the ſummer for drying them. Indeed we ſend out veſſels in June and July; but thoſe only buy ſuch fiſh as have been prepared by the inhabitants of Newfoundland and the adjacent parts, in exchange for which we give meal, brandies, biſcuits, pulſe, linen, &c.

The principal *fiſhery* for dry cod is from Cape Roſe to the Bay des Experts along the coaſt of Placentia, where there are divers commodious ports to dry the fiſh in; theſe are a ſmaller kind than the green cod. The method of fiſhing is much the ſame in both; though the dry take up more time, and employ more hands, yet they are the fitter to keep, as the ſalt takes more hold; and there is ſcarce half ſo much ſalt ſpent in this as the other.

As faſt as the veſſels arrive, they unrig them, leaving nothing but the ſhrouds, to ſuſtain the maſts; and in the mean time tents are pitched on ſhore, made of fir-branches, &c. and the ſails over them, with a ſcaffold between fifty and ſixty feet long, and a third of that in breadth. In the mean time the ſhip's crews are fiſhing; and, as faſt as they catch, they bring the fiſh aſhore, open and ſalt them upon moveable benches; yet the main curing is performed on the aforeſaid ſcaffold.

When the fiſh have taken ſalt, they are waſhed, and then laid in piles on the galleries of the ſcaffold, in order to drain: after this they are ranged in hurdles, one fiſh thick, head againſt tail, with the backs uppermoſt, and turned and ſhifted four times every twenty-four hours, while they lie thus.

When they begin to dry, they are laid in heaps, of ten or twelve each, in order to retain their warmth; and every day the heaps are enlarged, till they become double their firſt bulk; then two heaps are joined into one, which they turn every day as before: and at laſt they are ſalted again, beginning with thoſe firſt ſalted; and thus they are laid in huge piles, till they are carried on board the ſhips, where they are laid upon branches of trees diſpoſed in the holds for that intent, with matts all around, to prevent their contracting any moiſture.

There are other commodities alſo drawn from cod; the guts and tongues, which are ſalted at the ſame time with the fiſh, and barrelled up; the roes, which being ſalted and barrelled, ſerve for throwing into the ſea, to draw fiſh together, particularly pilchards; and laſtly, the oil got from the milts and livers, which is uſed in dreſſing of leather, &c.

The Scots catch a ſmall kind of cod, on the coaſts of Buchan, and all along the Murray Firth on both ſides, as alſo in the firth of Forth, Clyde, &c. which is very good. They ſalt and dry theſe in the ſun upon the rocks, and ſometimes in the chimney. They alſo catch ling, which they treat almoſt in the ſame manner, beſides great quantities of ſkait, and other ſmaller fiſh; but moſt part of all theſe are for home conſumption.

*Mackarel*-FISHERY. The mackarel is a ſea-fiſh, without any ſcales; its body is round and plump, terminating almoſt in a point at each extremity, being about a foot long; it appears yellow in the water, and, when out of it, of a ſilver white, except ſome ſtreaks of blue on the back and ſides.

The mackarel is found in large ſhoals in the ocean, but eſpecially on the French and Engliſh coaſts. They enter the Engliſh Channel in April, and proceed to the ſtreights of Dover, as the ſummer advances; ſo that about June they are on the coaſts of Cornwall, Suſſex, Normandy, &c. where the *fiſhery* is moſtly carried on.

They eat well freſh, and are not contemptible food, when well pickled and barrelled. The fiſh are taken either with lines, or nets; but the latter way of catching them is the moſt conſiderable, being performed in the night-time. They are pickled two ways: firſt, by opening and gutting them, and cramming their bellies as hard as poſſible with ſalt by means of a ſtick; and then laying them in rows at the bottom of the veſſel, ſtrewing ſalt between each layer.

The ſecond way is putting them directly into tubs full of brine, made of ſalt and freſh-water, leaving them to ſteep, till they have taken ſalt enough to keep: after this they are barrelled up, and preſſed cloſe down.

*Pearl*-FISHERY. Pearls are catched in the ſeas of the Eaſt-Indies, in thoſe of America, and in ſome parts of Europe.

The chief *pearl-fiſheries* of the Eaſt are, the iſland of Baharem in the Perſian gulph; the *fiſhery* of Catifa, oppoſite Baharem, on the coaſt of Arabia Felix; and that of Manar, a ſea-port in the iſle of Ceylon. Theſe laſt are the fineſt in all the Eaſt, but ſeldom exceed four carats. The pearls of Baharem and Catifa are thoſe commonly ſold in the Eaſt; they border a little on the yellow, for which the Eaſterns do not eſteem them the leſs, as they reckon it a ſign of their being ripe, and that they will never change colour.

The American *pearl-fiſheries* are all in the gulph of Mexico, along the *Terra Firma*. Thoſe of the iſland Marguerite are the fineſt for weight and water, and found in the greateſt quantity.

There is a pearl *fiſhery* in Chineſe Tartary near the city Nipehoa, the lake, which is of great extent, being now divided between the Muſcovites and Chineſe, after a war about the property of it had been terminated toward the end of the laſt century. There are *pearl-fiſheries* in the South-Sea, but inconſiderable.

There are alſo ſome *pearl-fiſheries* on the coaſts of Scotland, and in a river of Bavaria; theſe ſerve for necklaces, but are no ways comparable to thoſe of the Eaſt or Weſt-Indies.

There are two ſeaſons of pearl-fiſhing in the Eaſt-Indies; the firſt in March and April; the ſecond in Auguſt and September; and the more rain that falls, the more plentiful the *fiſhery*. In the opening of the ſeaſon are ſeen two hundred and fifty barks on the banks; in the larger of theſe are two divers, and in the ſmaller one. As ſoon as the barks have caſt anchor, each diver binds a ſtone under his body, as ballaſt; beſides this, another heavy ſtone is tied to one foot, whereby they ſink in a moment: their fingers are armed with leather mittens, in order to ſcrape off the oyſters from the rocks, and ſometimes this is done with an iron rake. Laſtly, each diver carries down a large net, like a ſack, tied by a long cord to his neck, to put the oyſters in, and the cord is to pull the diver up. In this apparatus he precipitates himſelf ſometimes above ſixty feet, and is buſy, running from ſide to ſide to tear off the oyſters and cram them into his budget. At whatever depth the divers are, they eaſily ſee whatever paſſes in the ſea; and ſometimes they ſee monſtrous fiſhes, from which all their addreſs cannot ſave them. The beſt divers keep under water half an hour, the others not leſs than a quarter: during this time they keep their breath without the uſe of oils or any other liquid. When they find themſelves ſtreightened, they pull the rope to which the bag is faſtened, and holding by it with both hands, the people in the bark hoiſt them up, ſometimes with five hundred oyſters, and ſometimes fifty. Some divers need a little reſpite, others jump in again directly, continuing this exerciſe for many hours at a time.

On the ſhore their barks are unloaded into little pits, dug four or five feet ſquare, and heaps of ſand raiſed over the oyſters to the height of a man. In this condition they are left till the rain, wind, and ſun open and kill them. So that the pearls fall into the pits upon taking the oyſters out, after the fleſh is rotted and dried.

After clearing the pits of the groſſer filth, the ſand is ſhifted ſeveral times to ſeparate the pearls; yet after all their care, ſeveral of the pearls are loſt. After cleaning and drying them, they are put through a ſieve according to their ſizes. The ſmalleſt are ſold for ſeed of pearls, and the reſt ſold by auction to the higheſt bidder.

The fiſhing for pearl in the Weſt-Indies is uſually from October to March. In this time about a dozen barks ſet out from Carthagena, under a convoy of a man of war called l'Armadilla: among the barks there is one called Capitana, to which all the reſt are obliged to bring what they have caught in the day. The reſt is the ſame as in the Eaſt-Indian *fiſhery*.

When the Spaniards arrived firſt in America, the natives had great quantities of pearl ſtored up; but they were almoſt all imperfect, and their water ſmoky and yellow, by reaſon of the fire they had uſed in opening the fiſh.

*Pilchard*-FISHERY. The pilchard is a ſmall ſea-fiſh, bigger than the anchovy, but leſs than the herring, which it otherwiſe reſembles. It has a yellow head, a white belly, aod a ſea-green back. It is very good eating either freſh or lightly ſeaſoned. It is a fiſh of paſſage, and is prepared as the anchovy, only that the head is cut off the latter, and it has a round back, whereas the pilchard has a very flat one.

The chief *pilchard-fiſheries* are along the coaſts of Dalmatia, to the ſouth of the iſle of Iſſea; on the coaſts of Bretagne, from Belle-Iſle to Breſt, and along the coaſts of Cornwall and Devonſhire. That of Dalmatia furniſhes all Greece and a great part of Italy. That on the coaſts of Bretagne employs yearly above three hundred ſloops. The fiſh caught on our coaſts, though larger, are not ſo much valued as the French pilchards, not being ſo thoroughly cured. The ſeaſon is from June to September. The pilchards naturally follow light, whereby they are in the night-time more eaſily catched. On the coaſts of France, the roes of cod-fiſh are uſed to make them riſe from the bottom and run into the nets. The fiſh, when taken, are brought aſhore to a warehouſe, where they are laid up in broad piles ſupported with backs and ſides; and, as they are piled, they ſalt them with bay-ſalt, which lying to ſoak twenty or thirty days, they run out a deal of blood, &c. then they waſh them clean in ſea-water; and, when dry, barrel and preſs them hard down, to preſs out the oil which runs at a hole at the bottom of the caſk.

*Anchovy*-FISHERY. The anchovy is caught in May, June, and July, on the coaſts of Catalonia, Provence, &c. at which ſeaſon it conſtantly repairs up the Streights of Gibraltar into the Mediterranean. Collins ſays they are found in great plenty on the weſtern coaſts of England and Wales. The fiſhing is chiefly in the night-time, when a light being put out at the ſtern of the fiſhing-veſſels, the anchovies flock round, and are caught in nets.

*Salmon*-FISHERY. The ſalmon breed in the clear ſandy parts of rivers; and the more or leſs clear theſe are, the ſalmon are obſerved to abound in proportion, eſpecially if the mouths of the rivers be clean; they begin to ſpawn in September, if not ſooner; and the young becomes a ſamblet the following year, and in a few months it is ſuppoſed to become a large ſalmon. When the milter and ſpawner have performed their office, they betake themſelves to the ſea, and if their return be prevented by wears or ſuch like, they become ſick and lean, and die in two years time. If in the mean time they ſpawn, there is produced a diminutive ſalmon, called ſkegger, which will never arrive at the uſual bulk; for it is the ſea that makes them grow big, and the rivers fat. The female ſalmon has a pic that projects from its noſe ſtrait down into the jaw; its ſcales are not ſo bright as the male's, its body is ſomewhat ſpeckled, its belly is flatter, and its fleſh is not ſo red, and it is more dry, and not ſo delicious. In ſpawning time, when they repair from the ſea up the rivers, they are ſeen to leap up cataracts and precipices ſeveral yards high, and love very much to go againſt the ſtream; retiring as far from the ſea into the freſh-water rivers as poſſible, in order to ſpawn.

The chief *ſalmon fiſheries* in Europe are in England, Scotland, and Ireland, in the rivers, and ſea-coaſts adjoining to river-mouths. Thoſe moſt diſtinguiſhed for ſalmon in Scotland are the river Tweed, the Clyde, the Tay, the Almon, the Dee, the Don, the Spey, the Findorn, the Naim, the Neſs, the Locky, the Bewley, the Connon, the Alnes, &c. in moſt of which it is very common, about the height of the ſummer, eſpecially if the weather happen to be very hot, to catch four or five ſcore of ſalmon at a draught.

The chief rivers in England for ſalmon are, that part of the Tweed near Berwick; the Tine, near Newcaſtle; the Eden, near Carliſle; beſides a very inconſiderable number catched in the river Thames, above London, &c.

The fiſhing uſually begins about January, and in Scotland they are obliged to give over about the 15th of Auguſt, becauſe, as it is then ſuppoſed that the fiſh come up to ſpawn, it would be quite depopulating the rivers to continue fiſhing any longer. The fiſhing is performed with nets, in the places near which the rivers empty themſelves into the ſea, and along the ſea-coaſts thereabouts: the fiſh are ſeen to crowd thither in ſhoals from all parts, in ſearch of freſh-water, partly to get rid of ſome troubleſome ſea-vermin, which are obſerved on their ſkin, and which freſh-

water kills, but chiefly for ſpawning; and likewiſe higher up the rivers, they fiſh for them with nets, ſometimes with a kind of locks or wears made on purpoſe, which in ſome places have iron gates, ſo diſpoſed, that the fiſh in going up the river, open them with their head; but no ſooner are they entered, than the gate falls to. However this be, they have kinds of reſervoirs in Scotland made in the ſame nature in commodious places on the river, called coſſacks, in which a briſk ſtream is contrived to run out at a certain place therein, and a wooden angular frame placed with an opening in it large enough for any fiſh to enter at, which grows wider inwardly; for fiſhermen ſay that a ſalmon does not love any thing to touch his noſe; beſides theſe, they have large wooden contrivances, called kifts, ſo made as to have a large briſk fall of water, from an adjoining part of the river; at which opening the fiſh love to mount up, but when in, they cannot return again the ſame way, which is the only open place. In both theſe decoys, as it were, the ſalmon are incloſed as in reſervoirs, which are ſo contrived as to have conſtant ſupplies of water from other parts of the river higher up, and where they are eaſily taken, which is commonly done with ſpears of two or three prongs. In ſome places they fiſh for ſalmon in the night-time by means of torches, &c. The fiſhermen watch when the fiſh draws towards the light, of which he is naturally a great lover, and ſtrike him with a ſpear, or ſuch like inſtrument. In the above-mentioned reſervoirs, when the ſpawning ſeaſon comes on, the fiſhermen take out the wooden frames and a particular part in the kifts, whereby is opened a free communication for the fiſh to go through.

When the ſalmon are taken, they open them along the back, take out the guts and gills, and cut out the greateſt part of the bones, endeavouring to make the inſide as ſmooth as poſſible; then ſalt the fiſh in large tubs for the purpoſe, where they lie a conſiderable time ſoaking in brine, and about October they are packed cloſe up in barrels.

In Ireland, near the village of Leixlip, ſeven miles from Dublin, there is a remarkable caſcade, or ſalmon-leap, over a precipice of rocks about thirty feet high, running intirely acroſs the river Liffey, over which the water ruſhes with a prodigious force. About the middle of the rocks there is erected a very ſtong arch to defend the perſons who look after the *fiſhery* from the rapidity of the ſtream. To this arch, and to each ſide of the river, are fixed ſeveral large baſkets, in order to catch the ſalmon, many of which, endeavouring to leap this precipice, fall into them, wherein nets are fixed which entangle them, beyond a poſſibility of eſcaping.

And there is alſo a like caſcade on the water of Bewley, belonging to the eſtate of the late lord Lovat, near Inverneſs in Scotland, where the ſalmon are catched by the like artifice.

The cured or pickled ſalmon exported abroad, particularly up the Mediterranean, and of which there is yearly a very large quantity from each of the above-mentioned places, is allowed to be the beſt in Europe.

Beſides this, there are a great many ſalmon uſed in home conſumption, both freſh and pickled; particularly, that kind commonly called Newcaſtle ſalmon.

In the beginning of the ſeaſon there is no inconſiderable quantity of freſh ſalmon ſent up by land-carriage to the London markets, particularly from about Carliſle, Berwick, Newcaſtle, &c.

They have alſo in Scotland a great deal of ſalmon, which is ſalted in the common way, and after ſoaking in brine a competent time, is well preſſed and then dried in the ſmoke; this is called kipper or rooſted-ſalmon; and is chiefly made for home conſumption, and, if properly cured and prepared, has no mean reliſh.

*Sturgeon*-FISHERY. The ſturgeon, ſuppoſed by ſome to be the *ſilurus* of the ancients, is a large ſea-fiſh, which at its ſeaſon runs up the rivers: it has a ſharp ſnout, flat belly, and bluiſh back.

There are ſturgeons of all ſizes; ſome twenty feet long, but the middle ſize are eſteemed the beſt. Of the roe of this fiſh the cavear, or kavia, ſo much prized by the Italians, &c. is prepared. *See* CAVEAR.

Sturgeon, when freſh, eats deliciouſly. In order to make it keep, it is ſalted or pickled in large pieces, and put up in cags from thirty to fifty pounds.

The greateſt *ſturgeon-fiſhery* known, is in the mouth of the Volga on the Caſpian-Sea, where the Muſcovites employ a great number of hands, and catch them in a kind of incloſure formed by huge ſtakes, repreſenting the letter Z, repeated ſeveral times. Theſe *fiſheries* are open on the ſide next the ſea, and cloſe on the other; by which means the fiſh, aſcending in its ſeaſon up the river, is embarraſſed in theſe narrow angular retreats, and ſo is eaſily ſtruck and killed with a harping-iron.

The chief object of this *fiſhery* is the roe, of which the Muſcovites are extremely fond. Some ſturgeons furniſh between three and four hundred pounds of it. The leſſer and younger ſturgeons are only pickled for eating.

*Whale*-FISHERY. This huge fiſh is chiefly caught in the North-Sea; the largeſt are taken about Spitzberg, ſome of which are two hundred feet long. Thoſe on the coaſts of America are between ninety and a hundred: thoſe in the Mediterranean, and on the coaſts of Guyenne, &c. are the ſmalleſt. The Dutch have, for near a century and a half, had this *fiſhery* almoſt to themſelves, and it is reckoned one of the chief branches of their commerce. The principal merchants in the ſeveral provinces aſſociate together, and ſend a large fleet to the North-Seas for this purpoſe. Their firſt eſtabliſhment in Groenland not ſucceeding, their *fiſhery* is ſince fixed to the weſt of Spitzberg from lat. 76° 40′ to 80°.

There are general regulations to be obſerved in this *fiſhery* by the whole fleet; and after reading a particular regulation that concerns the crew of each ſhip, and their good behaviour on board, each man receives a gratuity, before ſetting out; the captain, from a hundred to a hundred and fifty florins; the pilot, from forty to ſixty; each harponeer, from forty to fifty; the officers, from twenty-ſix to thirty-ſix; the elder ſailors, twenty; and the younger, twelve florins; with an aſſurance of another ſum at their return, in proportion to the ſucceſs of the fiſhing.

The fleet, conſiſting moſt of fluyts, from two to three hundred tons, and from thirty-ſix to forty-one hands, uſually ſets out about April, ſteering by the iſles of Iceland from 60 to 61° lat. Then leaving them to the weſt, it ſteers north through 73° to 75° lat. where they firſt find the ice; through the huge heaps of which they firſt ſpy the whales, and there moſt of the veſſels fix; but as the fiſh are larger and fatter, the farther north, ſome will venture to 80° and 82° north lat.

Each veſſel of three hundred tons has ſix ſhallops, ſix harponeers, and five rowers to each ſhallop: there are ſeven lines three inches in circumference to every ſhallop, five in the hinder-part and two in the fore-part of the veſſel. The hind lines make ſix hundred fathoms together, and, with the addition of the other, 2880 in all. Should the whale dive deeper, or run farther under the ice, the line muſt be cut to ſave the ſhallop.

The execution is done with a harpoon, or harping-iron, five or ſix feet long, pointed with ſteel in a triangular form, like an arrow.

The harponeer flings this barbed iron with all his might againſt the whale's back, and ſhould he happen to make it penetrate into the fleſh, he lets go a ſtring tied to the iron, at the end of which is a dry gourd which diſcovers whereabouts the whale is, who, the moment he is ſtruck, plunges to the bottom.

If the whale comes up to breathe, the harponeer gives him a freſh wound, till, fainting with the loſs of blood, the men approach him, and thruſt a long ſteeled lance under his gills into his breaſt, which diſpatches him. When the carcaſe begins to float, the fins and tail are cut off, and a rope faſtened to the place where the tail was; he is hawled to the veſſel, and hoiſted and kept ſuſpended above the water by means of two ropes; the one about his neck, and the other about his tail, and under the carcaſe are two ſhallops to receive what may chance to drop. After this, three or four go down upon the whale with calkers, or irons, on their feet to prevent ſlipping. They firſt open him on the ſide, and proceed downwards, cutting off the blubber, lard, or fat, all over the body in pieces of three feet breadth, and eight in length, leaving all the lean behind for the bears, who are very fond of it. They next cut off the whale-bone with a hatchet from the upper-jaw, and make it up into packets.

The reſt of the crew are employed in ſlicing the large pieces of fat ſmaller, and picking out the lean. Then they ſtow it under the deck, where it lies, till all the fat is on board. After which, cutting it ſtill ſmaller, it is crammed in tubs in the hold very cloſe and full. Now they have nothing to do but to ſail homewards, where the fat is melted down into train-oil.

*Statutes againſt fiſhing in ponds, and other private fiſheries.* 3 *Edw.* I. *c.* 20. 5 *Eliz. c.* 21. *ſ.* 2, 6. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 7. 4 and 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 23. *ſ.* 5. 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 14.

*Statutes concerning the ſize, and preſerving the breed of fiſh.* *Stat.* Weſt. 2. 13 *Edw.* I. *cap.* 47. 13 *Rich.* II. *cap.* 19. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 9. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 15. 1 *Eliz. c.* 17. *ſ.* 1. Made perpetual. 3 *Car.* I. *c.* 4. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 14.

Fiſhermen not to be preſſed as mariners, without the authority of the juſtices of the peace. 5 *Eliz. c.* 5. *ſ.* 43.

None but fiſhermen, &c. to ſell at Billingſgate. 9 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 3.

The market-hours at Billingſgate appointed. 9 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 5.

An annual fund of two thouſand pounds for encouraging the *fiſheries* in Scotland. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 14.

Fiſh-market in Weſtminſter eſtabliſhed. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 49. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 39.

Eſtabliſhment of the Britiſh *white herring fiſhery.* 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. 28 *Geo* II. *c.* 14.

One hundred pound penalty on obſtructing the *fiſhery* in Scotland. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 5.

Regulation of the ſale of fiſh in London. 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27.

Regulations to reduce the exorbitant price of fiſh. 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 15.

*Fiſh* taken or imported by ſtrangers may not be dried within Great-Britain, to be ſold, upon forfeiture, or the value, to any perſon that will ſeize the fiſh, or ſue for the value; to be applied to the repair and maintenance of the port, &c. 13 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 6.

Herring, cod, pilchards, ſalmon, or ling, freſh, falted, dried, or bloated; grill, mackarel, whiting, haddock, ſprats, colefiſh, gullfiſh, congers, any ſort of flat-fiſh, and any ſort of freſh fiſh, may not be imported in any foreign ſhip into, or ſold in, England, having been taken by, bought of, or received from foreigners, or out of a foreigner's ſhip (except proteſtant ſtrangers inhabiting this kingdom) upon forfeiture thereof, and the ſhip and tackle, and alſo a hundred pounds by every offender herein. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 16. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 2. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 13. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 1.

Except eels, ſtockfiſh, anchovies, ſturgeon, botargo, and cavear. 32 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 7. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 13, 14. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

And lobſters, or turbots, which may be imported in any ſhip, and by any perſon, whether of Britiſh or foreign catching. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 10.

Maſters of ſmacks, hoys, &c. bringing in fiſh of foreign taking, &c. are to forfeit fifty pounds. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 1.

But proſecution muſt be commenced within twelve months after the offence be committed. 1 *Geo.* I. *c* 18. *ſ.* 9. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2.

The forfeitures above may be recovered by any informer in any of the courts in Weſtminſter-hall, and diſtributed, one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh where the offence is committed. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 1.

Herrings, pilchards, ſcads, codfiſh, ling, hake, ſalmon, or dried red ſprats, by whomſoever caught or cured, may not be imported, unleſs oath be made before the ſalt officer, by the owner of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, that all the ſalt wherewith they were cured was taken on board in Great-Britain, mentioning the time and place, and that no drawback was, or is intended to be obtained for the ſame, upon forfeiture, and double the value. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 14. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 13.

Herrings, white or red, to be packed in lawful barrels, juſtly and exactly laid by ſworn packers, who are to brand the caſk with a mark denoting the gauge, quantity, quality, and condition of the herrings, and the place where packed. Magiſtrates neglecting to appoint and ſwear ſuch packers yearly, forfeit a hundred pounds. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 1. 5 *Ann. c.* 8. *art.* 8.

Herring-barrels to contain thirty-two gallons. 13 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 5. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15.

Salmon-barrels to contain forty-two gallons. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15. 22 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 1.

Herring and ſalmon, exported in barrels of any other ſize (except half-barrels) not intitled to the bounty. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15, 16.

Pilchards, exported, the words *ſeyn* or *drift* muſt be burnt with an iron, in ſome viſible part of the caſk or hogſhead, with the name and ſurname of the owner, and the number of pilchards contained in each; upon forfeiture of double the value of the fiſh. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 31.

Pilchards, ſcads, codfiſh, ling, hake, red or white herrings exported from Great-Britain, the exporter to make oath before the principal officers of the port, that they were Britiſh taken, and really exported for parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain.

The ſalt officer is to pay the debenture within thirty days after demand, or, if he has not ſufficient money in his hands, to give a certificate thereof gratis, and without delay, upon penalty of the forfeiture of double the ſum to the party grieved; and upon ſuch certificate, the commiſſioners of exciſe upon ſalt are chargeable with the payment.

But if exported from Scotland, to be paid by the commiſſioners of exciſe or cuſtoms there, at the option of the merchant. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

Laws in force in either kingdom, for preventing frauds in curing and packing of fiſh, extended to Scotland, *art.* 8. 5 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 1.

Codfiſh, ling, or hake, before laid on board for exportation, part of the tails to be cut off; and pilchards, ſcads, herrings, ſalmon, or ſprats, the barrels or caſks to be marked by the ſalt officer. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 16. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 6. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

Such fiſh, after exportation, fraudulently relanded or reimported, are forfeited, and double the value. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 17. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

Such fiſh, and congers, not well cured, or unmerchantable, not intitled to any bounty. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 25. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

After ſuch fiſh are put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, they may not be taken out, unleſs to be put into the ſhip wherein they are to be exported; nor landed in Great-Britain, except in the preſence of a ſalt officer: upon forfeiture thereof, and the veſſel, with her tackle and apparel, and twenty pounds by every perſon concerned, or ſix months impriſonment. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 23.

The former allowance or bounty on exportation, granted by 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 31. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. 1 *Ann. c.* 11. 5 *Ann. c.* 8, and 29. 7 *Ann. c.* 11. is taken away 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1.

The preſent allowance or bounty, and the regulations of exportation. *See* DRAWBACK.

Officers refuſing or neglecting to pay the bounty due on exportation, or to certify the want of money to the commiſſioners, are to forfeit double the ſum of the ſaid bounty. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

White herrings fraudulently relanded, forfeited, and twenty ſhillings *per* barrel. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 7.

Duly entered and ſhipped for exportation, loſt, or ſpoiled before the ſhip proceeds on her voyage, upon due proof upon oath, to enjoy the ſame bounty as if really exported; provided the fiſh was ſunk in the ſea or port, where the ſhip was loſt or deſtroyed in ſight of the proper officer, where any of the ſaid fiſh ſhall come on ſhore, and that no uſe be made of the fiſh by the proprietor or his agent; and the officer is to cauſe the fiſh to be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 8.

Red herrings or ſprats, conſumed in curing, to be taken as if actually exported. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 10.

Salmon and codfiſh cured in Scotland with foreign ſalt that has paid the duty, to be allowed the ſame bounty on exportation, as was payable before the 24th of June, 1719. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 42.

White herrings cured with Britiſh or foreign ſalt, may be imported from Scotland into any port of England for home-conſumption, the importer paying at the port to which they are brought three ſhillings and four pence for every barrel containing thirty-two gallons, and ſo in proportion far half barrels or quarter barrels. Alſo ſalmon, cod, ling, tuſk, and other white fiſh, cured with ſalt made in Scotland, for which the duty hath been paid or ſecured, may be ſo imported for home-conſumption, the importer paying, at the port to which the ſame ſhall be brought, two ſhillings and four pence, for every barrel containing thirty-two gallons of ſuch fiſh wet, and one ſhilling and two pence for every hundred weight of ſuch fiſh dry; and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſs quantity. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 7. 8.

Herrings, ſalmon, cod, ling, tuſk, or other white fiſh, may be imported from any place of Scotland, or the iſlands thereunto belonging, to any port of England for re-exportation, the owner of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, making oath that they were caught in North-Britain, or on the coaſts thereof, and cured with ſalt delivered duty free from ſome part of Great-Britain, and when and where the ſame was ſo delivered: and ſuch fiſh ſhall be entitled, upon exportation, to the ſame allowances and bounties, as by 1 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 18. are allowed on exportation of fiſh cured in England, and be ſubject to the ſame rules and regulations. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 9. 10.

Such fiſh ſhipped in Scotland for England, whether for home-conſumption or exportation, the proprietor or his agent muſt, before the veſſel departs, make an entry with the collector or principal officer of the cuſtoms there of the fiſh ſo ſhipped, expreſſing the number of barrels of wet fiſh, with the marks and numbers; and the number and weight of each ſpecies of the dry fiſh; and declare upon oath, before the ſaid collector or principal officer, that the ſaid fiſh were cured in Scotland, or on the coaſts thereof, and whether they were cured with ſalt delivered duty free, or with ſalt for which the duty has been paid or ſecured; and that the ſaid ſalt was taken on board from ſome port or place in Great-Britain, and when and where it was put on board, and that no drawback for the ſame had been had, or intended to be had upon the exportation of the ſaid ſalt. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 12.

The ſaid officer is to deliver to the maſter of the veſſel, without delay, fee, or reward, a certificate or cocket, under his hand, that ſuch entry and oath have been made; and the maſter of the veſſel, or the proprietor of the fiſh, or their reſpective agents, are, before landing any part of the ſaid fiſh, or putting it on board any other ſhip or boat in any port or place in England, to deliver the ſaid certificate or cocket to the proper officer of the cuſtoms in the port of importation, upon forfeiture of ſuch fiſh, and double the value thereof, and alſo the caſks or veſſels in which ſuch fiſh ſhall be found; to be recovered of the importer, or proprietor, or maſter of the veſſel. To be ſued for, recovered, and levied in ſuch manner, and with ſuch power of mitigation, as any fine, penalty, or forfeiture may, by any law of exciſe, or by action of debt, &c. and ſeizure thereof may be made by any officer of the cuſtoms or ſalt duties. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 12.

Any perſon, who ſhall counterfeit, raze, or alter any certificate or cocket required by this act, or knowingly uſe ſuch a one, ſhall incur the pains by law inflicted, or perſons found guilty of forgery; and any perſon legally convicted of falſly making any oath required by this act, ſhall forfeit two hundred pounds, and be impriſoned for twelve months. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 14. 16.

A maſter of any boat or veſſel bound on a fiſhing voyage to the North Seas or Iceland, may take on board, in any port of Great-Britain, any quantity of Britiſh ſalt, paying or ſecuring the duty. 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 1.

The officer of the place is to give a certificate gratis of the quantity of ſalt taken on board, and that the duties have been paid or ſecured. 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 2.

Codfiſh, ling, or hake, may be imported and landed, upon oath being made by the proprietor of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, that they came from the North Seas or Iceland, and were caught or cured there: but on landing, and before they are removed from the ſhore, they are to be tendered to the officer, to have part of the tails cut off, that no allowance be obtained upon exportation; upon forfeiture thereof, and double the value, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor. 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 3.

Foul ſalt, ſo made uſe of, remaining, to be thrown over board, in preſence of the officer. 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 4.

Salt remaining unuſed, to be entered, and the duties paid down within ten days after the ſhip's arrival into port, otherwiſe forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the proprietor or maſter of the ſaid veſſel (except in caſe of being driven in or detained by ſtreſs of weather, or other unavoidable neceſſity.) 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 5.

The maſter of ſuch boat or veſſel, upon producing the certificate aforeſaid to the collector of the ſalt duties, and making oath to the quantity of ſalt in ſuch certificate, and that the fiſh were cured and tendered as above, is to receive gratis from the ſaid collector a certificate of the ſame, which, with a certificate of the payment of the duty of the remainder of the ſalt, being produced to the collector of the ſalt duties where the duty was paid or ſecured, the ſecurity is to be diſcharged, and the money repaid by the collector, without fee or reward. 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 6.

Boats or veſſels having taken in ſuch ſalt, periſhed at ſea, or taken by enemies, the proprietor upon proof at the quarter-ſeſſions for the county, &c. where he inhabits, within nine months after ſuch loſs, is to receive a certificate of ſuch proof; which being produced to the officer where the duty was paid or ſecured, the ſecurity is to be diſcharged, and money repaid by the officer, without fee or reward. 12 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 7.

For other circumſtances, *ſee* GOODS INWARDS, GOODS OUTWARDS, SALT, *and* NEWFOUNDLAND.

FISHING-NETS, unlawful, prohibited in Oxford-haven, 27 *Eliz. c.* 21. Aſſize of *nets*, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4. Old *nets*, for making of paper, may be imported duty free, 2 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 10.

FISHMONGER. This is a very profitable trade. The *fiſhmonger* buys his fiſh at Billingſgate; and the chief myſtery of his buſineſs is to prevent fiſh being brought to market in ſuch quantities, as to ſerve for food to the poor: a cruel and inhuman ſcheme! The *fiſhmongers* take from ten to thirty pounds with an apprentice, who will find it a cold ſloppy buſineſs, and muſt riſe very early to attend the market at Billingſgate. A journeyman who ſerves in the ſhop has uſually twenty pounds a year and his board; and fifty pounds will enable a new beginner to ſet up ſhop. But a large dealer in freſh fiſh, ſtock fiſh, ſalt fiſh, cavear, &c. can employ from a hundred to a thouſand pounds.

FISH-TACKLE-MAKER. Thoſe of this buſineſs make all the apparatus belonging to angling; as rods, lines, hooks, artificial flies, &c. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, who, after his time is expired, may earn twelve or fifteen ſhillings a week; or, with about fifty pounds, may become maſter.

FLAG, a general name that includes colours, ſtandards, &c. but is more particularly appropriated to the ſea. The admiral in chief carries his on his main-top; the vice-admiral his at the fore-top; and the rear-admiral his at his mizen-top. The faſhion of pointed or triangular *flags*, as now uſed, was derived, according to Rod. Toletan, from the Saracens, upon the ſeizing of Spain, before which time all the enſigns of war were ſtretched on croſs pieces of wood, like the banners of a church, on which account they were called *vexilla*. The pirates of Algiers, and throughout the coaſts of Barbary, bear an hexagonal *flag*.

*Flag* alſo more particularly implies the quality of the perſon who commands the ſhip, of what nation it is, and whether it be equipped for war or trade. The commanders of ſquadrons bear the *flag* on the mizen-maſt, when in the body of a fleet; and on the main-maſt when they command a party: it ſhould be cleft two thirds of its height, and terminate in a point.

FLANDERS, is divided into *Auſtrian*, *French*, and *Dutch*. Of the firſt we have treated under the article *Auſtrian Netherlands*, which *ſee*. Of *French Flanders*, Liſle is the capital and center of its trade; its manufactures, and the dealings of its merchants, employ and maintain about one hundred thouſand workmen, either in the city, ſuburbs, plain country, or the neighbouring villages. The commodities which this part of Flanders produces, are grain of all ſorts, for the food both of man and beaſt; hay,

A New and Accurate
MAP OF THE
NETHERLANDS,
from the Sieur Roberts
ATLAS,
with Improvements.
GERMAN
OCEAN
COUNTRY OF ARTOIS
COUNTRY OF HAINAULT
BRABANT
BAILIWICK OF FURNES
BAILIWICK OF YPRES
BAILIWICK OF COURTRAY
BAILIWICK OF BAILLEUL
BAILIWICK OF DOUAY
BAILIWICK OF BERG
CHATELLANY OF CASSEL
CHATELLANY OF LISLE
CHATELLANY OF OUDENARD
CHATELLANY OF YPRES
BURGRAVIAT OF GHENT
THE QUARTER OF FIRES
COUNTRY OF WAES
Ostend
Bruges
Dam
Sas Ghent
Axel
Sandvliet
Dunkirk
Graveling
Furne
Bergs S. Winox
Knock
Ypres
Courtray
Menin
Lisle
Lannoy
Tournay
Lenze
Ath
Lessines
Oudenard
Gramont
Ninoven
Brussels
Dendermond
Aire
Caffel
St. Omer
Douay
Orchie
Conde
Valenciennes
British Statute Miles.
1 2 3 4 5 10 15
Longitude East from London
J. Gibson Sculp.

hay, wood, fruit, wool, horſes, flax, cattle, butter, and prodigious quantities of rape oil.

The manufactures conſiſt in cloths, ſerges, ratines, and divers other ſorts of ſtuffs, made with wool alone, or mixed with ſilk or thread; and others, where ſeveral ſorts of linens are made, both figured and plain; hides, differently tanned; tickings, camblets, damaſks, velvets, laces, white and black (either of thread or ſilk) tapeſtry, gilt leather, pipes, match, paſteboard, ſtockings, breeches, caps, and ſuch other knit or wove-work; fine ozier baſkets, hats, barragons, crapes, blankets, and ſeveral other ſpecies of ſtuffs: all theſe manufactures are eſtabliſhed in the city of Liſle; and the commerce they occaſion can hardly be imagined. At Orchies are made trippes; at Douay, the ſame things in proportion as at Liſle; at Armentiers eſtaminas, ſome cloths, and a very few light ſtuffs; it is in this city alſo that the linens made in the adjacent parts, are ſold; at Lanoy and its juriſdiction ſome light ſtuffs are alſo made. At Gorgche is a fabric of plain and figured linens, whitened in the whitſteries of this place, which are excellent for the purpoſe. There are ſeveral looms of woollen ſtuffs, or thoſe mixed with ſilk, at Roubais and Turcoing; at Menin is a fabric of linens, and another of hats; and in fine, at Tournay are made worſted ſtockings, mock pluſh, and earthen-ware.

Dutch Flanders is the moſt northern part of Flanders, and conſiſts chiefly of fortified towns, which made a part of the barrier to the other territories belonging to the Dutch. It is a perfect level, little or no riſing ground appearing in it, and it is watered with innumerable rivers and canals. The trade of this part, being a ſmall proportion of that carried on in the Auſtrian Netherlands, ſuch as fine lace, linen, and tapeſtry, we ſhall refer to what has been ſaid under that article.

FLANNEL, a kind of light, looſe, woollen ſtuff, compoſed of a woof and warp, and wove in a loom with two treddles, in the ſame manner as baize. Engliſh *flannel* is more eſteemed than any other, and is a great article of exportation.

FLATTERS. *See* GOLD *and* SILVER WIRE-DRAWERS.

FLAX is a plant having a ſlender, round, hollow ſtalk, about two feet high; its bark is full of filaments, like hemp; the leaves are long, narrow, and pointed, it bears a blue flower, to which ſucceeds a roundiſh fruit about the bigneſs of a pea, containing ten little ſeeds, full of an oily ſubſtance or meal.

There are eighty-three known ſpecies of this plant, of which only two are in uſe for the linen manufacture.

The ſeed hath a great many properties. It is uſed in the compoſition of ſeveral medicines, and from it is drawn by expreſſion an oil, in quality not unlike the oils of nuts, for which it is ſometimes uſed in painting, and to burn. That which is drawn without the help of fire is much eſteemed in medicine. The trade herein is pretty conſiderable.

*Remarks on the cultivation of* flax, *for fine thread.*

The improvement of manufactures, which depend on very fine thread, are of great conſequence to this country; becauſe they employ women and children: and are carried on, therefore, by means, that do not take off the ſtrong and able hands, who ought to be employed in our preſent ſtaple manufactures; or in agriculture. With reſpect to thoſe manufactures, particularly, in which fine thread is uſed, we are happily in poſſeſſion of ſome at preſent; there being now very conſiderable quantities of lace, as well imitations of the fine Mecklin and Bruſſels kinds, as minionet, made in ſome parts of Great Britain, to the ſaving of many thouſand pounds a year, which would be otherwiſe paid to foreigners for that article: and we have the further ſatisfaction of ſeeing this manufacture ſtill increaſing. But while we are thus uſing great quantities of thread in this way, we are obliged to have the fineſt kinds wholly from foreigners; and when we employ our own, in caſes where great fineneſs is not required, we ſink a conſiderable part of the value of labour, by producing what muſt ſell at an inferior price to the foreign, on account of its want of equal ſtrength, owing to the inferior quality in that point of the flax of which the thread is made. This is certainly a great diſadvantage to the public; becauſe we not only pay very great ſums for the fineſt part of the thread uſed for lace to foreigners; and beſides the loſs of ſo much in balance againſt us, inhance, by this means, the price of the manufactured articles to the impediment of the ſale: but, by the uſe of our own for leſs fine lace, check, likewiſe, the increaſe of the demand, by its inferiority in the moſt important of all qualities, ſtrength and durability. If the diſadvantages were irremediable, from any natural or political reaſon of ſoil, climate, want of hands, &c. we muſt certainly ſubmit to it. But there is no ſuch obſtacle; for flax, proper for the fineſt thread, may be produced here, as well as any where: and there is nothing in the art of ſpinning, that would not be ſoon attained by our people in perfection, were they induced to apply to it: as ſpecimens have proved. Moreover, inſtead of a want of ſuch hands, as are moſt fit to be employed in this work, there is unhappily much too great a redundance of ſuch of them, as are now wholly idle.

The difference betwixt the coarſer and finer kind of manufactured flax, obviouſly conſiſts in this, that the fibres of the fine are naturally leſs thick, and groſs, and likewiſe of a leſs ligneous or woody conſiſtence: whence being leſs hard and rigid, they are not ſo ſoon ſnapt, or broken by violence in the wear; and the thread compoſed of them is, conſequently, more durable. This flexibility and toughneſs, which is the reſult of their being leſs woody and ſtiff, contributes, as well as the ſmallneſs of the fibres, to that ſuperiority which is found in the foreign fine flax. This difference in the fineneſs and conſiſtence of the fibres might be naturally ſuppoſed to ariſe from the ſeminal difference in the kind of flax itſelf, as there are ſeveral ſpecies of flax, as well as of many other plants; and conſequently ſuch a difference might well be. But this does, nevertheleſs, not happen to be the caſe; for the fine manufactured flax is really the product of ſuch crude flax as is raiſed from the common ſeed. The difference is, therefore, owing to ſome variation in the method of culture; or to the accidents of ſoil and air, in the place of cultivation, as the facts themſelves evince. Whatever will check and retard the growth of flax, and prevent its being vigorous and ſtrong, will prevent the fibres from becoming large and woody; and this may either be the natural poverty of the ground, and chilline ſs of the air; or the raiſing ſuch a multiplicity of plants together, as the ground cannot ſupport, ſo as to bring them to their full ſtrength and ripeneſs: in conſequence of which, the plant is more replete with a watery ſucculence, and leſs with the mature gummous or reſinous juice; which renders the fibres woody. On this foundation, the art of producing fine flax is formed: and the particular means, by which the end is effected, is as follows.

The ground is prepared, as in other caſes; but only a number of ſtakes, of the height of a foot and a half, or two feet, with forked or branching parts at their tops, are driven into the ground: the more forked or branching parts the ſtakes have, the better they will anſwer the purpoſe. The ſeed is then ſown in the uſual way, but in a much greater proportion: even three or four times the quantity has been uſed. Over the ſtakes, are then laid buſhes of an open figure, that bear upon the forked parts of the ſtakes, and ſpread over the whole ground. The flax, of courſe, from the great quantity ſown, comes up extremely thick: and, riſing among the buſhes, is ſupported there; and grows up among them, till it be of due maturity: when it is got off the ground as other flax, and freed from the buſhes; it is then rotted, and dreſt, as other flax; except, that being very tender aud ſucculent, much leſs time, and more caution, is required to avoid the rotting of the fibre, as well as the pulp of the herb: and that a gentler management is to be obſerved in the breaking.

The reaſon of this treatment of the flax in its cultivation, may be eaſily deduced from the above principles. The ſowing ſo thickly is to make it riſe in a greater quantity than the ground can maintain in full vigour; and, conſequently, to occaſion it to grow weakly, and run up ſmall: by which means, it is kept from the hard and woody ſtate. The uſe of the ſtakes is to ſupport the buſhes; and the uſe of the buſhes to ſupport the flax,

and keep it from being laid on the ground, as it otherwiſe would be, being ſo weak and ſmall, by the wind and rain; and, conſequently, to ſave it from being rotted before it be ripe.

This is the method, and very effectually it anſwers the purpoſe; and what is here directed to be done by art in general, is performed by nature in particular places. For laſt winter, Miſs Leſlie, who, with her ſiſters, have ſome years been attempting the eſtabliſhment of a manufacture of fine thread in Scotland, laid before the London Society ſome ſpecimens of yarn and thread ſpun from flax, produced in the neighbourhood of Hamilton; which flax appeared to be capable of making exceeding fine thread, of as ſtrong a texture as the beſt brought from Flanders. In the raiſing this flax, nature, through the peculiar circumſtances of ſoil and air, did the offices of art: the poverty of the ground, and the coldneſs of the atmoſphere, bringing up the flax ſmall and weak, without any other deviation from the common method of culture, than the ſowing the ſeed ſomewhat thicker than is uſually done. There are, doubtleſs, many other parts of Great Britain, in mountainous, barren, cold places, ſuch as Wales, Derbyſhire, Northumberland, &c. where ground, that at preſent affords none, or very little advantage, would yield crops of this very valuable ſpecies of flax: which would, alſo, employ the half-ſtarved male inhabitants of ſuch parts, in breaking and dreſſing; and the female, in ſpinning it: by this means, the preſent manufactures would be aided, and freſh ones eſtabliſhed, to the great advantage of the public, as well in ſaving the money now paid to foreigners for thread, in its ſimple ſtate, or fabricated into lace, lawns, &c. as in the increaſing the number of induſtrious honeſt inhabitants.

FLAX-DRESSER. There are but few of this buſineſs in and about London, and thoſe make but a bare livelihood by it: however, the boys who are to be put apprentice to it, do not require either much ſtrength or ingenuity.

The *flax-dreſſer* prepares the flax, after importation, for the uſe of the ſpinners, by combing it on heckles of different degrees of fineneſs, according to the nature of the flax, and the uſes for which it is deſigned. He takes five or ten pounds with an apprentice; the wages of a journeyman are from nine to fifteen ſhillings a week, and thirty or forty pounds will ſet up a maſter.

FLEET, commonly implies a company of ſhips of war belonging to any prince or ſtate; but ſometimes it denotes any number of trading ſhips employed in a particular branch of commerce.

FLEKKEFIARA, in *Norway*: its chief exports are ſalt-fiſh, herrings, and ſtock-fiſh.

FLEMISH BRICKS, a neat, ſtrong, yellowiſh ſort of bricks brought from Flanders, commonly uſed in paving yards, ſtables, &c. being preferable for ſuch purpoſes to the common bricks.

FLESH, viz. beef and pork, intitled to a bounty; before laid on board for exportation, the caſks to be marked by the ſalt-officer. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 8.

After exportation fraudulently relanded or reimported, forfeited, and forty ſhillings *per* barrel. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 9. For the allowance or bounty, and the regulations of exportation, *ſee* DRAWBACK.

FLINT, a ſmall, hard, livid, or black pebble, uſed in producing ſparks of fire by colliſion againſt ſteel. *Flints* are an article of exportation to the Eaſt-Indies, particularly to China.

FLINTSHIRE. This country has plenty of cattle, which affords the inhabitants greater quantities of milk for their daries than is poſſeſſed by their neighbours, and of which they make more butter and cheeſe than they want. Here is likewiſe lead, pit-coal (almoſt ſufficient to ſupply Dublin market), mill-ſtones, and honey enough to make good ſtore of metheglin, a beverage which the natives are very fond of.

FLORENCE. The commerce of *Florence* is carried on by way of *Leghorn*, and conſiſts in a large quantity of rich ſilks, manufactured in this capital of the grand duke of Tuſcany; the principal of which are tiſſues and brocades of gold, ſilver, and ſilk, ſatins of all colours, but more eſpecially the white, which are greatly eſteemed; armoiſins and taffeties are here alſo made, with ſome light woollen ſtuffs: the other merchandizes that this place affords, are raw and ſpun ſilks, wools waſhed and unwaſhed, wine, and gold wire.

*Leghorn*, or *Livorno*, is one of the moſt important, and the beſt ports of the grand duke's eſtates, and hardly yields, in point of trade, either to Venice or Genoa. The great liberty which all nations enjoy, let their religion be what it will, induces ſome of almoſt all nations to aſſemble here; and the moderate cuſtoms paid on importation, (for all exportations are free) attract alſo a concourſe, not only of Engliſh, French, Dutch, &c. but alſo of Jews, Turks, and Armenians; the Turks, however, trading only *de paſſo*.

The Engliſh and Dutch, more eſpecially the former, are thoſe who carry on the greateſt trade, this place being properly the ſtaple or magazine for the major part of the goods which they receive from the *Weſt* and ſend to the *Levant*, as it is for thoſe they get from thence in return, and forward to their Weſtern markets.

The Jews and Armenians tranſact moſt of the buſineſs by intervening as brokers, for which they are paid, according to cuſtom, for the different branches of trade they tranſact, whether purchaſes or ſales, exchanges or inſurances.

Beſides the rich fabrics of ſilver, gold, and ſilk, at *Florence*, *Piſa*, *Lucca*, and the other towns of *Tuſcany*, and its neighbourhood, here is found raw ſilk of all ſorts, as well Italian as Levant, and even Spaniſh olives and oils, not only of the growth of the country, but from different parts, as Gallipoli, la Pouille, the Levant, Barbary, &c.

But that which is not the leaſt important part of this commerce, are the merchandizes from the Levant, with which, as has been ſaid, the Engliſh and Dutch have always their warehouſes well furniſhed, as they have with thoſe goods they receive from the Weſt, which conſiſt of the ſame commodities, as are proper for Italy; (*which ſee*) what is ſhipped from Leghorn, beſides the goods aforementioned, are cotton wool, and ſpun; coffee brought here by way of Alexandria; allum of Civita Vecchia, and the Archipelago; anniſeeds from Rome and Malta; fine lacque from Venice; marble of various colours from Carrara; red coral from Sardinia; ſoap, ſumach, argol, brimſtone, wine, &c.

FLORIDA. The country ceded to us by the definitive treaty of 1763, and called by the Spaniards *Florida*, extends, by their accounts, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, from about 25 deg. 6 min. to 39 deg. 38 min. north latitude, and its moſt eaſtern coaſt lies in about 81 deg. 30 min. weſt longitude from London; its whole length being nearly a thouſand Engliſh miles, but the breadth very variable. They extended it on the north to the Apalachian Mountains, where it is very narrow, and made the river Altamaha the boundary between it and Georgia, by which they took in the whole country of the Lower Creek Indians. On the north-weſt, they ſeparated it from Louiſiana, by the Rio Perdido. To the eaſt it had Georgia, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Channel of Bahama, or gulph of *Florida*; and to the ſouth, the gulph of Mexico. Thus they gave the name of *Florida* to a much greater extent of country than that which we confine it to, calling all the coaſt lying north of the gulph of Mexico by that appellation.

This country was firſt diſcovered in 1496, by Sebaſtian Cabot, a very able mariner, then in the ſervice of Henry VII. king of England, who had fitted out two caravals for him to find out the north-weſt paſſage to Cathay and India. Eighteen years after, John Ponce of Leon, being diſcharged from his government of Boriouena, now called Porto Rico, in which he had acquired great riches, fitted out two caravals, in order to diſcover the iſlands of Boiuca, in which, the Indians affirmed, was a ſpring, the virtue of whoſe waters was to reſtore youth: having wandered in vain for ſix months, he came by accident to the Biminis, and diſcovered the land of *Florida* in 1512, on Eaſter-day, which the Spaniards call the blooming or flouriſhing day of Paſcha, and from thence gave it the name of *Florida*.

A country ſo extenſive in latitude muſt be ſuppoſed to vary ſomewhat in point of air and climate; but it may, upon the whole, be called very warm, though the great heats in the ſouthern parts are much allayed by the cool breezes from the ſea; and ſuch as are more inland, towards

wards the north, feel a little of the roughneſs of the north-weſt wind, which, more or leſs, with its chilling breath, prevails over the whole continent of Northern America. The climate, however, notwithſtanding its warmth, is pure and wholeſome, the beſt teſtimony of which is the ſize, firmneſs, ſtrength of conſtitution, and longevity of the Floridan Indians; in all theſe particulars they far exceed the Mexicans.

The ſoil of *Florida* is remarkably rich and fruitful, frequently producing two or three crops of Indian corn in the year, and might, with proper cultivation, be made to bear every ſort of grain. It abounds with all kinds of timber, particularly pines, cedar, palms, laurel, cypreſs, and cheſnut-trees; but, above all, ſaſſafras is found in the greateſt plenty. Vines of various ſorts are the natural product of the country, and the land is thought to be as proper for the cultivation of the grape, as thoſe of Europe are found in general to be. Cotton alſo grows wild here in great abundance, hemp and flax are likewiſe very common. The many rivers with which *Florida* is watered, render it fertile. The ſea-coaſt is very flat, ſandy, and full of ſhoals: on this level ſhore there are prodigious numbers of oyſters adhering to the mangrove-trees, with which the ſouthern coaſt is covered.

Animal food is plenty here, and very good in its kind, particularly beef, mutton, and veal. The country alſo feeds great numbers of ſwine, the fleſh of which is very good, there being no want of acorns, cheſnuts, and ſuch nouriſhment as is proper for theſe creatures. Horſes are alſo bred here very good, both for the ſaddle and draught.

Among its more precious productions cochineal may be reckoned, of which there is both the wild and the cultivated, but the latter is by far the more valuable. The indigo plant grows plentifully in many of the ſouthern parts; ambergriſe too is frequently to be met with on the coaſt, from Porto de Jancke, the moſt ſouthern cape of *Florida*, as far as Mexico.

The chief ſettlements the Spaniards ever made in this country, were at St. Auguſtine and St. Mattheo. Penſacola, ſituated in 30 deg. 25 min. north latitude, is chiefly frequented by our ſhipping. Its road is one of the beſt in all the gulph of Mexico, in which veſſels can lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind. The bottom, which is ſandy, mixed in many places with ooze, is excellent for anchorage; the ſea is never agitated here, becauſe the land ſurrounds it on every ſide; but the tides are irregular here as well as upon all the reſt of the coaſt.

Our colony of *Florida*, divided into eaſt and weſt, and making two diſtinct governments, is ſtill in an infant ſtate; but conſiderable matters may in time be expected from it.

FLORIN, a ſpecies of coin of different value, according to the different countries in which it is current. There are *florins* of gold, and *florins* of ſilver. *See* COIN.

FLOTA, in the Spaniſh commerce, is a fleet conſiſting of three men of war, and fourteen or fifteen merchant ſhips, from four hundred to a thouſand tons burden; they are loaded almoſt with every ſort of goods which Europe produces for export; all ſorts of woollens, linens, ſilks, velvets, laces, glaſs, paper, and cutlery; all ſorts of wrought iron, watches, clocks, quickſilver for the uſe of their miners, horſe furniture, ſhoes, ſtockings, books, pictures, military ſtores, wines, fruits, &c. ſo that all the trading parts of Europe are highly intereſted in the cargo of this fleet. Spain itſelf ſends out little more than the wine and fruit; this, with the freight, and commiſſions to the merchant, and the duty to the king, is almoſt all the advantage which that kingdom derives from her commerce with the Indies. This fleet is fitted out at Cadiz, and bound to La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt part of the gulph of Mexico, and to the ſouth-eaſt of that city. They are not permitted to break bulk on any account, till they arrive there. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, cochineal, indigo, cacao, tobacco, ſugar, and hides, which are the returns for Old Spain. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havanna, in the iſland of Cuba, which is the place of their rendezvous, where they meet the galleons. Theſe are another fleet, which carry on all the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena; and of Peru, by Panama and Porto Bello, in the ſame manner as the *flota* ſerves for the trade of New Spain. When the *flota* arrives at the Havanna, and joins the galleons and regiſter ſhips, which aſſemble at the ſame port from all quarters, ſome of the cleaneſt and beſt ſailing veſſels are diſpatched to Old Spain, with advice of the contents of theſe ſeveral fleets, as well as with treaſure and goods of their own, that the court may judge what *indulto*, or duty, is proper to be laid on them, and what convoy is neceſſary for their ſafety. *See* GALLEONS, *and* REGISTER SHIPS.

FLOTSAM, JETSAM, LAGAN, *and* WRECK. Theſe terms are generally defined together.

*Flotſam*, is when a ſhip is ſunk, or otherwiſe periſhed, and the goods float upon the ſea.

*Jetſam*, is when a ſhip is in danger of being loſt, and, in order to ſave by lightening her, ſome goods are caſt into the ſea, notwithſtanding which ſhe afterwards periſhes.

*Lagan*, or *ligan*, are thoſe heavy goods which are caſt into the ſea, before a ſhip is loſt, in order to preſerve them; and that they may be found again, (if providence permits) a buoy is generally faſtened to them.

*Wreck*, ſignifies in our law, ſuch goods as, after a ſhipwreck, are caſt upon land by ſea, and left there within ſome county; for they are not *wrecks*, ſo long as they remain at ſea, in the juriſdiction of the admiralty.

The king ſhall have *flotſam*, *jetſam*, and *lagan*, when the ſhip periſheth, or when the owners of the goods are not known; but when the ſhip does not periſh, *e contra*. F. N. B. 122, 46 *Edw.* III.

A man may have *flotſam* and *jetſam* by the king's grant, and may have *flotſam* within the high and low-water mark by preſcription, as it appears by thoſe of the Weſt Countries, who preſcribe to have wreck in the ſea, ſo far as they may ſee a *Humber* barrel. *Coke* 5. part. *fol.* 107. *Coke* 2. *Inſt. fol.* 167.

By the grant of *wreck* will paſs *flotſam*, *jetſam*, and *lagan*, when they are caſt upon the land; but, if they are not caſt upon the land, the admiral hath juriſdiction, and not the common law, and they cannot be called *wreck*. *Sir Hen. Conſtable*'s caſe. *Coke* 5. part. *fol.* 107.

By the common law all wrecks belonged to the crown, and therefore they are not chargeable with any cuſtoms, becauſe goods coming into the kingdom by wreck, are not imported by any body, but caſt aſhore by the wind and ſea: but it was uſual to ſeize wrecks to the king's uſe, only when no owner could be found; and, in that caſe, the property being in no man, it in conſequence belongs to the king, as lord of the narrow ſeas. *Bract. lib.* 2. *c.* 5. Though when a man, dog, or cat, eſcapes alive out of any ſhip that is loſt, neither the ſhip, nor any thing therein, ſhall be adjudged *wreck*, but the goods ſhall be ſaved, and kept a year and a day by the ſheriff, to be reſtored to any perſon who can prove a property in them; and if no body appears to claim in that time, they ſhall be forfeited as *wreck*; the year and day ſhall be accounted from the ſeizure; and, if the owner of the goods dies before the expiration of that term, his executors or adminiſtrators may make proof, though, if the goods are *bona peritura*, (periſhable goods) the ſheriff may ſell them within the year, taking care he does it to the beſt advantage, and accounts for their produce. *Weſtm.* 1. *c.* 4. 3 *Edw.* I. 2 *Inſt.* 166. 5 *Rep.* 106.

If a man has a grant of *wreck*, and goods are wrecked upon his lands, and another taketh them away before ſeizure, he may bring an action of treſpaſs, &c. for before they are ſeized, there is no property gained to make it felony. 1 *Hawk.* p. 6, 94.

If goods wrecked are ſeized by perſons having no authority, the owner may have his action againſt them; or if the wrong-doers are unknown, he may have a commiſſion to inquire, &c. 2 *Inſt.* 166.

Goods loſt by tempeſt, piracy, &c. and not by *wreck*, if they afterwards come to land, ſhall be reſtored to the owner. 27 *Edw.* III. *c.* 13.

When a ſhip is ready to ſink, and all the men therein, for the preſervation of their lives, quit the ſhip, and afterwards ſhe periſhes, if any of the men are ſaved and come to land, the goods are not loſt. 2 *Inſt.* 167.

A ſhip on the ſea was chaſed by an enemy; and the men therein, for the ſecurity of their lives, forſook her; ſhe was afterwards taken by the enemy, and ſpoiled of her goods

goods and tackle, and then turned adrift; after this, by ſtreſs of weather, ſhe was caſt on land, where it happened her men ſafely arrived: and it was reſolved that this was no *wreck*.

Goods may be retained for payment of ſalvage; but if the ſhip and goods periſh in the ſea, and the owners do totally forſake her, and ſhe thereby becomes a *derelict*, in ſuch caſe, the firſt poſſeſſor that recovers her, or any part of her lading, gains a *property*; and this, according to the law of nations, *as it is that given* for loſt, or *whereof there is no hope of recovery*.

FLY-BOAT, a large veſſel with a broad bow, uſed in the coaſting trade; ſome of which carry eight hundred tons.

FODDER, *or* FOTHER of lead, a weight of lead containing eight pigs, every pig twenty-three ſtone and a half. In the book of rates a *fodder* of lead is ſaid to be two thouſand pounds weight; at the mines, it is twenty-two hundred and a half; among the plumbers at London, it is nineteen hundred and a half.

FOIL, *or* FOILE, among glaſs-grinders, is properly a tin plate uſed in the foliating or ſilvering over of poliſhed plates for looking-glaſſes.

FOLIATING of looking-glaſſes is the ſpreading the plates over, after they are poliſhed, with quickſilver, &c.

The manner of *foliating* is as follows: a thin bibulous paper being ſpread on a table, and ſome fine chalk ſprinkled over it, a leaf of tin, called a foil, is laid upon it; upon this they pour ſome quickſilver, which muſt be equally diſtributed over the tin lamina by means of a piece of cotton, or with a hare's foot: over the tin plate is laid a clean paper, and over that the glaſs-plate, which is preſſed down with one hand, and the paper drawn gently out with the other: after this the plate is covered with a ſomewhat thicker paper, and ſome more weight put upon it, in order to drive out the ſuperfluous mercury, and that the tin may adhere the more cloſely to the glaſs. When it dries, the weight is taken off, and then the looking-glaſs is finiſhed.

Some put an ounce of mercury to half an ounce of marcaſite fuſed on the fire; and to prevent the mercury's evaporating, pour into it cold water, and when cooled, ſqueeze it through leather. To this marcaſite others add a quarter of an ounce of lead and tin, that the glaſs may dry the ſooner.

FOLIATING *of globe looking-glaſſes*. Sir R. Southwell in Phil. Tranſ. N° 245, gives the method of doing it thus:

Into three ounces of marcaſite of ſilver powdered, pour melted lead and tin, of each half an ounce; then ſtir and mix them well together, while in fuſion; after this, when the whole is almoſt cold, put three ounces of mercury to make an amalgama. When you uſe this compoſition, the glaſs ſhould be well heated and very dry: it will do when the glaſs is cold, but not ſo well.

FOLIO, or rather FOLIUM, in books of accounts, is applied to the page or leaf of a journal, ledger, &c. in which the account of any tranſaction, &c. is recorded, the whole book being paged or folioed, as merchants call it.

FOOT, an Engliſh meaſure, which is divided into twelve inches, and the inch into three barley-corns. Geometricians divide the foot into ten digits, and each digit into ten lines, &c. The French divide their foot into twelve inches, and each inch into twelve lines.

FOOT *ſquare*, is the ſame both in length and breadth, containing a hundred and forty-four ſquare or ſuperficial inches, being the product of twelve the breadth into twelve the length.

FOOT *cubic* or *ſolid*, is the ſame meaſure in all the three dimenſions, namely, breadth, length, and depth, and containing ſeventeen hundred and twenty-eight cubic inches.

The *foot* differs in different countries. The Paris royal *foot* exceeds the Engliſh by ſeven lines and a half: the Leyden or Rhinland *foot*, uſed in the northern parts, is to the Roman *foot* as nine hundred and fifty to a thouſand. The ancient Roman *foot* of the Capitol conſiſted of four palms, equal to eleven inches four-tenths Engliſh. The proportion of the principal *feet* of ſeveral nations compared with the Engliſh and French are as follows.

The Engliſh *foot* being divided into a thouſand parts, or twelve inches, the other *feet* will be in the following proportion:

| | Parts. | F. | In. | L. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| London foot | 1000 | 0 | 12 | 0 |
| Amſterdam foot | 942 | 0 | 11 | 3 |
| Antwerp foot | 946 | 0 | 11 | 2 |
| Bononia foot | 1204 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| Bremen foot | 964 | 0 | 11 | 6 |
| Cologne foot | 954 | 0 | 11 | 4 |
| Copenhagen foot | 965 | 0 | 11 | 6 |
| Dantzick foot | 944 | 0 | 11 | 3 |
| Dort foot | 1184 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Frankfort on the Mayne foot | 984 | 0 | 11 | 4 |
| The Greek foot | 1007 | 1 | 00 | 1 |
| Lorrain foot | 958 | 0 | 11 | 4 |
| Mantua foot | 1569 | 1 | 6 | 8 |
| Mecklin foot | 919 | 0 | 11 | 0 |
| Middleburg foot | 991 | 0 | 11 | 6 |
| Paris royal foot | 1068 | 1 | 00 | 8 |
| Paris foot by Dr. Bernard | 1066 | 1 | 00 | 1 |
| Prague foot | 1026 | 1 | 00 | 3 |
| Rhinland or Leyden foot | 1033 | 1 | 00 | 4 |
| Riga foot | 1831 | 1 | 9 | 9 |
| Roman foot | 967 | 0 | 11 | 6 |
| Old Roman foot | 970 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Straſburgh foot | 920 | 0 | 11 | 0 |
| Toledo foot | 899 | 0 | 10 | 7 |
| Turin foot | 1062 | 1 | 00 | 7 |
| Venice foot | 1162 | 1 | 1 | 9 |

Suppoſing the Paris *foot* contains fourteen hundred and forty parts, the reſt will be as follows:

| | Parts. |
|---|---|
| Paris foot | 1440 |
| Bononian foot | 1682 1/5 |
| Conſtantinopolitan foot | 3120 |
| Daniſh foot | 1403 |
| Dantzick foot | 1721 1/2 |
| Halle foot | 1320 |
| London foot | 1350 |
| Nuremberg foot | 1346 1/4 |

FOREIGN *attachment*, is an attachment of a foreigner's goods found within a liberty, or a city, for the ſatisfaction of ſome citizens to whom the foreigner is indebted. *See* ATTACHMENT.

FOREIGN *bought and foreign ſold*, is a cuſtom within the city of London, which being found prejudicial to the ſellers of cattle in Smithfield, it was enacted 22 and 23 *Car.* II. that as well foreigners as freemen may buy and ſell any cattle there.

FOREIGN *courts*. Decrees, judgments, &c. there, how far binding or regarded here. The ſhip being unladen at Barcelona, where the freight was payable by the charter-party, the factor refuſing to pay the freight, the maſter of the ſhip litigated there in the admiralty for it; and the cauſe was heard, and judgment there given, that the maſter ſhould have his freight, but that the damages the goods had ſuſtained in the voyage, by reaſon of the deviation, ſhould be deducted, and the account transferred to the deliquidators, (who are in the nature of our maſters in chancery) to take the account, and the money ordered to be brought into court; but the factor had appealed to a higher court there. Lord chancellor declared, that he would not ſlight their proceedings beyond ſea; and if in this caſe the damages had been there aſcertained, or a peremptory ſentence given, the ſame ſhould have been concluſive to all parties: but it appearing, the factor was a native of that place, and therefore, in all probability, might again prevail; and defendant being willing to deſiſt his ſuit there, his lordſhip directed a trial here by jury, to aſcertain the damages ſuſtained by the deviation. *Mich.* 1681. *Vern.* 21. See 2 *Chanc. Ca.* 238.

Diſcharge by a foreign juriſdiction from a bill of exchange drawn there, is a good defence in an action brought on the ſame bill here. *Str.* 733.

Sentence of a foreign admiralty condemning a ſhip as inſufficient, not to be read on trial of an iſſue joined on that fact. *Str.* 1078.

FOREIGNERS, though made denizens, or naturalized here, are diſabled to bear offices in the government, to be of the privy-council, members of parliament, &c. by the acts

acts of settlement of the crown. 12 *Will.* III. *cap.* 2. 1 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 4. *See* ALIEN, DENIZEN, MERCHANT, NATURALIZATION.

FOREIGN *kingdom*, is that under the dominion of a foreign prince; so that Ireland, or any other place, subject to the crown of England, cannot with us be called foreign; though to some purposes they are distinct from the realm of England. If a stranger of Holland, or any foreign kingdom, buys goods at London, and gives a note under his hand for payment, and then goes away privately into Holland, the seller may have a certificate from the lord mayor, on proof of sale and delivery of the goods; upon which the people of Holland will execute a legal process on the party. 4 *Inst.* 38. Also at the instance of an ambassador or consul, such a person of England, or any criminal against the laws here, may be sent from a foreign kingdom hither. Where bond is given, or contract made in a foreign kingdom, it may be tried in the King's-Bench. *Hob.* 11. 2 *Bulst.* 322.

FOREIGN *plantations*. A writ of error lies here upon any of their judgments in Barbadoes, *viz.* in any dominions belonging to England. *Vaugh.* 402. in case of *process into Wales*. These plantations are parcel of the realm, as county palatines are; their rights and interests are every day determined in Chancery here; only that for necessity and encouragment of trade, they make plantation-lands as assets in certain cases to pay debts: in all other things they make rules for them, according to the common course of English equity. *Arg. Parl. Cases* 33, in case of *Dutton* v. *Howell*, *Witham & al'*.

In Barbadoes, all freeholds are subject to debts, and are esteemed as chattels till the creditors are satisfied, and then the lands descend to the heir. 4 *Mod.* 226. 5 *W. & M. B. R.* in case of *Blankard* v. *Guldy*.

A plaintiff may sue in the Admiralty-Court, if he will suppose the contract in Virginia. But if he supposes the contract in England, he may sue here. But if part of the contract be here, and part over the sea in Virginia, or upon the sea, the common law only shall have jurisdiction, and those are the true differences. *Per Jones, J.* 2 *Roll. R.* 492. *Hill.* 22. *Jac. B. R. Capp's case*.

FOREIGN *states*. A, by authority of the king of Denmark, seized and condemned goods in some of the dominions of the king of Denmark, according to the law of that country, and coming into England was prosecuted here for the same. The court thought this was a matter of state, and concerned the justice of another king in amity with the king of England, and that what was done was according to their law, and that it was not properly triable here, whether the king of Denmark had power to make such a grant, and decreed a perpetual injunction. *Mich.* 26 *Car.* II. *Fin. R.* 186. *Bodtolph* v. *Bamfield & al'*.

If a man obtains a judgment or sentence in France, yet here the debt must be considered as a debt by simple contract. He can maintain no action here, but an *indeb. ass.* or an *insimul computassent*, &c. though both parties were foreigners, that will not help the plaintiff. *Per* lord keeper. *Hill.* 1705. 2 *Vern.* R. Dupein v. *De Roven*.

Where a foreign court hath jurisdiction of a cause, and the persons are within it, the sentence must bind without regard to what law is here; and the sentence appearing, is not to be controlled by evidence that the law is not so there. *Sel. Ch. Ca.* in lord King's time 69. *Mich.* 1726. *Burrows* v. *Jemmeau*.

Lending money to a foreign prince, without licence, prohibited, 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 5.

FORELAND, *in navigation*, a head-land, or that which juts out into the sea.

FORESTALLING, signifies the buying or bargaining for any corn, cattle, or other merchandize, by the way, before it comes to any market or fair to be sold; or by the way as it comes from beyond the seas, or otherwise, toward any city, port, haven, or creek of this realm, to the intent to sell the same again at a more high and dear price.

All endeavours whatsoever to inhance the common price of any merchandize, and all kinds of practices which have any apparent tendency thereto; whether by spreading false rumours, or by buying things in a market before the accustomed hour, or by buying and selling again the same thing in the same market, or by any other such like devices, are highly criminal at common law; and all offences anciently came under the general notion of forestalling, which included ingrossing, regrating, and all kinds of offences of this nature.

And surely there can be no attempt of this kind, but must be looked upon as an high offence against the public; as it apparently tends to put a check upon trade, to the inconvenience of the people, by putting it out of their power to supply themselves with a commodity, without an unreasonable expence; which often proves extremely oppressive to the poorer sort, and cannot but give just cause of complaint to the richest.

But it hath been resolved, that any merchant, whether he be a subject or a foreigner, bringing victuals, or any other merchandize into the realm, may sell the same in gross; but that no person can lawfully buy within the realm any merchandize in gross, and sell the same in gross again, because, by such means, the price will be inhanced; for the more hands any merchandize passeth through, the dearer it must grow; because every one will make his profit of it; and if such practices were allowable, a rich man might ingross into his hands a whole commodity, and then sell it out at what price he should think fit; which is of such dangerous consequence, that the bare ingrossing of a whole commodity, with intent to sell it at an unreasonable price, is an offence indictable at the common law, whether any part thereof be sold by the ingrosser or not. 1 *Hawk.* P. C. 234. 3 *Inst.* 196. H. P. C. 152.

And so jealous is the common law of all practices of this kind, that it will not suffer corn to be sold in the sheaf; perhaps for this reason, because, by such means, the market is, in effect, forestalled. 1 *Hawk.* P. C. 235. 3 *Inst.* 197. H. P. C. 152.

As to the manner whereby offences of this kind are punishable by the common law, it is said, that, by an ancient statute, the offender was to be grievously amerced for the first offence; for the second to be condemned to the pillory; for the third, to be imprisoned; and for the fourth, to be compelled to abjure the vill: and there seems to be no doubt, but that, at this day, all offenders of this kind are liable to fine and imprisonment, answerable to the heinousness of their offences, upon an indictment at common law. 1 *Hawk.* P. C. 235. 3 *Inst.* 197. H. P. C. 152.

The statutes against forestalling, ingrossing and regrating are, *Stat.* 51 *Hen.* III. 23 *Edw.* III. 25 *Edw.* III. 27 *Edw.* III. 31 *Edw.* III. 6 *Rich.* II. 13 *Rich.* II. 1 *Hen.* IV. 25 *Hen.* VIII. 2 & 3 *Edw.* VI. 3 & 4 *Edw.* VI. 5 & 6 *Edw.* VI. 5 *Eliz.* 21 *Jac.* I. 15 *Car.* II. 31 *Geo.* II.

FORFAR. *See* ANGUS.

FORGERY, at common law, is an offence in falsely and fraudulently making or altering any matter of record, or any other authentic matter of a public nature; as a parish register, or any deed or will, and punishable by fine and imprisonment, and such other corporal punishment as the court in discretion shall think proper. But the mischiefs of this kind increasing, it was found necessary to guard against them by more sanguinary laws. Hence we have several acts of parliament declaring what offences amount to forgery, and which inflict severer punishments than were at the common law.

By the *stat.* 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. reciting, that the laws already in force were not effectual for preventing the abominable crime of forgery, it is enacted, "That if any person, from and after the 29th day of June, 1729, shall falsely make, forge, or counterfeit, or cause or procure to be falsely made, forged, or counterfeited, or willingly act or assist in the false making, forging, or counterfeiting any deed, will, testament, bond, writing obligatory, bill of exchange, promissory note for payment of money, indorsement or assignment of money, acquittance or receipt either for money or goods, with intention to defraud any person, knowing the same to be false, forged, or counterfeited; then every such person being thereof lawfully convicted, according to the due course of law, shall be deemed guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy.

Provided, that no attainder for this offence shall make or work any corruption of blood, loss of dower, or disherison of heirs.

By 7 *Geo.* II. this ſtatute is extended to the forging of any acceptance of bills of exchange.

By 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſect.* 1. Any perſon forging or counterfeiting any paſs for any ſhip, commonly called a Mediterranean paſs, or who ſhall alter or eraſe any paſs, made out by the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high-admiral; or ſhall publiſh as true, any forged, altered, or eraſed paſs, knowing the ſame to be forged, &c. ſhall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

FORLE, *or* FULLE, a copper coin, made and current in Egypt; it is alſo called *bulbe* or *bulba*. This ſpecie is about the ſize of a French double, though a little thicker, and is worth a liard, or three deniers of that money. Eight *forles* make a meidin, and there are half *forles*: the Turks call it mangour.

FOSSIL, in natural hiſtory, any body that is dug out of the earth, as metals, minerals, &c.

FOUANG, *or* FOANG. *See* BAAT.

FOUNDER, implies an artiſt who caſts metals, as guns, bells, printing characters, candleſticks, buckles, &c.

FRAIL, a baſket made of ruſhes, &c. in which figs, raiſins, and the like, are packed up. It is uſed to imply a certain quantity of raiſins, about ſeventy-five pounds.

FRAMES, or engines for ſtockings and frame-work knitters. Penalties for exporting them, 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 8. Frame-work knitters are within 12 *Geo.* I. concerning combinations of workmen, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 8.

Perſons employed in the frame-work knitted manufactures, often marking their goods to denote the ſame to be made with a greater number of threads than ſuch manufactures are really made of, to the great impoſition of the buyers, and diſcredit of the ſaid manufactures at foreign markets; therefore, to prevent the like impoſitions and deceits for the future, it is enacted by 6 *Geo.* III. that from and after the 24th of June, 1766, all frame-work knitted pieces and ſtockings (thoſe made of ſilk excepted) containing three or more threads, are to be marked with the ſame number of ilet-holes, and no more; which ilet-holes ſhall be made in a plain and diſtinct manner in one direct line, or in the ſame courſe, and ſhall not exceed the diſtance of three inches from the two extreme ilet-holes; and no ſuch ilet-holes ſhall be made or placed within the diſtance of four inches of any letter, figure, mark, or other device, which ſhall be put on, woven in any ſuch goods or manufactures; and all ſuch ilet-holes ſhall be made within four inches of the top or end of every ſuch piece or pair of ſuch goods or manufactures; and that no ilet-hole, or imitation thereof, ſhall be made or put in any frame-work knitted pieces or pair of ſtockings, upon any account or pretence whatſoever, except as herein before directed by this act.

Nothing herein contained ſhall extend to prevent any manufacturers from uſing remnants, or materials of any ſort, in the welts and tops of ſtockings only, at any diſtance not exceeding three inches from the top, although the ſame ſhall not contain ſo great a number of threads as are contained in the legs of ſuch ſtockings.

Maſters not duly and truly marking their goods, in manner above directed, forfeit five pounds, and the goods. Journeymen, &c. not making ſuch goods on their own account, are excepted; but, not duly and truly marking every ſuch piece and pair according to the directions of this act, are liable to forfeit not exceeding forty ſhillings, nor leſs than five ſhillings, unleſs they make it appear that they acted according to the direction of their maſter; in which caſe they are exempted.

From and after the 25th of March, 1768, perſons who ſhall ſell or expoſe to ſale any ſuch goods, not being duly and truly marked, forfeit five pounds *per* piece, and the goods; except they diſcover the vender, ſo as he ſhall be convicted, and become liable to the penalty; in which caſe they are exempted. For want of diſtreſs the offenders are to be committed; and one moiety of the penalties and forfeitures is to the uſe of the informer, and the other to the uſe of the poor of the pariſh, crown, or place where ſuch offence ſhall have been committed.

Perſons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter-ſeſſions, and the determination of the juſtices ſhall be final.

Nothing in this act ſhall extend to abridge or take away any right or privileges which the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants, of the company of frame-work knitters, for the time being, now have or are intitled unto.

FRANCE. This kingdom has a trade proportioned to the number of its inhabitants, and extenſiveneſs of its dominions, of which ſome idea may be formed from the calculations made of its annual income, which by Dr. Davenant was computed, from the beſt accounts he could procure, to be before 1690, about eighty-four hundred thouſand pounds; and though ſome have ſuppoſed that the intervening wars, between that time and the peace of Utrecht, hindered their increaſe, either in wealth or numbers, yet others reaſon, and perhaps more juſtly, that the continued peace and florid commerce it enjoyed, till the late broils reverſed the ſcene, muſt have greatly increaſed their annual income. What this country furniſhes towards a general trade, is beſt learned by conſidering the products and manufactures of each province, which our readers will find in alphabetical order.

*Trade between Great-Britain and France.*

Our trade with *France* has always been reckoned a loſing one, by every computation we have ſeen for a century paſt, though in different degrees, according to the ſeveral different periods of time. Mr. Samuel Fortrey proved the annual balance of that trade to have been 1,600,000l. in our diſfavour; and though his calculation might be ſomewhat ſtretched and amplified, yet we ſhall ſhew from others, that have always thought us to be ſufferers by that commerce, that the exceſs of our imports above our exports proves us to be ſo. Dr. Charles Davenant (inſpector-general of the exports and imports, at the cuſtom-houſe of London) in his reports to the commiſſioners for examining and ſtating the public accounts of the kingdom, makes our imports from *France* to exceed our exports for a year, from Michaelmas, 1662, to the ſame time, 1663, 272641l. 10s. and from 1668 to 1669, 432884l. 12s. which was before the long war; and as there was ſome intercourſe between the two nations from Michaelmas, 1698, for ſome years forward, the ſaid gentleman gives an abſtract from that time to Chriſtmas, 1702, and makes the difference againſt us in the ſaid four years and a quarter to be 244976l. 18s 3d.$\frac{3}{4}$. By a repreſentation to his majeſty, from the lords commiſſioners of trade and plantations, bearing date December 23, 1697, it is aſſerted, that the French over-balanced us in commerce about a million *per annum*. The Britiſh Merchant, in the ſcheme of trade he quotes (p. 296. vol. ii.) aſſerts, that the loſs by our trade with *France* for the year 1668 to 1669 amounted to 965,128l. 17s. 4d. and that the prejudice ariſing to us from our ſaid traffic was ſo apparent, as to induce king Charles II. in the thirtieth year of his reign, to prohibit all commerce with that kingdom, and to aſſign it for a reaſon of his ſo doing in the preamble to the act, which however was afterwards repealed, in 1685, by his ſucceſſor. The laſt-mentioned author has given an exact account of every particular, imported and exported, to and from London and the out-ports, for the year 1685, as it was laid before the parliament by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, in 1713, by which it appears, that our imports exceeded our exports to that country 769,190l. 16s. although this was a year picked out by the favourers of the French commerce, and without any allowance made for the value of goods clandeſtinely run in, which has always been very conſiderable, and ſuppoſed by the Britiſh Merchant at leaſt one third of thoſe duly entered at the cuſtom-houſe; which if true, as he endeavours to render probable, the balance in our diſfavour would be ſwelled in the laſt-mentioned year to 1,197,330l. 12s. 9d. But ſince that time the French have imitated the greateſt part of our woollens, and invented others to which our artizans are yet ſtrangers; as was proved by a collection of all their ſtuffs, which a gentleman had curiouſly made in the year 1734, with a view to lay them before parliament: he was pleaſed to ſhew to ſeveral the patterns, and to acquaint them with the intentions; though what his motive was for deſiſting from his purpoſe, is not ſo eaſily learned; he had nicely examined into the coſt of every ſort, and being compared with our own, were found to be conſiderably under the price of the ſame here; and what added to their value,

An
Accurate Map of
FRANCE
Drawn from the
Sieur Robert,
with Improvem.ts
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAY OF BISCAY
ENGLAND
THE ENGLISH CHANNEL
IRELAND
GERMANY
SWITZERLAND
ITALY
SPAIN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GULF OF GENOA
GULF OF LYONS
PICARDIE
ISLE DE FRANCE
CHAMPAGNE
LORAINE
NORMANDIE
BRETAGNE
MAINE
ORLEANOIS
ANJOU
TOURAIN
POITOU
BERRY
BOURBONOIS
NIVERNOIS
BOURGOGNE
FRANCHE COMTE
MARCHE
LIMOSIN
AUVERGNE
LYONOIS
BRESSE
DAUPHINE
GUIENNE
GASCOGNE
LANGUEDOC
PROVENCE
BEARN
FOIX
ROUSSILON
CATALONIA
ARTOIS
Paris
British Statute Miles
Longitude East from London
E. Rollos Sculp.

value, they were generally more ſubſtantial than ours, though for leſs money; the collector of theſe ſamples has been dead for ſome years, and we fear the good uſe that might have been made of them died with him, which is the more to be regretted, as we preſume it would be difficult for any one to procure the ſame now, from the want of the opportunities that he in a peculiar manner had for it. This perfection and cheapneſs of their manufactures have not only put a ſtop to the large importation they formerly made from hence by the prohibition, but likewiſe enabled them to ſupplant us in the Spaniſh, Italian, and Turkiſh markets; except in ſome of our fine goods, which they clandeſtinely ſtill call for here, as unable to copy or complete an aſſortment without them; it is to this we owe the continuance of that ſmall branch of the woollen trade that ſtill ſubſiſts between us, though it is but the ſhadow of what it once was. In regard of our Eaſt-India and plantation goods, our commerce has not fared much better, ſince the eſtabliſhment and opulency of the French Eaſt and Weſt-India companies ſupply almoſt all their demands, ours being prohibited, with the exception of tobacco, pepper, and pimento, which they ſtill want, and call for frequent ſupplies, though in return we take vaſt quantities of indigo, brandies, &c. as we have, till lately, of their wines and linens. But the prohibition of entering ſome of our goods (formerly current) in France, and the high duties laid on others, the different turns trade has taken, and the different channels it has run in, ſince the aforementioned calculations, has induced us, with no ſmall labour, to bring the account nearer our own times, and to repreſent its preſent condition in the moſt accurate manner we poſſibly can, having for this purpoſe made an abſtract of the exports and imports of that trade, from the 1ſt of January to the 31ſt of December, 1751, by which the great difference of what now is, from what it was formerly, may be ſeen by any one who takes the trouble to compare them; though we ought to premiſe, that a large ſhare of the exports there quoted as for France, went to Dunkirk, which being a free port, might afterwards be reſhipped for any other part, and conſequently what was ſo treated makes no article in our commerce with that country; the article of corn is alſo to be regarded as occaſional; for though the advantage ariſing from their vineyards, olives, &c. influence a neglect of tillage, yet the French want but little in a common year, and formerly could afford to ſupply their neighbours with grain, before the goddeſs Ceres was ſlighted for Bacchus, and many arable lands were converted to the growth of vines, and this culture encouraged by the great demand there was, and ſtill is, for their wines, in all parts, not only of Europe, but out of it; inſomuch, that though our conſumption of them is vaſtly declined from what it was ſome years ago, as may be ſeen by our imports dwindling into two hundred and twenty-ſix tons three-quarters from twelve to twenty thouſand tons, as it has been formerly, yet their growing eſteem in other parts has raiſed their price at home to double and treble what it formerly was, and this has encouraged the people to encreaſe their plantations, and to neglect the plow. The reader will likewiſe obſerve by the compariſon recommended, what a deficiency there is in the report of ſilks from the large ſpace they uſed formerly to occupy in our bills of entry; and we can with pleaſure aſſert it to proceed from the great improvement of our manufactures in this ſpecie, which we believe now equal any in Europe, at leaſt we muſt delare it as our opinion, after an inſpection at various times of both fabrics; for though it is certain that a few years ſince, the artizans of Paris and Lyons were greatly ſuperior to ours, both in the dye and mixture of their colours, as well as in their weaving faculty, yet from imitators we are now become equals, if not ſuperiors, in every diſtinct branch of the loom's produce; and we do not pretend to pronounce or determine this from our own judgment, but as the opinion of thoſe whoſe underſtanding we revere. *See* SILK. We might here alſo remark our improvement in the linen and paper manufactures; to the almoſt deſtruction of our commerce with France, for theſe particulars and our former imports of thread from thence now run in a quite different channel; brandies are reduced from ſix thouſand, to as many hundred tons yearly, with the appearance of a ſtill greater decline: ſo that the nature of the French trade is ſo changed, and expoſed (from an alteration in our taſtes, and an improvement in our arts) to a yet greater change, that we ſhould in a manner ſcruple to aſſert its continuing a prejudicial one, as it certainly formerly was, till our eyes were opened to our miſapprehenſions and errors. They will take nothing from us that they can do without; and the payment of a balance formerly to France in trade was not the worſt part of the affair (though that was bad enough) for the prejudice the importing their goods did to our manufactures of like ſorts far exceeded it, as they could always afford to underſel us, even in our own country; ſo that till the prudent precautions of parliament put a ſtop to it, many of our fabrics ſtood ſtill, and thouſands of our people were ſtarving.

The Britiſh Merchant, in his remarks on the French trade, ſays, (p. 26 of vol. i.) that he never heard of any one, except thoſe to France and the Eaſt-Indies, which had at any time been charged with exhauſting our treaſure, and he fairly acquits the laſt of contributing any thing thereto; for though that company yearly exports four or five hundred thouſand pounds in bullion (we have been informed as much again) yet the returns made by the merchandize they import, and afterwards ſell to other countries, by far exceed the ſum they carry out, which never occurs in our trade with France, as almoſt all our imports from thence are unuſefully conſumed amongſt us, without contributing any neceſſary material towards perfecting our manufactures, and thereby remaining ſtamped with the doctor's mark of a prejudicial commerce.

This will however be more clearly demonſtrated by the ſubſequent calculations, where we have valued things at a middling price; and as ſome of our readers, unacquainted with this trade, may be ſurpriſed to ſee ſuch a quantity of cambrics ſtill brought in, notwithſtanding the prohibition, we ſhall inform them, that theſe are all intended for the Weſt-India markets, and only the quota uſually ſent there out of the hundred thouſand pieces, the common annual import of that commodity here before they were denied admittance. It may likewiſe appear ſtrange to ſome, that we ſhould ſhip cambrics and lawns to the country where they were firſt manufactured; but this will be cleared up, when we acquaint them, that all ſuch are returned printed from hence, beſides many other ſorts of linen of various goodneſs and prices, principally ſent to Dunkirk, and from thence diſperſed as moſt ſuitable to the proprietors views and intereſt. The following entries are for the port of London only, and the cuſtoms of all the out-ports have generally been computed to be about one quarter part of thoſe ariſing at London, which we thought proper to repeat; and now proceed to give the ſaid entries, as propoſed.

*Imports from* France *to the port of London only, in the year* 1751.

| | l. | s. | d. | | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Almonds, 5 C at | 4 | 10 | 0 | | 22 | 10 | 0 |
| Books, 79 C | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 79 | 0 | 0 |
| Bone lace, 202 yds. | 0 | 7 | 6 | | 75 | 15 | 0 |
| Brandy, 603¾ tons | 50 | 0 | 0 | *per* ton | 30187 | 10 | 0 |
| Burrs for millſtones, 2400 | 2 | 10 | 0 | *per* C | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Cambrics, 20506 | 1 | 0 | 0 | ſuppoſed half pieces | 20506 | 0 | 0 |
| Capers, 4046 lb. | 0 | 0 | 6 | | 101 | 3 | 0 |
| Cheſnuts, 955 buſh. | 0 | 4 | 0 | | 191 | 0 | 0 |
| Canvas, 639 C | 6 | 0 | 0 | | 3834 | 0 | 0 |
| Catlings, 291 gro. | 0 | 2 | 8 | | 38 | 16 | 0 |
| Cork, 111 C | 0 | 16 | 8 | | 92 | 10 | 0 |
| Ditto, 810 gro. | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 40 | 10 | 0 |
| Cotton yarn, 8 C | 0 | 1 | 6 | *per* lb. | 67 | 4 | 0 |
| Eggs, 60 C | 0 | 2 | 0 | | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| Eſſence of lemons, 40 lb. | 0 | 6 | 0 | | 12 | 6 | 0 |
| Globes, 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Hair, goats, 278 lb. | 0 | 1 | 3 | | 17 | 7 | 6 |
| horſe, 126 | 0 | 3 | 0 | | 18 | 18 | 0 |
| human, 9645 | 0 | 7 | 6 | | 3616 | 17 | 6 |
| Hungary water, 169 gal. | 0 | 10 | 0 | | 84 | 10 | 0 |
| Indigo, 657441 lb. | 0 | 2 | 6 | | 82180 | 2 | 6 |
| Incle, wrought, 11 doz. | 8 | 0 | 0 | | 88 | 0 | 0 |

| | l. | s. | d. | | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Iron, 11½ tons at | 12 | 0 | 0 | | 138 | 0 | 0 |
| Linen, 9581 ells | 0 | 1 | 8 | *per* ell | 548 | 8 | 4 |
| Maps, 52 quire | 0 | 4 | 0 | | 10 | 8 | 0 |
| Morels, 300 lb. | 0 | 4 | 0 | | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Juniper berries, 1748 C | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 1748 | 0 | 0 |
| Lemons, 62 M. | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 62 | 0 | 0 |
| Necklaces, 9 groce | 1 | 4 | 0 | | 10 | 16 | 0 |
| Nuts, ſmall, 1300 bar. | 0 | 11 | 0 | | 715 | 0 | 0 |
| Olives, 441 gallons | 8 | 0 | 0 | *per* hogſhead | 56 | 0 | 0 |
| Paper, 36 reams | 0 | 7 | 6 | | 13 | 10 | 0 |
| Pictures, 148 | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 148 | 0 | 0 |
| Plaiſter of Paris, 2 mount. | 2 | 0 | 0 | | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Prints, 1654 | 0 | 0 | 6 | | 41 | 7 | 0 |
| Prunes, 1964 C | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 1473 | 0 | 0 |
| Rags, 2264 C | 0 | 5 | 0 | | 566 | 0 | 0 |
| Saffron, 460 lb. | 1 | 1 | 0 | | 483 | 0 | 0 |
| Seeds, clover, 560 lb. | 0 | 15 | 0 | *per* C | 3 | 15 | 0 |
| fennel, 2000 | 0 | 0 | 6 | *per* lb. | 50 | 0 | 0 |
| garden, 1503 | 0 | 0 | 8 | | 50 | 1 | 6 |
| lentile, 300 | 0 | 0 | 3 | | 3 | 15 | 0 |
| lucern, 2800 | 0 | 15 | 0 | *per* C | 18 | 15 | 0 |
| Silk, wrought, 12 lb. | 2 | 10 | 0 | | 30 | 0 | 0 |
| Snuff, 165 lb. | 0 | 2 | 6 | | 20 | 12 | 6 |
| Skins, coney, 266 doz. | 0 | 1 | 6 | | 19 | 19 | 0 |
| dog-fiſh, 104 | 0 | 1 | 8 | | 8 | 13 | 4 |
| hare, 53 | 0 | 3 | 0 | | 7 | 19 | 0 |
| kid, 115847 | 3 | 0 | 0 | *per* C | 3475 | 8 | 2 |
| lamb, 34 C | 1 | 5 | 0 | | 42 | 10 | 0 |
| ditto in the wool, 8 C | 0 | 10 | 0 | | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| Sturgeon, 154 kegs | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 115 | 10 | 0 |
| Succads, 1938 lb. | 0 | 2 | 0 | | 193 | 16 | 0 |
| Thread, 3621 lb. | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 2715 | 15 | 0 |
| 480 doz. | 1 | 2 | 0 | | 528 | 0 | 0 |
| Truffles, 270 lb. | 0 | 8 | 0 | | 108 | 0 | 0 |
| Twiſt, 252 doz. | 0 | 10 | 0 | | 126 | 0 | 0 |
| Verdigreaſe, 34300 lb. | 0 | 1 | 8 | | 2858 | 6 | 8 |
| Wax candles, 300 lb. | 0 | 2 | 3 | | 33 | 15 | 0 |
| Wine, 229¾ tons | 70 | 0 | 0 | | 15872 | 10 | 0 |

DRUGS.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ariſtolochia, 300 C | 7 | 10 | 0 | | 2250 | 0 | 0 |
| Cantharides, 156 lb. | 0 | 3 | 0 | | 23 | 8 | 0 |
| Crema tartar, 355 lb. | 2 | 10 | 0 | | 887 | 10 | 0 |
| Chymical oils, 440 lb. | 0 | 2 | 0 | | 44 | 0 | 0 |
| Cochineal, 600 lb. | 0 | 12 | 0 | | 360 | 0 | 0 |
| Cocoa, 20 C | 3 | 0 | 0 | | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Gum Seneca, 37 C | 8 | 0 | 0 | | 299 | 0 | 0 |
| Jeſuits bark, 5000 lb. | 0 | 4 | 6 | | 1125 | 0 | 0 |
| Nut oil, 12 gallons | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| Total of imports | | | | | 178741 | 2 | 2 |

*Exports to* France, *from the port of London only, in the year* 1751.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Allum, 3161 C | 0 | 14 | 0 | | 2212 | 14 | 0 |
| Apoth. 6 C. | 4 | 0 | 0 | | 24 | 0 | 0 |
| Bays, 400 | 4 | 10 | 0 | | 1800 | 0 | 0 |
| Barley, 410 qr. | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 307 | 10 | 0 |
| Beans, 1765 qr. | 1 | 1 | 0 | | 1853 | 5 | 0 |
| Beer, 21 hogſheads | 3 | 0 | 0 | | 63 | 0 | 0 |
| Bellows, 24 doz. | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 24 | 0 | 0 |
| Books, 11½ C | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 11 | 10 | 0 |
| Braſs, wrought, 550 C | 8 | 0 | 0 | | 4400 | 0 | 0 |
| Butter, 530 firk. | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 530 | 0 | 0 |
| Clock-work, 3 C | 3 | 0 | 0 | | 9 | 0 | 0 |
| Cloths, long, 556 | 10 | 0 | 0 | | 5560 | 0 | 0 |
| ſhort, 81 | 8 | 0 | 0 | | 648 | 0 | 0 |
| Copper, 50 C | 5 | 10 | 0 | | 275 | 0 | 0 |
| Coals, 42 chald. | 1 | 5 | 0 | | 52 | 10 | 0 |
| Cheeſe, 32 C | 1 | 5 | 0 | | 40 | 0 | 0 |
| Cordage, 130 tons | 1 | 5 | 0 | *per* C | 3250 | 0 | 0 |
| Cottons and plains, 290 goads | 9 | 0 | 0 | *per* 100 goads | 26 | 0 | 0 |
| Copperas, 8680 C | 0 | 6 | 6 | | 2821 | 0 | 0 |
| Coach and harneſs, 1 | 70 | 0 | 0 | | 70 | 0 | 0 |
| harneſs, 1 | 6 | 0 | 0 | | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| Chaiſe, 1 at | 30 | 0 | 0 | | 30 | 0 | 0 |
| Earthen-ware, 17800 ps. | 0 | 0 | 1 | | 74 | 3 | 4 |
| Frize, 250 yds. | 0 | 3 | 0 | | 37 | 10 | 0 |
| Fuſtians, 20 pcs. | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 20 | 0 | 0 |
| Fuſtic 1813 C | 0 | 5 | 6 | | 498 | 11 | 6 |
| Flannel, 1730 yds. | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 86 | 10 | 0 |
| Garters, 438 gro. | 1 | 0 | 0 | | 438 | 0 | 0 |
| Grindſtones, 2 cha. | 0 | 13 | 0 | | 1 | 6 | 0 |
| Glaſs, 7200 ps. | 0 | 0 | 8 | | 240 | 0 | 0 |
| Gunpowder, 800 lb. | 3 | 5 | 0 | to 3 10 *per* C med. is | 24 | 2 | 2 |
| Glue, 330 C | 1 | 5 | 0 | | 412 | 10 | 0 |
| Habdaſh. 29 C | 10 | 0 | 0 | | 290 | 0 | 0 |
| Hoſe, 314 doz. | 2 | 10 | 0 | to 8 0 0 medium is | 376 | 16 | 0 |
| Hats, 10 doz. | 2 | 10 | 0 | | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| Iron, 25 tons | 12 | 10 | 0 | to 17 10 medium is | 375 | 0 | 0 |
| caſt, 74½ tons | 12 | 0 | 0 | | 894 | 0 | 0 |
| wrought. 6134 lb. | 2 | 0 | 0 | *per* C | 109 | 10 | 8 |
| Kerſies, 263 | 1 | 15 | 0 | | 460 | 5 | 0 |
| Leath. wrght. 60 | 0 | 1 | 6 | | 4 | 10 | 0 |
| Lead, 1832 C | 11 | 15 | 0 | *per* fodder | 1103 | 17 | 11 |
| Lantern leaves, 159400 | 0 | 12 | 0 | to 16 *per* 100 med. is | 1115 | 16 | 0 |
| Litharge of lead, 57 C | 1 | 4 | 6 | | 69 | 16 | 6 |
| Linen, 24 C ells | 0 | 1 | 8 | *per* ell | 200 | 0 | 0 |
| Oats, 200 qrs. | 0 | 10 | 0 | to 15 the medium | 125 | 0 | 0 |
| Oil, 452 gallons | 31 | 0 | 0 | *per* ton | 55 | 12 | 1 |
| Pewter, 57½ C | 6 | 10 | 0 | | 373 | 15 | 0 |
| Pipes, 100 gro. | 0 | 1 | 6 | | 7 | 10 | 0 |
| Plate, wrought, 74 oz. | 0 | 7 | 0 | | 25 | 18 | 0 |
| Red herrings, 140 barrel | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 105 | 0 | 0 |
| Rye, 5200 qrs. | 0 | 13 | 0 | to 15 the medium | 3640 | 0 | 0 |
| Serges, 80 qrs. | 2 | 0 | 0 | | 160 | 0 | 0 |
| Stuffs, 2146 | 2 | 0 | 0 | | 4292 | 0 | 0 |
| Snuff, 600 lb. | 0 | 2 | 0 | | 60 | 0 | 0 |
| Stone ware, 200 ps. | 0 | 0 | 2 | | 1 | 13 | 4 |
| Shot, 605 C | 0 | 14 | 0 | | 423 | 10 | 0 |
| Shoes, 280 doz. | 0 | 10 | 0 | *per* doz. | 140 | 0 | 0 |
| Shumack, 76 C | 0 | 11 | 0 | | 36 | 17 | 0 |
| Silk, mixt, 602 lb. | 0 | 15 | 0 | | 451 | 10 | 0 |
| wrought, 3668 lb. | 2 | 0 | 0 | | 7336 | 0 | 0 |
| Tin, 606 C | 3 | 15 | 0 | | 2272 | 10 | 0 |
| Train oil, 2 tons | 23 | 0 | 0 | | 46 | 0 | 0 |
| Skins, goat, 85 doz. | 1 | 5 | 0 | | 106 | 5 | 0 |
| Wheat 57380 qrs. | 1 | 4 | 0 | to 1 14 the med. is | 83201 | 0 | 0 |
| Wheat meal, 15082 qrs. | 1 | 16 | 0 | to 2 11 the med. is | 32803 | 7 | 0 |
| Wood, brazeletto, 150 C | 0 | 8 | 9 | | 65 | 12 | 6 |
| lignum vitæ, 8 tons | 4 | to | 12 | 0 0 the med. is | 64 | 0 | 0 |
| logwood, 4738 C | 0 | 11 | 6 | | 2724 | 7 | 0 |
| nicaragua, 170 C | 1 | 1 | 0 | | 178 | 10 | 0 |
| redwood, 1510 C | 1 | 15 | 0 | | 2642 | 10 | 0 |

DRUGS.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gum ſeneca, 38 C | 7 | 0 | 0 | to 12 0 0 med. is | 361 | 0 | 0 |
| Oil vitriol, 566 lb. | 0 | 1 | 6 | | 42 | 9 | 0 |
| Unrated goods | at | | | | 5354 | 0 | 0 |
| Total of exports | | | | | 177966 | 11 | 4 |

*Exported by certificate to* France, *from the port of London only, in the year* 1751.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Almonds, 8 C at | 4 | 4 | to | 6 10 0 med. is | 42 | 16 | 0 |
| Books, 81 lb. | 1 | 0 | 0 | *per* C | 0 | 14 | 5 |
| Callicoes, 6870 | 2 | 1 | 0 | | 14083 | 10 | 0 |
| Cambrics, 697 | 2 | 0 | 0 | | 1394 | 0 | 0 |
| Caſſia lignea, 351 lb. | 0 | 1 | 8 | | 29 | 5 | 0 |
| Canvas, 27 C ells | 0 | 1 | 2 | | 157 | 10 | 0 |
| Cocoa nuts, 402 C | 2 | 15 | 0 | to 4 10 0 med. is | 1457 | 5 | 0 |
| Coffee, 153 C | 8 | 3 | 6 | | 1250 | 15 | 6 |

Elephants

| | l. | s. | d. | | | | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Elephants teeth, 23½ C at | 9 | 0 | 0 | | | | 211 | 10 | 0 |
| Ginger, 7 C | 3 | 15 | to | 4 | 12 | 6 the med. is | 29 | 6 | 3 |
| Hemp, 758 C | 0 | 17 | to | 1 | 2 | 6 the med. is | 748 | 10 | 6 |
| Handkerch. 436 | 0 | 0 | 11 | | | | 19 | 18 | 8 |
| Ditto, 1 piece | | | | | | | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Indigo, 937 lb. | 0 | 3 | 6 to | 0 | 6 | 9 med. is | 240 | 2 | 1 |
| Iron, 2 tons | 14 | 0 | 0 to | 18 | 0 | 0 med. is | 32 | 0 | 0 |
| Lawns, 14 | 2 | 0 | 0 | | | | 28 | 0 | 0 |
| Linen, 19100 ells | 0 | 1 | 8 | | | | 1591 | 13 | 4 |
| foreign, 332 ps. | 3 | 0 | 0 | | | | 996 | 0 | 0 |
| diaper, 210 yds. | 0 | 1 | 4 | | | | 14 | 0 | 0 |
| Mother of pearl shell, 10 C | 5 | 10 | 0 | | | | 55 | 0 | 0 |
| Nuts, 10 barrels | 0 | 6 | 8 | | | | 3 | 6 | 8 |
| Oil, 23523 gal. | 30 | 0 | 0 *per* ton | | | | 2800 | 7 | 2 |
| Pepper, 219699 lb. | 0 | 0 | 11 | | | | 10069 | 10 | 9 |
| Pimento, 56459 lb. | 0 | 1 | 0 | | | | 2822 | 19 | 0 |
| Prints, 323 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | | | 21 | 3 | 0 |
| Raiſins, 10 C | 1 | 5 | 0 | | | | 12 | 10 | 0 |
| Rice, 5647 C | 0 | 18 | 6 to | 1 | 1 | 0 med. is | 5435 | 4 | 9 |
| Sago, 7 C | 10 | 0 | 0 to | 12 | 0 | 0 med. is | 77 | 0 | 0 |
| Shellack, 905 lb. | 32 | 0 | 0 to | 44 | 0 | 0 *per* C med. | 307 | 1 | 1 |
| Silk, wrought, 46 lb. | 1 | 5 | 0 | | | | 57 | 10 | 0 |
| Skins, cat, 80 | 0 | 0 | 6 | | | | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| kid, 200 | 3 | 0 | 0 *per* C | | | | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| Snuff, 120 lb. | 0 | 2 | 0 | | | | 12 | 0 | 0 |
| Tobacco, 3270688 lb. | 0 | 0 | 3 | | | | 40883 | 12 | 0 |
| Tortoiſe ſhell, 921 lb. | 0 | 8 | 0 | | | | 368 | 8 | 0 |
| Wine, 5 tons | 35 | 0 | 0 | | | | 175 | 0 | 0 |
| Wools, ſheeps 26988 lb. | 0 | 2 | 0 | | | | 2698 | 16 | 0 |
| lambs, 250 | 0 | 1 | 6 | | | | 18 | 15 | 0 |
| vigonia, 3912 | 0 | 7 | 0 | | | | 1369 | 4 | 0 |
| Blue long cloths, 56 | 3 | 0 | 0 | | | | 168 | 0 | 0 |

## DRUGS.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cortex Per. 1200 lb. | 0 | 5 | 6 to | 0 | 6 | 6 the med. is | 360 | 0 | 0 |
| Ipecacuanha, 327 lb. | 0 | 6 | 0 to | 0 | 6 | 3 ditto | 100 | 2 | 10 |
| Manna, 218 lb. | 0 | 2 | 4 to | 0 | 5 | 6 ditto | 42 | 13 | 10 |
| Quickſilver, 740 lb. | 0 | 3 | 7 | | | | 132 | 11 | 8 |

## EAST-INDIA Goods.

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bandanoes, 375 | 1 | 1 | 0 | | | | 393 | 15 | 0 |
| Carradarries, 35 | 0 | 8 | 5 to | 0 | 14 | 4 med. is | 19 | 18 | 0 |
| Cherconnaes, 6 | 1 | 7 | 0 | | | | 8 | 2 | 0 |
| Chints, 62 | 1 | 0 | 0 | | | | 62 | 0 | 0 |
| Chucklae, 1 | 1 | 16 | 6 | | | | 1 | 16 | 6 |
| Coopees, 70 | 0 | 16 | 3 | | | | 56 | 17 | 6 |
| Damaſks, 17 at | 4 | 0 | 0 to | 6 | 0 | 0 the med. is | 85 | 0 | 0 |
| Dimity, 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | | | | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Ginghams, 28 | 0 | 13 | 0 | | | | 18 | 4 | 0 |
| Gorgoroons, 3 | 3 | 10 | 0 to | 5 | 1 | 0 the med. is | 12 | 15 | 0 |
| Guinea ſtuffs, 217 | 0 | 3 | 0 | | | | 32 | 11 | 0 |
| Jilmils, 2 | 1 | 6 | 6 | | | | 2 | 13 | 0 |
| Lampaſſy, 1 | 5 | 0 | 0 to | 6 | 0 | 0 the med. is | 5 | 10 | 0 |
| Nillaes, 30 | 0 | 16 | 6 | | | | 24 | 15 | 0 |
| Palempores, 41 | 2 | 0 | 0 to | 5 | 0 | 0 | 143 | 10 | 0 |
| Paduaſoys, 5 | 5 | 0 | 0 to | 6 | 0 | 0 the med. is | 27 | 10 | 0 |
| Paper fans, 600 | 0 | 2 | 0 to | 0 | 5 | 0 ditto | 105 | 0 | 0 |
| Pieces China, 400 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | | | 20 | 0 | 0 |
| Pelongs, 99 | 1 | 0 | 0 to | 1 | 5 | 0 the med. is | 111 | 7 | 6 |
| Photaes, 60 | 0 | 16 | 6 | | | | 49 | 10 | 0 |
| Romals, 4170 | 0 | 8 | 9 | | | | 1824 | 7 | 6 |
| Salempores, 39 | 1 | 12 | 0 to | 2 | 2 | 0 the med. is | 72 | 3 | 0 |
| Sattins, 7 | 4 | 0 | 0 to | 5 | 0 | 0 ditto | 31 | 10 | 0 |
| Silks, wrought, 42 lb. | 1 | 5 | 0 | | | | 52 | 10 | 0 |
| Seerſuckers, 110 | 1 | 10 | 0 to | 2 | 0 | 0 the med. is | 192 | 10 | 0 |
| Sooſeys, 110 | 1 | 12 | 0 | | | | 176 | 0 | 0 |
| Taffetys, 294 | 1 | 2 | 0 to | 1 | 9 | 0 the med. is | 374 | 17 | 0 |
| Total of exports by certificate | | | | | | | 94233 | 5 | 6 |

By theſe calculations may be ſeen the great alteration there is is the French trade, and the unprecedented circumſtance of having the balance ſtand on the right ſide of the account, which, however, is but trifling, when our exports of corn and meal are deducted, as theſe are articles which in ſeveral years they may not call again for, and conſequently ſhould not be reckoned as current branches of that traffic.

*Directions for, and examples of, computing the duties on* French *goods.*

Beſides what has been hitherto obſerved on the trade of *France*, ſome ſpecial obſervations are neceſſary to be made in regard to the computation of the duties on French goods.

I. That all *French* goods and merchandize (except brandy and other ſpirits, ſalt, wine, and vinegar) are chargeable, with reſpect to the impoſt 1692, at 25 *per cent.* on their reſpective rates, unleſs they are particularly ſpecified to pay higher by the ſaid impoſt 1692, or impoſt 1690; and then in ſuch caſe, inſtead of the ſaid 25 *per cent.* they muſt be charged as they are ſo reſpectively higher ſpecified in the ſaid impoſt 1692, or 1690; as is the caſe of bacon, catlings, necklaces, and brimſtone, &c.

II. That all goods of the *growth*, *product*, or *manufacture* of *France*, are to be charged with a further duty, being 25 *per cent.* on their reſpective rates or values except brandy, wine, and vinegar

## SINGLE ARTICLES.

500 C. French prunes.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| The amount of the rate | | 375 | 0 0 |
| Five *per cent.* of the rate | | 18 | 15 0 |
| Diſcount at 5 *per cent.* | | 0 | 18 9 |

| s. | N° 10 | | | N° 1 | 17 | 16 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5=¼ | 375 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 17 | 16 | 3 |
| | | | | 3 | 5 | 18 | 9 |
| | 93 | 15 | 0 | 4 | 11 | 17 | 6 |
| | | | | 5 | 18 | 15 | 0 |
| ¼ | 23 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 87 | 17 | 9¾ |
| | | | | 15 | 93 | 15 | 0 |
| ¾ | 5 | 17 | 2¼ | Total duty | 253 | 16 | 6¾ |
| | 87 | 17 | 9¼ | | | | |

40 C. ells of Vitery canvas.

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N° III. | | | | 200 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 10 | 0 | | | | |
| | | | | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 15 | 0 | Diſcount | 0 | 10 | 0 |
| Diſcount 0 | 9 | 6 | | | | |
| | | | N° 1 | 9 | 10 | 0 |
| 4 | 5 | 6 | 2 | 9 | 10 | 0 |
| | | | 33 | 3 | 4 | |
| s. | N° 10. | | III. | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5=¼ | 200 | 0 0 | 5 | 10 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | 10 | 46 | 17 | 6 |
| ¼ | 50 | 0 0 | 15 | 50 | 0 | 0 |
| | | | 31 | 20 | 0 | 0 |
| ¼ | 12 | 10 0 | Total duty | 153 | 6 | 4 |
| Diſcount | 3 | 2 6 | | | | |
| | 46 | 17 6 | | | | |

20 C. French brimſtone.

| | |
|---|---|
| The amount of the rate | 6 13 4 |
| Five *per cent.* of the rate | 0 6 8 |
| Diſcount at 5 *per cent.* | 0 0 4 |

s. N° 9.

5=¼ 4 13 5

¼ 1 3 4

¼ 0 5 10

4 7 6

s. N° 15.

5=¼ 6 13 4

1 13 4

| | |
|---|---|
| N° 1—0 | 6 4 |
| 2—0 | 6 4 |
| 3—0 | 2 1½ |
| 4—0 | 4 2½ |
| 5—0 | 6 8 |
| 9—4 | 7 6 |
| 15—1 | 13 4 |
| Total duty 7 | 6 6 |

One thouſand ſmall groſs of French glaſs necklaces.

| | |
|---|---|
| | 200 0 0 |
| | 10 0 0 |
| Diſcount | 0 10 0 |

N° 10

⅛—1000 at 2s. 6d.

¼— 125 0 0

¼— 31 5 0

Diſcount 7 16 3

117 3 9

| | |
|---|---|
| N° 1— | 9 10 0 |
| 2— | 9 10 0 |
| 3— | 3 3 4 |
| 4— | 6 6 8 |
| 5— | 10 0 0 |
| 10—117 | 3 9 |
| 15— | 50 0 0 |
| Total duty 205 | 13 9 |

Unrated French toys, valued upon oath. 300 0 0

s. N° 10. 6⅔ *per cent.*

5=¼ 300 0 0

¼— 75 0 0

¼— 18 15 0

Diſcount 4 13 9

70 6 3

| | |
|---|---|
| | 20 0 0 |
| Diſcount | 1 0 0 |
| N° 1—19 | 0 0 |
| 2—19 | 0 0 |
| 3— 6 | 6 8 |
| 4—12 | 13 4 |
| 5—15 | 0 0 |
| 10—70 | 6 3 |
| 15—75 | 0 0 |
| Total duty 217 | 6 3 |

200 lb. French wrought ſilk, not alamodes, nor luſtrings.

N° III.

19 0 0

9 10 0

Diſcount 0 19 0

8 11 0

s. N° 10.

5=¼ 400 0 0

¼—100 0 0

¼— 25 0 0

Diſcount 6 5 0

93 15 0

| | |
|---|---|
| | 400 0 0 |
| | 20 0 0 |
| Diſcount | 1 0 0 |
| N° 1—19 | 0 0 |
| 2—19 | 0 0 |
| 3— 6 | 6 8 |
| 4—12 | 13 4 |
| III— 8 | 11 0 |
| 5—20 | 0 0 |
| 10—93 | 15 0 |
| 15—100 | 0 0 |
| Total duty 279 | 6 0 |

Twenty tons of ſingle French brandy.

| | |
|---|---|
| | 600 0 0 |
| N° 6. | N° 5—30 0 0 |
| 30 0 0 | 6—85 10 0 |
| 3 | 17—20 0 0 |
| 90 0 0 | Cuſtoms 135 10 0 |
| 4 10 0 Diſcount. | Exciſe 1176 0 0 |
| 85 10 0 | Total duty 1311 10 0 |

150 C. frankincenſe, of the growth, &c.

| | |
|---|---|
| | 99 0 0 |
| Five *per cent.* on the rate | 4 10 0 |
| N° 2. | Diſcount 0 4 6 |

Five *per cent.* on one-third of the rate 1 10 0

Diſcount 0 1 6

1 8 6

N° 10.

1 10 0

5

7 10 0

¼— 1 17 6

Diſcount 0 9 4½

7 0 7½

| | |
|---|---|
| N° 1—4 | 5 6 |
| 2—1 | 8 6 |
| 3—0 | 9 6 |
| 4—0 | 19 0 |
| 5—4 | 10 0 |
| 10—7 | 0 7½ |
| 14—7 | 10 0 |
| 15—3 | 0 0 |
| Total duty 29 | 3 1½ |

1000 lb. French radix eringii.

s. N° 10.

5=¼ 25 0 0

¼— 6 5 0

¼— 1 11 3

Diſcount 0 7 9¾

5 17 2¼

N° 14.

⅕— 1 5 0

0 5 0

1 0 0

| | |
|---|---|
| | 25 0 0 |
| | 1 5 0 |
| Diſcount | 0 1 3 |
| N° 1—1 | 3 9 |
| 2—1 | 3 9 |
| 3—0 | 7 11 |
| 4—0 | 15 10 |
| 5—1 | 5 0 |
| 10—5 | 17 2¼ |
| 14—1 | 0 0 |
| 15—6 | 5 0 |
| Total duty 17 | 18 5¼ |

Certain French earthen-ware, not particularly rated, containing 400 lb.

| | |
|---|---|
| | 16 13 4 |
| | 0 16 8 |
| | 0 8 4 |
| 7½ *per cent.* | 1 5 0 |
| Diſcount | 0 1 3 |

s. N° 10.

5=¼ 16 13 4

¼— 4 3 4

½— 1 0 10

Diſcount 0 5 2½

3 18 1½

| | |
|---|---|
| N° 1—1 | 3 9 |
| 2—1 | 3 9 |
| 3—0 | 7 11 |
| 4—0 | 15 10 |
| 5—0 | 16 8 |
| 10—3 | 18 1½ |
| 15—4 | 3 4 |
| Total duty 12 | 9 4½ |

Three hundred French kid ſkins in the hair.

s. N° 10.

5=¼ 30 0 0

¼— 7 10 0

¼— 1 17 6

Diſcount 0 9 4½

7 0 7½

N° 26.

3000 at 1 d.

250

12 10 0

| | |
|---|---|
| | 30 0 0 |
| | 1 10 0 |
| Diſcount | 0 1 6 |
| N° 1— | 1 8 6 |
| 2— | 1 8 6 |
| 3— | 0 9 6 |
| 4— | 0 19 0 |
| 5— | 1 10 0 |
| 10— | 7 0 7½ |
| 15— | 7 10 0 |
| 26—12 | 10 0 |
| 27— | 6 5 0 |
| Total duty 39 | 1 1½ |

Unrated

Unrated French medicinal drugs, valued upon oath at 100 l.

s. N° 10.
5=¼ 100 0 0
¼— 25 0 0
¼— 6 5 0
Diſcount 1 11 3
23 8 9

N° 14.
100 0 0
⅕— 5 0 0
1 0 0
4 0 0

100 0 0
5 0 0
Diſcount 0 5 0

N° 1— 4 15 0
2— 4 15 0
3— 1 11 8
4— 3 3 4
5— 5 0 0
10—23 8 9
14— 4 0 0
15—25 0 0
Total duty 71 13 9

Ninety quarters of French wheat, exceeding 44s. and not exceeding 53s. and 4d. *per* quarter.

N° 2.
90 at 6s. 8d.
30 0 0
1 10 0
0 1 6 Diſcount
1 8 6

s. N° 10.
5=¼ 30 0 0
¼— 7 10 0
¼— 1 17 6
Diſcount 0 9 4½
7 0 7½

1440 0 0
N° 1—72 0 0
2— 1 8 6
3— 0 9 6
4— 0 19 0
5— 1 10 0
10— 7 0 7½
15— 7 10 0
Total duty 90 17 7½

C.
7 2 0 French bacon.
N° 10.
7
7
7
756
840 at 4d.
280
¼—14 0 0
¼— 3 10 0
0 17 6 Diſcount.
13 2 6

10 0 0
0 10 0
Diſcount 0 0 6

N° 1— 0 9 6
2— 0 9 6
3— 0 3 2
4— 0 6 4
5— 0 10 0
10—13 2 6
15— 2 10 0
Total duty 17 11 0

Seventy-five groſs of French catlings.

N° 10.
75 at 1s. 6d.
3 15 0
1 17 6
¼— 5 12 6
¼— 1 8 1½
Diſcount 0 7 0¼
5 5 5¾

10 0 0
0 10 0
Diſcount 0 0 6

N° 1— 0 9 6
2— 0 9 6
3— 0 3 2
4— 0 6 4
5— 0 10 0
10— 5 5 5¼
15— 2 10 0
Total duty 9 13 11¼

Five tons of French vinegar, imported by Britiſh, and entered unfilled for ſale.

N° 2. 25 0 0
1 5 0
0 1 3 Diſcount
1 3 9

N°. 7.
6 3 0 15/20
5
30 15 3 15/20

*Per* ton—3 19 2 5/20
5
N° 1—19 16 0
2— 1 3 9
3— 0 7 11
4— 0 15 10
5— 1 5 0
7—30 15 3¾
15—75 0 0
16— 2 10 0
Total duty 131 13 9¾

50 C. of French plantation cocoa nuts.

s. N° 10.
5=¼ 125 0 0
¼— 31 5 0
¼— 7 16 3
Diſcount 1 19 0¾
29 5 11¼

125 0 0
6 5 0
Diſcount 0 6 3

N° 1— 5 18 9
2— 5 18 9
3— 1 19 7
4— 3 19 2
5— 6 5 0
10—29 5 11¾
Total duty 53 7 2¼

Ten tons of French rape of grapes, imported by a ſtranger, and entered filled.

N° 2.
30 0 0
1 10 0
0 1 6 Diſcount.
1 8 6

s. N° 10.
5=¼ 30 0 0 N° 2.
¼— 7 10 0
¼— 1 17 6
0 9 4½ Diſcount.
7 0 7½

*Per* ton— 6 0 0
10

N° 1—60 0 0
2— 1 8 6
3— 0 9 6
4— 0 19 0
5— 1 10 0
10— 7 0 7½
15— 7 10 0
Total duty 78 17 7½

240 buſhels of French oyſters.

s. N° 10.
5=¼ 7 0 0
¼— 1 15 0
¼— 0 8 9
Diſcount 0 2 2¼
1 12 9¾

7 0 0
0 7 0
Diſcount 0 0 4¼

N° 1—0 6 7¾
2—0 6 7¾
3—0 2 2½
4—0 4 5¼
5—0 7 0
10—1 12 9¾
15—1 15 0
Total duty 4 14 9

80 C. weld, of the growth of France, for dyers uſe, as by 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4.

N° 10.
5 0 0
¼— 1 5 0
¾— 0 6 3
4 13 9

20 0 0
1 0 0
Diſcount 0 1 0

N° 1—0 19 0
5—1 0 0
10—4 13 9
15—5 0 0
Total duty 11 12 9

80 C. weld, of the growth of any French colony or plantation, for dyers uſe as by 3 and 4 *A. c.* 4.

N° 10. 5 0 0
¼— 1 5 0
¼— 0 6 3
4 13 9

20 0 0
1 0 0
Diſcount 0 1 0

N° 1—0 19 0
5—1 0 6
10—4 13 9
Total duty 6 12 9

We

We ſhall now proceed to the commerce of *France* as extended to almoſt every part of the known world, where any is carried on, and ſhall begin firſt with that they maintain with Holland, as the moſt conſiderable of any other they are engaged in; and the principal cities concerned in it, are Paris, Rouen, Orleans, Dieppe, Dunkirk, St. Valery, Caën, Nantes, St. Malo, La Rochelle, L'Iſle de Rhé, L'Iſle d'Oleron, Bourdeaux, Berberac, Montauban, Bayonne, Lyons, and Marſeilles, whoſe trade with the Dutch we ſhall deſcribe in order. Of the manufactures of Paris are ſent to Holland all ſorts of rich ſilks, as gold and ſilver brocades, and thoſe without either of theſe metals; gros de tours, damaſk, flowered and plain ſattins, tarandines, thread laces, ribbons and girdles, aprons, head-dreſſes, gloves, fans, jewels, books, &c. From Rouen they extract linens, Caudebec hats, laces of ſilks, and of gold and ſilver, true and falſe, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, divers ſorts of mercery and hadwares, greening weed for dyers, thiſtles for clothiers, faſh glaſs, bon chretien pears, rennet apples, cyder, and ſweetmeats. From Orleans, they have only Gâtinois ſaffron, Orleans wine, and ſome from the Loire, and brandies: Dieppe furniſhes them with faſh glaſs, laces, mercery, and hardwares, and a large quantity of combs, and horn tobacco-boxes. The trade of Dunkirk with Holland is now reduced to the importation only of the returns the former gets by its American commerce, and which is principally ſent to Rotterdam. St. Valery has hardly any trade with the Dutch, nor does Caen remit them any thing but paper, which is ſent both to Amſterdam and Rotterdam. St. Malo ſupplies the former with paper, honey, grain, calf-ſkins, grind-ſtones, India goods, coarſe ſugar, and ſeveral Spaniſh commodities.

Nantz ſends them Bretagne linen, butter, (when ſcarce in Holland) corn, ſuch as wheat, rye, and maſlin, honey, Gâtinois ſaffron, Loire wine, and brandy, paper, prunes of St. Catherine, ſugar, indigo, cacao, rocou, (for dying) and cotton wool: Rochelle furniſhes Amſterdam with wine and brandy, ſalt, paper, brown ſugar, ſyrup, indigo, Martinico cacao, walnut-tree boards, &c. The iſles of Rhé, Oleron, and town of Cogniac, ſupply it plentifully with ſmall wines, (particularly that from St. Martin) brandy, and ſalt. Bourdeaux ſends there brandy, vinegar, Perigord cheſnuts, prunes of St. Antonin, walnuts, and walnut-tree planks, honey, Montauban ſaffron, linſeed for oil, paper, turpentine, roſin, and pitch, coarſe ſugars, indigo, and rocou, ſyrups, and ſeveral other commodities. Bergerac only affords for this trade, wine and cheſnuts, with which at leaſt a hundred and fifty ſhips go yearly loaded from hence and Libourne to Amſterdam. From Bayonne are carried there the ſeveral wines of Journanſon, Bearn, Chaloſſe, and Cape Breton; brandies, cheſnuts, prunes, hams, liquorice, turpentine, roſin, and pitch; a large parcel of Spaniſh wool, honey, bed feathers, and linſeed. Lyons deals only with Amſterdam in ſilks and exchanges, though Marſeilles ſends there olive oil, ſoap, white and marbled, brandy, St. Laurence wine, olives, capers, anchovies, honey, almonds, figs, raiſins, currants, tunny fiſh, dates, verdigris, perfumes, woad of Languedoc, Marſeilles quilting, ſilk ſtockings of Niſmes, all ſorts of Arabian and Levant drugs, coffee, ſilk, cotton wool, and thread, Angora goats hair, camels hair, and ſeveral other ſorts of merchandize.

And what Holland ſends to France, in return, are cloths, cambrics, hollands, cotton wool, and thread, chints and muſlins (but theſe by ſtealth, as they are contraband) ſugar-candy, pepper, cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmegs, writing quills, fine wool, horſe hair, ox horns, drugs for dying, diamonds, pearls, and ſeed pearls, madder, galls, gums, allum, copperas, vitriol, pewter, lead, copper, tin, ſteel, iron, iron plates, pots, and ſeveral other works of this metal; limbecks for diſtilleries, and kettles for boiling ſugar; braſs and iron wire, quickſilver, refined brimſtone, all ſorts of tanned hides, Ruſſia leather, all ſorts of ſkins, flax, hemp, cables, and cordage for ſhips, ſail-cloth, maſts, yards, and plank for all marine uſes, timber for houſe-building, rozin, pitch, tar, cheeſe, tallow, candles, butter, ſalmon pickled and ſmoaked, herrings, whalebone, train, linſeed, and rape oils, linſeed for ſowing, muſk, civet and ambergris, coral, and yellow amber, ſtaves, caſks, aſhes for the ſoap works and whitſters, white and yellow wax, wax candles and flambeaux, ſtarch; all ſorts of thread for ſewing or weaving, as alſo for making cables and ſails, china-ware, tea and chocolate, couries, and all ſorts of copper baſons and merceries for the Guinea trade; tapeſtries of different ſpecies, cannon, and all ſorts of fire-arms, powder, bullets, and bombs.

By which may be in part ſeen how conſiderable a trade is carried on between France and Holland; and if we may believe the author of the *Memoirs on the Commerce of the Dutch*, M. Boreel, who was their ambaſſador to his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, had declared and proved to the French court, that in the year 1658, goods had been entered in the ſeveral cuſtom-houſes of the ſeven United Provinces to above three millions and a half of guilders in value, in the following different ſorts of commodities, viz.

| | Guilders. |
|---|---|
| Of velvets, ſattins, gold, ſilver, and other brocades, taffeties, &c, made at Lyons, Tours, and Paris, to the value of | 6,000,000 |
| Of ſilk ribbons, thread, and gold and ſilver laces, buttons, ſtay-laces, &c. | 2,000,000 |
| Of caſtor, vicuna, and Caudebec hats, made at Paris, &c. | 1,500,000 |
| Of feathers, belts, fans, head-dreſſes, looking-glaſſes, watches, clocks, and other merchandize of this ſort | 2,000,000 |
| Of gloves made at Paris, Rouen, and Vendome | 1,500,000 |
| Of wools ſpun in Picardy | 1,500,000 |
| Of the different ſorts of paper made in Auvergne, Limoſin, Poictou, Champagne, and Normandy | 2,000,000 |
| Of pins and needles, box, ebony, and ivory combs | 500,000 |
| Of hardware from Auvergne | 500,000 |
| Of the different kinds of linen from Bretagne and Normandy | 5,000,000 |
| Of furniture, beds, quilts, blankets, curtains, and fringes | 5,000,000 |
| Of Bourdeaux, Gaſcoyne, Saintonge, Orleans, Anjou, and Nantz wine | 5,000,000 |
| Of brandy and vinegar | 1,500,000 |
| Of ſaffron, ſoap, honey, almonds, olives, prunes, &c. | 2,000,000 |
| Which imports together make thirty-ſix millions of guilders | 36,000,000 |

Monſ. Boreel (ſays our author) repreſents, that, beſides all this, Holland annually extracted from Rochelle, Marans, Brouage, and the iſlands of Rhé and Oleron, above five or ſix hundred ſhip loads of ſalt, without including hemp, wheat, and other grain, that they take from France in a plentiful year, which ſometimes amounts to more than ſix millions; and though this trade muſt have ſuffered ſome alteration in near a century, that has elapſed ſince the above calculation was made, yet it ſtill continues very great, and moſt of the ſame commodities exchanged as was by the preceding account.

The French likewiſe carry on a very important trade with Portugal, Spain, and Italy, though nothing nigh ſo much as they formerly did, as Spain in particular has within a few years paſt ſet up ſeveral manufactures of ſilk, more eſpecially at Valencia, which now rival the Lyonois fabricks in pattern, goodneſs, and dye: they however ſtill ſupply Portugal with this commodity, and both kingdoms in ſome woollens for their American trade; on the contrary, raw ſilk is carried from Italy to France as well by ſea as land, and all the Italian ſtates in return take off ſome part of their fleecy treaſure wrought into ſerges, cloths, druggets, &c. Of hats, ſome are yet exported to all theſe countries, though in nothing near the quantities as was uſual when thoſe of Caudebec were the celebrated ones in Europe; their linens and lace alſo continue to find a ſale as well in moſt parts of Italy as the Spaniſh and Portuguefe dominions, both in this part of the globe and America; and theſe ſtates furniſh the wants of the French with large parcels of hides from Buenos Ayres and Neuva Colonia, as they do with ſnuff and roll tobacco; of the former it is ſaid, about two thouſand ton from Spain, and as much of the latter from Portugal; they alſo take from Spain large quantities of ſoap ready made, with oil and ſoſa or barilla, to manufacture more

An
Accurate Map of
the CIRCLE of
FRANCONIA,
Drawn from the best
Authorities.
German Miles 15 to a Degree.
British Miles 69 to a Degree.
UPPER RHINE
LOWER RHINE
UPPER SAXONY
BOHEMIA
Schmalkald
Saxe-Weimar Co.
Hesse to Schmalkald
HENNEBERG
DUTCHY of COBURG
Fulda
Schwartzburg
Gravental
Gessel
Schwartzfels
Salmunster
Gelhausen
Burghausen
RHINECK
Rheinecke
COUNTY
Hanau
Weilendorf
BISHOP of BAMBERG
Schweinfurt
Cobburg
Lauringen
Kissing
Seslach
Altenstain
Thundorf
Ebern
Konigsberg
Hassfurt
Greatstat
Gemund
Rainfelt
Zeilhaus
Werneck
Carlstoen
Elmstein
Elberberg
Pimpach
Volkach
Wipfelt
Armstein
Rottenpach
Carlburg
Rossbach
Aschaffenburg
Rotenfels
Mudtstat
Carlstat
Sommerau
Michelrist
Procelden
Romlingen
Detzbach
Tettelbach
Uttingen
WURTZBURG
Co: of Co. of Castel
Castel
Breuberg
Co: of ERPACH to FRANCONIA
Erpach
Wertheim
COUN: of WERTHEIM
Wurtzburg
Heinstat
Steinbach
Grunfelt
Pidebridt
Rasingen
Schwartzenberg Co.
Dachbach
Auracch
Bernbach
Hanburg
Aschenan
Neukirchen
Seebach
Herspruck
TERRITORY of
Hohenberg
Rykendorf
Altorf
Lauf
Sittenbach
Pacheteld
Amberg
NURENBERG
Fischaur
Teming
Neumark
Hipolstam
Wendelstein
Schwarat
Roth R.
Heydek
Berching
Stauf
Berngrick
Kunting
Dietfurt
Riedenburg
RATISBON
Danube R.
Weissenburg
AICHSTAT
Tappenheim
Aichstat
Rebdorf
Eichstat
Beilfelt
Monheim
Nassafels
Octing
Dingelspil
Ellwang
Hall
Limpury
Crailsheim
Dorpur
Glait
Neustatt
Oringen
Co. of HOHENLOHE
Schillingsfurt
Langenburg
Ingelfingen
Taxtberg
Jaxt R.
Krautheim
Hachtel
Blaufelden
Rosenberg
Aldelsheim
Rotting
Aub
Vergentheim
Ingersheim
Ochsenfurt
Possenheim
Tiemskirchen
Langenfels
Uffenheim
Winsheim
Steinach
Weipach
Rottenberg
M. of ANSPACH
Anspach
Dachsfelt
Schwobach
Cumerstein
Herrnidas
Lichtenau
Than
Beckhofen
Gunzenhausen
Ramsb.
Spalt
Bleinfelt
Spitzberg
Wernitz R.
Gunsdorf
Ellwang
Bergtheim
Altmul R.
Rezat R.
Swanningen
Ansbach
Roth R.
Hipolstam
Wendelstein
Schwarat
Teming
Neumark
Fischaur
Altorf
Lauf
Hohenberg
Rykendorf
Pacheteld
Amberg
Sittenbach
Herspruck
Seebach
Aurbach
Kembach
Neustat
Leubo
Hohberg
Bernfelt
Pegnitz
Pretzstein
Hohenstain
Eschenau
Neukirchen
Feuchtwang
Greingey
Velbr.
Haverndorf
Ermreuth
N. Erlang
Erlabrun
Buch
Wehrd
Erlasbrun
Seenberg
Pegnitz R.
Farnbach
Lang-Rell
Kraftes
Schwobach
Cumerstein
Wendelstein
Schwarat
Roth R.
Hipolstam

at home; and with this latter they likewiſe ſupply themſelves for their plate glaſs fabricks. With their wine, brandies, and ſalt, they carry on a prodigious trade to all the North; for though many of thoſe parts are ſupplied with theſe commodities at ſecond-hand by the Dutch, yet none totally; for Sweden, Denmark, Ruſſia, and the Dantzickers, relieve a great part of their wants with their own ſhipping, which they load with iron, ſteel, copper, tin, lead, powder, ſtock-fiſh, ſalt-fiſh, tallow, wools, boards, maſts, hemp, cordage, tar, and other naval ſtores for the French markets; though indeed in regard of the French intereſt, it ſignifies very little what nations are the exporters of their commodities, provided they be taken off. They carry on an immenſe trade to the Levant, and on the coaſts of Barbary, principally with their own products and manufactures, and ſupply all their Weſt-India ſettlements with them; they ſhare all the European and American fiſheries, and if they do not as much as the Engliſh and Dutch in them, they do more I believe than all the other nations put together. Their commerce with Germany is alſo conſiderable, and a great part of this is carried on by land, as the two empires in many places join; ſo that ſilks, ſalt, woollens, &c. they may get to market without the intervention of any ſea carriage, and bring back an aſſortment of thoſe fine threads and laces for which many of thoſe parts are ſo famous. The Flemings come empty, and load back with wine, brandy, ſyrup, and ſail cloath. The Hamburghers bring lead, copper, ſtarch, ſtaves, ſteel, iron; and in return take ſalt, wines, brandy, indigo, ginger, and paper. For carrying on their Weſt-India trade, the French have a company with an excluſive charter, which was at firſt formed in 1628, to ſupport the colonies they had at that time eſtabliſhed in Canada, and to ſettle others in that vaſt tract of land then moſt part unknown. This company immediately began to flouriſh, and the large ſettlements ſince made there are properly owing to its activity and good management, though it ſubſiſted no longer than till 1649, when it began to ſell part of its grant, and finiſhed the whole by 1651. This occaſioned a ſucceſſion of companies under different denominations, and frequently ſplit into ſeveral ſocieties, too prolix to be inſerted here, till they were reunited again in one, in 1664, under the title of The Royal Weſt-India Company (but this only laſted for about nine years, when the king annulled the patent, and annexed all the American ſettlements to his crown) at which time there was alſo eſtabliſhed a more conſiderable aſſociation, I mean that of the Eaſt-India company, which ſtill ſubſiſts; and there are now very large colonies and ſettlements in both the different diſtricts, though the ſupport of the one and the other has coſt that monarch ſeveral millions. Here is likewiſe the Company du Baſtion de France, ſettled in the kingdom of Algiers; and that of Senegal, after ſome years traffick, was in 1718 ſwallowed up by their grand company of the Indies; though out of this ſprung their Guinea company, which changed its name for that of the Aſſiento, and then for the South-Sea company, and in its turn loſt both the one and the other, in its abolition, the king laying the trade of their diſtrict open to all his ſubjects in 1716. They have alſo had their Hudſon's-Bay, Miſſiſſippi, Weſtern, and Canada companies; the company of Acadie, company of the North, Levant company, and St. Domingo company, all which have been ſo altered and jumbled together, that it would take up too much time, and be little to the purpoſe, to give a diſtinct hiſtory of them: we ſhall therefore conclude our diſſertation on the trade of France, with this aditional remark, that notwithſtanding its ſufferings by the late war, it ſeems a very growing one, and muſt be regarded with a jealous eye, by every well-wiſher to that of Great-Britain.

FRANCHE COMTE'. The products of this province of France conſiſt of corn, hay, iron, ſaltpetre, ſalt, cattle, butter, cheeſe, and horſes. The rivers Saone, Doux, Lougnon, Loure, and other brooks, work upwards of thirty forges and furnaces, where a large quantity of bombs, bullets, and many other iron commodities are made; maſts, and other wood for marine conſtructions, grow here in plenty; and the ſaltpetre made in a common year, is about 1,200,000 lb. with room for a conſiderable augmentation at a ſmall expence, upon a due application. The ſalt is from the pits of *Montagne Dorée*, ſo named from the rich treaſure it incloſes, which, however, only conſiſts of two drains of water never dry, and which produce an extraordinary quantity of this commodity. The ſtuds of this diſtrict are very conſiderable, having always about eighty ſtallions, 9000 breeding mares, and from theſe about five thouſand colts yearly; here is no manufacture of drapery, nor any other product meriting regard.

FRANCONIA. The circle of *Franconia* extends not leſs than forty leagues either in length or breadth. The ſoil is in ſome parts mountainous and barren, but in others very fruitful, producing corn, wine, liquorice, ſaffron, and fruits. The city of *Nuremberg* is the richeſt and moſt important of the cities in this circle, and, conſidering its great diſtance from the ſea, is the wonder of Europe for trade and number of people. No city in the world has a greater number of curious workmen, in metal of all ſorts, ivory, wood, &c. nor affords artificial commodities ſo cheap. The *Nuremberg* braſs is ſaid to be the moſt ductile, the brighteſt, and leaſt ſubject to flaws of any in Europe; and is made chiefly out of the Tyrol copper. They are particularly famous for clock-work. The citizens began to trade to foreign parts about the year 1300, and their merchandize was not only carried throughout Europe, but to the Eaſt-Indies and America; and they have a bank on the ſame regulation almoſt as that of Venice. Here are two annual trading fairs [*ſee the article* BILLS *of exchange*] and it was from this part of Germany, that thoſe we called Dutch toys uſed to be imported hither.

FRANGIPANE, a kind of exquiſite perfume given to the leather of which gloves, &c. are made, ſo called from the inventor, a nobleman of Rome, of the family of Frangipani. There is alſo a perfumed liquor of the ſame name, as likewiſe a *ros ſolis*.

FRANK *or* FRANC, a coin formerly ſtruck and current in France, was ſo called, becauſe a Frenchman was repreſented thereon. It was either gold or ſilver: the gold *franc* was ſomewhat more than the gold French crown; the ſilver *franc* was a third part of the crown, being equivalent to a livre, or twenty ſols. The coin has been long out of uſe, though the name is ſtill retained, and imports a money-account of the value of twenty ſols.

FRANKINCENSE. *See* OLIBANUM.

FREDERICKSHALD, is the eaſternmoſt town in Norway, and was built about 128 years ago; it is ſeparated from Sweden by a ford two Engliſh miles broad; and its exports are confined principally to deals, with a few balks and ſpars: its Oplag occaſions the importation of all goods in their own ſhips, beſides iron from Sweden, under any colours.

FRIDERICHSTAD, roſe in the decline of Sarpſburgh (lying a mile and a quarter up the river Glommen) about 170 years ago; from hence many maſts, load-balks, deals, ſpars, ſmall balks, &c. are annually exported. It is the beſt fortified town in Norway; but as ſeveral of the fortifications are built on a clay ground, with a boggy bottom, the foundations frequently give way, and ſink.

FREE-BENCH, is that eſtate in copyhold lands which the wife hath on the death of her huſband for her dower, according to the cuſtom of the manor; and in ſeveral manors there are various cuſtoms with reſpect to ſuch eſtate; and in ſome places the wife hath the whole of the lands, in others the half, and in others the third: and I ſhall cite the following caſe.

This was an action of treſpaſs [*Parker a Edith Bleeke. Hil.* 15 *Car.* 13 *Car. Roll.* 1002. 3 *Cro.* 568.] and upon a ſpecial verdict it was found, that the land was copyhold of inheritance of the manor of Cheltenham in Glouceſterſhire, whereof Arthur Bleeke, late huſband of the defendant, was ſeized in fee.

And in this manor there was a cuſtom, that if a copyholder, ſeized in fee of a copyhold tenement, died, leaving a wife at the time of his death ſurviving him, that ſhe ſhould hold the ſaid copyhold land during her life, and for twelve years after.

And by virtue of the ſtat. 13 *Eliz.* he was found bankrupt; and by indenture dated the fifth of April 10 *Car.* and inrolled within the ſix months, they ſold the copyhold lands to the plaintiff Alexander Parker, and to William Sotherne

and their heirs, for ſix hundred pounds, paid for the uſe of the bankrupt's creditors.

And the jury by virtue of a private act of parliament made 1 *Car.* found, that by the cuſtom of that manor, the wife of the copyholder ſhould have dower, and may have a jointure aſſigned for her life; and that a copyholder of inheritance may grant for his life and twelve years after.

And that all women then living, and late the wives of any of the copyholders of the ſaid manor, dying tenants, ſhould and may enjoy the cuſtomary lands of their now or late huſbands, and be tenants for their lives and twelve years after, as if that act had never been made.

And that all the cuſtoms and uſages heretofore uſed and allowed within the ſaid manor concerning the enjoying any cuſtomary lands, &c. by any widow of any cuſtomary tenant, or any after-taken huſband of ſuch widow, or the heir or heirs of ſuch wife, hereafter taking huſband, or concerning the deſcending of any ſuch lands to any other perſon, or in any other form than is before expreſſed, ſhall be void; and that all other lawful uſages and cuſtoms, heretofore uſed within the ſaid manor, which were not repugnant and contrary to the true meaning of that act, ſhould be and remain good and effectual to be ratified by that act.

And the jury found, that at a court baron of the ſaid manor, held the firſt of April 12 *Car.* it was found by the homage, that Edith ſurvived her huſband, and ought to enjoy the ſaid tenemenrs for her life, and for twelve years after; and that upon a preſentment the firſt of April, 12 *Car.* and before the admiſſion of Alexander Parker and William Sotherne, the ſaid Edith was admitted tenant of the tenements aforeſaid, according to the cuſtom of the manor, and by virtue of ſuch admiſſion ſhe entered.

And this was very well argued at the bar by Glyn for the plaintiff, and Moreton for the defendant, where two points were inſiſted on.

Firſt, Whether by the bargain and ſale made by the commiſſioners, by virtue of the ſtatute of bankrupts, the eſtate of the copyholder was veſted in the barganee before admittance; for then the ſaid Arthur Bleeke did not die tenant, and ſo it is not within the cuſtom, that his wife ſhould have widow's eſtate.

Secondly, Admitting he died tenant, and the widow had ſuch an eſtate veſted in her, whether the vendees (by the bargain and ſale to them before made) ſhall not afterwards diveſt the eſtate of the feme by relation, and then the plaintiff hath a good title:

And it was argued, that the bargain and ſale bind the copyholder, and bar his eſtate; and that he is no copyholder after the bargain and ſale enrolled; and the bargainee by the ſtatute is only barred to take the profits until admittance, which is for the lord's benefit, in reſpect to the fine due to him thereupon. Secondly, It was held, when the bargainee is admitted by the lord, it ſhall veſt in the bargainee, and ſhall have relation to the bargain and ſale, and ſhall diveſt the eſtate which the feme claimed by the cuſtom, as in the caſe of 7 *Edw.* VI. Brook title *Inrolments.* Where one joint tenant bargains and ſells, and before the inrolment the other dies, and afterwards the deed is inrolled within the ſix months, yet the moiety only paſſed. And it is like the caſe where one bargains and ſells by indenture, and takes a wife and dies, and afterwards the deed is inrolled within ſix months, the feme ſhall not have her dower; and ſo the caſe 22 *Eliz.* where a mortgagee dies, his heir being in ward to the king, the condition is afterwards performed, the wardſhip ſhall be diveſted. Jones and Bramſton doubted of the point, until they ſaw the record finds the act to be particularly, that ſhe ought to be the wife of a tenant, and it is not intended, that, after the ſale of the copyhold he ſhould die tenant, and he did not die tenant, becauſe the bargain and ſale took his eſtate from him, and ouſted him of the copyhold. Wherefore they agreed judgment ſhould be entered for the plaintiff.

FREE-BOOTER, is applied to thoſe pirates that ſcour the American ſeas.

FREIGHT, is the ſum agreed on for the hire of a ſhip, or carriage of goods, and muſt be paid in preference to all other debts, for whoſe payment the goods ſtand engaged; but as thoſe are obliged to the ſhip for her hire, ſo is the ſhip to the owner of the goods, in caſe of damage or waſte, through any defect of the veſſel or ſailors. *See* CHARTER-PARTY, *where this article of* freight *is minutely conſidered.*

FRIBOURG, is a pretty large city, and capital of the canton in Switzerland, bearing the ſame name, ſeated on the river Sane. Its factories are extenſive, and the country very fine, being, next to Lucerne, the moſt powerful of the Roman catholic cantons; the goodneſs of its paſtures, and the fertility of its ſoil, yield a very conſiderable income to the inhabitants, whereby they are placed at eaſe, and are not ſo laborious as their neighbours; ſo that with the exception of the cheeſe trade, they bring little to it, beſides a few hempen linens, and ſome hats made here. There is a fabric of paper in the neighbourhood, and a printing-office in the city.

*Guierre*, is a ſmall town in the canton of *Fribourg*, noted for its excellent cheeſes in all Europe; and of which the trade is ſo very conſiderable, as to induce ſeveral merchants of this canton to ſettle houſes at Lyons, for negociating their ſales.

FRIEZLAND, one of the moſt northern provinces of the United Netherlands, bounded by the ocean on the north, by Groningen and Overyſſel on the eaſt, by the Zuyder-Sea and Overyſſel on the ſouth, and by the ocean on the weſt. The air of this country is not unwholeſome, and the ſoil, in many places, affords good paſtures, and ſome arable lands, eſpecially in Ooſtergow. Weſtergow, which is the largeſt tract, is more level and fenny, but abounds with fiſh and foul: the province is divided into Ooſtergow, Weſtergow, and Seven Wolden, or Seven Foreſts.

Leewarden, the capital of Ooſtergow, and Harlengen, of Weſtergow, are the two moſt noted places for trade in this province. The former ſtands in a fruitful ſoil, and by its navigable canals, the largeſt of which runs to the ocean, has a good trade with Hamburgh, Bremen, Embden, and Holland; and is plentifully ſupplied with neceſſaries from the neighbouring countries. The chief trade of the latter is in making ſails, and importing and exporting corn, pitch, tar, fir-trees, and deal.

*Eaſt*-FRIEZLAND. This county, or earldom, belongs properly to Germany. It has the German Ocean on the north, the gulph Dollert, with the mouth of the river Ems, on the weſt, which parts it from the province of Groningen; the biſhoprick of Munſter on the ſouth, and the county of Oldenburg on the eaſt.

*Embden*, on the river Ems, and on the bay called Dollert, is a rich, large, and populous city. The iſland Veſſey, which lies in the Dollert bay, over-againſt this city, makes the harbour as large and convenient as any on the German coaſt. They have alſo artificial canals, by which they can bring large veſſels into the heart of the town. The inhabitants are very induſtrious, and much addicted to trade. The goodneſs of the harbour induces the Dutch merchants to direct many ſhips to load and unload here; and by the inland navigation of the river, a very conſiderable traffic is carried on, into Germany, Weſtphalia, &c.

The laſt count of *Eaſt-Friezland* dying without iſſue, the king of Pruſſia ſeized upon the country, to which the Dutch and other princes have alſo pretenſions.

FRINGE, FROG, *and* TASSEL-MAKER. The making of gold and ſilver *fringe*, frogs, and taſſels, is performed by ſome of the gold and ſilver button-makers; but it is chiefly done by women upon the hand, who are able to make a handſome livelihood of it, when theſe ornamental parts of dreſs are in faſhion. The making of ſilk *fringe* is performed in the loom by the livery-lace weavers.

*Fringes* of ſilk or thread may not be imported. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 2. For *fringes* of gold, ſilver, copper, or braſs, *ſee* GOLD. For the drawback on thread or lace, of gold or ſilver, Britiſh, *ſee* DRAWBACK.

FRUIT *and* FRUIT-TREES. Offence of barking. 37 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 4. Taking up, or otherwiſe ſpoiling. 43 *Eliz. c.* 7. The water meaſure of *fruit* aſcertained. 4 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 15. Cutting down *fruit-trees*, how puniſhed. 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *cap.* 48. 6 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 16. *See* TIMBER, TREES, WOOD.

FRUIT-

FRUITERER. The *fruiterers* keep ſhops, in which they ſell fruits both of our own growth and that of foreign countries; as pine-apples, foreign grapes, lemons, and oranges. Some of them live handſomely; though they ſuffer greatly by their fruit ſpoiling upon their hands. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; and fifty pounds will ſet up a maſter.

FUEL. By *ſtat.* 43 *Eliz. c.* 14. all faggots to be ſold ſhall contain in compaſs, beſides the knot of the bond, twenty-four inches of aſſize; and every faggot-ſtick within the bond ſhall contain full three feet of aſſize, except only one ſtick to be but one foot long, to ſtop or harden the binding.

*Stat.* 9 *Ann. c.* 15. All billets (except thoſe made of beech, by 10 *Ann. c.* 6.) that lie expoſed in public places, where they are uſually bought or ſold, ſhall be aſſized, cut, and marked in manner directed, that is, all billets of what ſcantling or denomination ſoever, ſhall contain in length three feet and four inches, and be of the dimenſions as aſſigned in this act.

*Sect.* 2. And if they ſhall not be thus aſſized and marked, then on information to a juſtice of peace, mayor, or other head-officer, he ſhall call before him ſix good and lawful men of the town, and ſhall ſwear them truly, to inquire and preſent, whether the ſame be of good and ſufficient aſſize; and if they ſhall preſent that any of them is not ſufficient, the ſame ſo being deficient ſhall be forfeited, and be delivered to the overſeers to be by them diſtributed to the poor.

FULLER. The buſineſs of the *fuller* is to clean, ſcour, mill, and thicken wollen cloths; and is chiefly to be met with in the counties where the woollen manufacture flouriſhes: there are however ſeveral of this buſineſs about London. It is for the moſt part ſloppy hard work, and therefore robuſt lads are only fit for it. The *fullers* take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; and leſs than a hundred pounds will ſet up a maſter. *Fuller's earth, fulling and ſcouring clay*, penalties on exporting them, 12 *Car.* II. *cap.* 32. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *cap.* 40. 6 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 21. *ſect.* 32.

FUN, called a money by Gemelli, an Italian, the only one that ſpeaks of it, though he leaves its value and metal unexplained. The journal of the ſieur Lange to the court of China in 1721, ſays, the Chineſe weights are divided into *laen*, *tzin*, and *fun*, of which ten tzins make a laen, and ten *funs* a tzin. A laen of China has ſomething more in ſilver than the Ruſſian rouble. Sixteen laens make one gin, which a little exceeds the Dutch pound of ſixteen ounces. Four *funs* make near thirty zſchoſſes, or tiziins, a ſmall braſs coin. One laen of the fineſt ſilver is, according to its juſt value, worth a thouſand zſchoſſes. The price of this money is commonly ſo ſubject to vary, that it regularly riſes and falls weekly; and from what is ſaid above, we may reaſonably conclude that the laen is the ſame, as is called by ſome the leam, explained to be a piece of ſilver paſſing by weight, and called by the Portugueze, tael.

FUNDS. This is a term adopted by the monied men, and thoſe who ſpeak of the public revenue of nations, to ſignify the ſeveral taxes that have been laid upon merchandizes, either by way of duties of cuſtom or exciſe, or in any other ſhape, to ſupply the exigencies of the ſtate, and to pay intereſt for what ſums of money it may have occaſion to borrow. Thus we ſay, ſuch a duty, or ſuch a tax, is a good *fund* to anſwer ſuch a purpoſe. The term is alſo applied to the ſtocks of great trading and monied corporations.

The *funds*, or taxes of this kingdom are, to ſpeak in the language of parliament, either temporary or perpetual. Temporary ones are ſuch which are impoſed for a certain number of years, or annually, as the land and the malt-taxes; the perpetual *funds* are ſuch whereon monies have been borrowed for the public ſervice, and which are appropriated for the ſecure and certain payment of the intereſt of ſuch monies, till the diſcharge of the principal ſo borrowed.

The three great wars in the reigns of king William, queen Anne, and his late majeſty, have given being and exiſtence to them; ſo that the more immediate concern of the nation is, what meaſures are eligible to get rid of theſe *tax funds*.

The general *fund* eſtabliſhed for making good deficiencies. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 13. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7.

*Fund* for paying off exchequer-bills. 7 *Ann. cap.* 7. *ſect.* 33.

Surplus of *annuity funds* may be charged with deficiencies of another year. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 29.

The *aggregate fund.* 1 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 12. *ſect.* 8, 15, &c. 3 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 8. Made perpetual. 5 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 3. *ſect.* 22.

The *ſinking fund.* 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 66.

Part of the ſtock of the three companies to be redeemed by the *ſinking fund.* 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 39.

Appropriation of the *ſinking fund.* 8 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 20. *ſect.* 29.

The ſurpluſſes of the *ſinking fund* appropriated. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 34.

Addition to the *aggregate fund.* 1 *Geo.* II. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 17.

Supply to the *aggregate fund.* 20 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 3. *ſect.* 58.

For relief of the legatees of Sir Joſeph Jekyll, out of his legacy to the *ſinking fund.* 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34.

The *ſinking fund* charged with annuities in diſcharge of navy-bills, &c. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23.

Annuities granted out of the *ſinking fund.* 23 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 16.

His majeſty may borrow money on the credit of the land-tax. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 136.

And of the malt-tax. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 25.

Surplus of duties on licences and new ſtamp duties appropriated. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 30.

Certain duties carried to the *ſinking fund.* 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 4.

Annuities granted on the *ſinking fund*, and certain annuities conſolidated. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 18. *See* DEBTS *of the nation.*

FURLONG, is a quantity of ground containing in moſt places forty poles, every pole ſixteen feet and a half in length, eight of which *furlongs* make a mile. A pole is in ſome places called *perch*, and differs in length according to the cuſtom of the country.

FURR, is the coat or covering of a beaſt. The *ſtat.* 24 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13. mentions divers, as *ſable*, which is a rich *furr*, of colour between black and brown, being the ſkin of a beaſt called a *ſable*, of bigneſs like a *pole-cat*, bred in Ruſſia, but the moſt and beſt in Tartary. *Lucernes*, is the ſkin of a beaſt ſo called, being near the bigneſs of a wolf, of colour between red and brown, ſomething mailed like a cat, and mingled with black ſpots, bred in Ruſſia, and is a very rich *furr*. *Genet* is the ſkin of a beaſt ſo called, of bigneſs between a cat and a weazle, mailed like a cat, and of the nature of a cat, bred in Spain, whereof there are two kinds, black and grey, and the black the more precious *furr*, having black ſpots upon it hardly to be ſeen. *Foines* are much like the ſable, bred in France for the moſt part; the top of the *furr* is black, and the ground whitiſh. *Marten*, is a beaſt very like the ſable, the ſkin ſomething coarſer; it lives in all countries that are not too cold, as England, Ireland, &c. The beſt in Ireland. *Miniver* is nothing but the bellies of ſquirrels, as ſome ſay, as others, it is a little vermin like unto a weazle, milk-white, and brought from Muſcovy. *Fitch*, is that which we otherwiſe call the *pole-cat* here in England. *Shanks*, are the ſkin of the ſhank, or leg of a kind of kid, which beareth the *furr* we call *budge*. *Calaber*, is a little beaſt about the bigneſs of a ſquirrel, of colour grey, and bred eſpecially in Germany.

*Furrs*, to what duties liable on importation. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2. *See* PLANTATIONS.

FURRIER. The *furriers* cure, dye, and make up ſeveral kinds of furrs or ſkins, with the hair on, into muffs, tippets, the lining of robes, &c. They dye cat-ſkins, and thoſe of rabbits, ſo as to imitate the richeſt and moſt valuable furrs, and make them up and ſell them in various forms, at a much more reaſonable price than they could be ſold for, were they the furrs they ſo nearly reſemble. They keep ſhops, and take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice, who need be poſſeſſed of no

very extraordinary abilities. It is a profitable trade, even when carried on with the ſtricteſt integrity. The journeymen, who dye the cat-ſkins, &c. and make up the articles they ſell, are moſtly foreigners, and can earn from fifteen to twenty ſhillings a week and upwards. A perſon cannot ſet up in a handſome way without money or credit to the amount of five hundred pounds.

FUSTIAN, is a kind of cotton ſtuff, which ſeems as it were quilted or whaled on one ſide. Deceits in the manufacture prohibited. 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 27. Mayor, &c. may ſearch for *fuſtians*. *Stat.* 39 *Eliz. c.* 13.

FUSTIC, a yellow wood growing in the Caribbee Iſlands, particularly Barbadoes and Tobago, uſed by the dyers. The colour it yields is a fine golden yellow; but it is not durable, unleſs ſome other ingredients are mixed with it. Mention is made of it in *ſtat.* 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *See* PLANTATIONS.

# G.



G The fifth conſonant, and ſeventh letter of our Engliſh alphabet, was a numeral letter denoting four hundred, and with a daſh over it, thus $\overline{G}$, ſignified forty thouſand.

GABEL, GAVEL, *or* GABELLE, is a duty upon ſalt, which makes the ſecond article in the French king's revenues, amounting to almoſt the fourth part of the whole. Since Philip de Valois eſtabliſhed granaries and officers of the *gabelles*, and prohibited the ſale of ſalt by the people, the whole commerce of it for inland conſumption has lain in the king's hands by his farmers and officers appointed for that purpoſe.

GAGE, in the ſea language; when a ſhip is to windward of another, ſhe is ſaid to have the weather *gage* of her.

GALACTITES, a ſpecies of indurated clay, is of a very compact firm texture, and of a ſmooth and even ſurface, though leſs gloſſy than that of the *meletites* or *morochthus*, and even ſometimes duſty in ſuch a degree as to ſtain the fingers in handling. The ancients, who left us deſcriptions of it, found it in the rivers of Greece and in the Nile; but at preſent it is met with much nearer us, as in Italy and ſome parts of France. It was one of their great medicines in diſtemperatures of the eyes and eye-lids, particularly in ulcerations of the latter we have had it ground down upon a marble, and mixed with water, in which caſe it makes a fine ſmooth milky liquor, which, in all inflammations of the eye-lids, is equal, if not ſuperior, to all the collyriums we are acquainted with. *Hill.*

GALANGAL is of two ſorts, the greater and the leſſer. The leſſer *galangal* is a knotty, jointed root, brought from China, cut in ſhort pieces, ſcarce an inch long, and not half ſo thick, of a browniſh red coat, pale red colour within, having ſeveral circular rings on the outſide, of a hot, bitteriſh, aromatic, biting taſte, like pepper, and a fragrant, aromatic ſmell.

The roots of both the *galangals*, but particularly of the leſſer, abound with a volatile, oily, aromatic ſalt. The people of the Eaſt-Indies uſe them, when freſh, by way of ſpice, for the ſeaſoning many of their diſhes. With us the leſſer is eſteemed an excellent ſtomachic, and is made an ingredient in almoſt all bitter infuſions and tinctures; it has alſo the credit of being a great cephalic, cardiac, and uterine, but is more rarely uſed in thoſe intentions. It is greatly recommended in vertigoes, and eſpecially when they proceed from crudities in the ſtomach. The greater *galangals* poſſeſs the ſame virtue with the other, but in a leſs degree.

GALBANUM, is a concrete juice, ſaid to exude either naturally from a kind of ferula, or to ooze from wounds made in the plant for this purpoſe. It is a ſemi-pellucid, ſoft, tenacious ſubſtance, between a reſin and a gum, but partaking much more of the nature of the latter than of the former; of a ſtrong, and to ſome, unpleaſant ſmell, and a bitteriſh, warm taſte. The large maſſes of the better ſort are brought from Syria; they are of a whitiſh colour, inclining to yellow; upon opening them, they appear to be compoſed of clear, white tears, and ſhould be choſen free from the impurities of ſand, earth, or vegetable matters. There is another ſort, of a darker colour brought from the Eaſt-Indies, which is not near ſo good as the former. Geoffroy relates, that a dark greeniſh oil is to be obtained from this ſimple by diſtillation, which, upon repeated rectifications, becomes of an elegant ſky-blue colour. The purer ſorts of *galbanum* are ſaid by ſome to diſſolve intirely in wine, vinegar, and water; but theſe liquors are only partial menſtrua with regard to this juice; nor does ſpirit of wine, or oil, prove more effectual in this reſpect: the beſt diſſolvent is a mixture of two parts of ſpirit of wine, and one of water.

The virtues of this drug in medicine are very conſiderable; it attenuates and diſſolves tough phlegm, and therefore is of ſervice in aſthmas, and in inveterate coughs. It alſo diſſipates flatulencies, and is of great ſervice in hyſteric complaints, promoting the menſes, and facilitating delivery, and the expulſion of the ſecundines. It is alſo uſed externally in form of a plaiſter applied to the belly, againſt habitual hyſteric complaints; and is an ingredient in many of the ſhop compoſitions.

GALEASSE, a large, low built veſſel, among the Venetians, that uſes ſails and oars. It carries guns, bearing balls from ten to thirty-two pounds. It has a main-maſt, mizzen, and bowſprit, which are never lowered, as in gallies. Theſe veſſels have thirty-two benches of rowers under cover, and ſix or ſeven rowers to each, with three batteries on the prow, the one above the other, of two pieces of cannon each; and two on the poop, each conſiſting of three eighteen pounders. The number of hands is from a thouſand to twelve hundred. They are always com-

commanded by noblemen of Venice, who ſwear, at the riſk of their heads, never to refuſe fighting againſt twenty-five of the enemy's galleys.

GALICIA. This kingdom in Spain is waſhed on the weſt by the ocean; on the north by the Cantabrian-Sea, or Bay of Biſcay; on the eaſt it borders upon Aſturias and Leon; and on the ſouth upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the ſea by the river Minho. This ſmall kingdom produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of cattle, eſpecially hogs, whoſe bacon far exceeds that of Weſtphalia; ſtrong mules, good horſes, though not large; but it is moſt famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. It has, beſides, plenty of firing, and of timber for building houſes and ſhips, with quarries of fine marble, and ſome flax, of which a pretty good ſort of linen is made.

*Corunna* in this province, called by our ſeamen the Groyne, is a famed ancient ſea-port, on the Bay of Biſcay. By its ſituation it is well fenced againſt the winds, and againſt the enemy, by two ſtrong caſtles. It ſtands between the two famed promontorics of Finiſterre and Ortegal, and is wealthy, being a place of conſiderable trade.

GALLEONS. The Spaniſh fleet, which is called the *galleons*, conſiſts of eight men of war of five hundred tons each, deſigned principally to ſupply Peru with military ſtores; but in reality laden, not only with thoſe, but with every other kind of merchandize on a private account, ſo as to be in too weak a condition either to defend themſelves, or protect others. Under the convoy of theſe are twelve ſail of merchant ſhips, not inferior to the *galleons* in burden. This fleet of the *galleons* is regulated in much the ſame manner with the *flota*, and is deſtined for the excluſive commerce of Terra Firma, and the South-Sea, as the *flota* is for that of Mexico. *See* FLOTA.

As ſoon as this *galleon fleet* arrives at Carthagena, expreſſes are diſpatched to Porto-Bello, and to all the adjacent towns, but particularly to Panama, that they may get ready all the treaſure which is depoſited there, to meet the *galleons* at Porto-Bello; at which place all the perſons concerned in the various branches of this extenſive trade, aſſemble. There is no part of the world, where buſineſs of ſuch great importance is negociated in ſo ſhort a time; for ſometimes in a fortnight the fair is over. During the fair, heaps of wedges and ingots of ſilver are thrown about upon the wharfs, as things of no value. The diſplay of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones on one hand, and of the various and rare workmanſhip of the ſeveral ingenious fabrics of Europe on the other, are truly aſtoniſhing. *See* PORTO-BELLO, and PRIVATEERS.

*Acapulco* GALLEON. The whole trade between the Eaſt-Indies and Spaniſh America, is carried on by one great *galleon*, which arrives at *Acapulco* on the South-Sea, from the Philippine Iſlands, in the month of December. They ſee no other land in their whole voyage of three thouſand leagues, which they perform in five months, than the Little Ladrones. The ſhip is laden with all the rich commodities of the Eaſt, as cloves, pepper, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, china, japan wares, callicoes plain and painted, muſlins of every ſort, ſilks, precious ſtones, rich drugs, and gold duſt. At the ſame time the rich ſhip from Lima comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver (450,000 l. ſterling.) Several other ſhips, from the different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion; and beſides the traffic for the Philippine commodities, this cauſes a very large dealing for every thing which thoſe countries have to exchange with one another, as well as for the purchaſe of all ſorts of European goods. The fair at Acapulco laſts ſometimes for thirty days. As ſoon as the goods are diſpoſed of, the *galleon* prepares to ſet out on her voyage to the Philippines with her returns, chiefly in ſilver, but with ſome European goods too, and ſome other commodities of America. We ſpeak here, as though there were but one veſſel on the trade with the Philippines; and in fact there is only nominally one trading veſſel, the *galleon* itſelf, of about twelve hundred tons; but another attends her commonly as a ſort of convoy, which generally carries ſuch a quantity of goods, as in a great meaſure diſables her from performing that office. The *galleon* has often a thouſand people on board, either intereſted in the cargo, or merely paſſengers; and there is no trade in which ſo large profits are made; the captain of the veſſel, the pilots, the mates, and even the common ſailors, making, in one voyage, what in their ſeveral ranks may be conſidered as eaſy fortunes. It is ſaid by the writer of Lord Anſon's voyage, that the Jeſuits have the profits of this ſhip to ſupport their miſſions. *See* ACAPULCO.

GALLEY, a low built veſſel, carrying between twenty-five and thirty benches of oars, and between four and ſix rowers to each oar. It carries ſome large cannon called *courſier*, and four of a ſmaller ſize, two maſts, and two ſquare ſails. A *galley* is uſually about twenty-two fathoms long, three broad, and one deep. It goes with ſails and oars, and generally cloſe to land; though ſometimes it croſſes the ſeas.

The king of France keeps up between thirty and forty *galleys* for the Mediterranean, and the ſafe-guard of his coaſts, of which there is a captain-general, called the captain's *galley*, or royal *galley*. The ſecond *galley* of France, Tuſcany, and Malta, is called *patroon-galley*.

GALLIOT, a little galley, very light and proper for giving chace, with only one maſt, and two or three little pieces called *pierriers* or pateraroes. It has uſually between fifteen and twenty benches of oars, and one man to each oar. The ſailors on occaſion are ſoldiers, quitting their oars to take up the muſket. Theſe veſſels are common in the Mediterranean.

GALLO, a ſilver money of the kingdom of Camboya, in the Eaſt-Indies, weighing one mace, five condorins Chineſe. Its ſtandard was once eighty tocques, but in the year 1718 was fell to ſixty.

GALLON, an Engliſh meaſure both for dry and liquid things: it contains two pottles or four quarts, equivalent to eight pints. Theſe meaſures differ according to the quality of the things meaſured; for the wine *gallon* contains two hundred and thirty-one cubic inches, and holds eight pounds avoirdupoiſe of clear water; the beer and ale *gallons* two hundred and eighty-two cubic inches; ſo that the ratio of the beer and wine *gallon* is as four to five, four of the former making five of the latter; and the *gallon* for grain, meal, &c. called the Wincheſter *gallon*, two hundred and ſeventy-two inches and a quarter, and holds nine pounds thirteen ounces pure water.

GALLOON, a thick and narrow kind of ferret or lace, made of wool, ſometimes of thread, and even of gold and ſilver: it is uſed as an edging and ornament upon cloaths, particularly thoſe for livery-ſervants.

GALLS, are a kind of preternatural and accidental tumours, produced by the punctures of inſects, on the oaks of ſeveral ſpecies. Other trees are liable to the ſame accident, and produce *galls* of various forms and ſizes, but thoſe of the oak only are uſed in medicine and for the purpoſes of dying.

We have two kinds of *galls* in the ſhops, diſtinguiſhed, according to the part of the world whence they are brought, into Oriental and European.

What are called the Oriental *galls* are brought from Aleppo: they are of the bigneſs of a large nutmeg, not of its oblong figure, but round, and have uſually a conſiderable number of tubercles riſing on their ſurface, broad at the baſe, and terminating in a point; they are of a very firm and ſolid texture, hard to break, very heavy, and of a whitiſh and pale brown, a bluiſh, and ſometimes of a blackiſh colour; when broken, they are ſomewhat paler-coloured uſually than on the ſurface, and are of a denſe and compact texture, reſinous, and of an acerb and very aſtringent taſte, not at all agreeable.

The European *galls*, as thoſe of France and Italy, are more perfectly round than the Aleppo ones; they are of the ſame ſize, and have perfectly ſmooth ſurfaces, without any protuberances; they are of a pale whitiſh or browniſh colour, very light, eaſily broken, and often ſpungy and cavernous within, always of a lax texture; they are of a much leſs auſtere taſte, and of much leſs value, both in the manufactures and medicine.

*Galls* put in a very ſmall quantity into a ſolution of vitriol in water, though but a very weak one, give it a purple or violet colour; which, as it grows ſtronger, becomes black, and on this depends our writing-ink, as alſo a great deal of the art of dying and dreſſing leather, and many other of the manufactures.

In medicine *galls* are found to be very aſtringent, and good, under proper management, in diarrhæas, dyſenteries, and hæmorrhages of all kinds. They have alſo a very eminent virtue as a febrifuge: half a drachm, or more, of the powder of Aleppo *galls*, may be given for a doſe, and will often cure an intermittent. They are alſo uſed externally as a ſtrengthener and aſtringent; a decoction of them is applied with ſucceſs, by way of fomentation, in *procidentiæ* of the anus, and has been injected in the *fluor albus*, with very great ſucceſs.

GAMBOGE is a hard, concrete juice, brought to us from the Eaſt-Indies, in large cakes or rolls. The beſt ſort is of a deep yellow or orange colour, breaks ſhining, and free from droſs: it has no ſmell, and very little taſte, unleſs kept in the mouth for ſome time, when it impreſſes a ſlight ſenſe of acrimony. *Gamboge* readily takes fire, and burns in a bright flame, at the ſame time emitting a copious ſmoke. It immediately communicates to ſpirit of wine a bright golden colour, and almoſt intirely diſſolves in it, Geoffroy ſays except the ſixth part. Boiled with water, it flows into a turbid, yellowiſh liquor, but ſoon almoſt intirely precipitates, leaving the liquor colourleſs. Alcaline ſalts enable water to act upon this ſubſtance powerfully as a menſtruum: the ſolution made by their means is ſomewhat tranſparent, of a deep blood colour, and paſſes the filter. The ſweet ſpirit of ſal ammoniac readily and intirely diſſolves *gamboge*, and takes up a conſiderable quantity of it if pure: and what is pretty remarkable, this ſolution mixes either with water or ſpirit, without growing turbid. *Gamboge* is a moſt violent purgative: Hoffman, and ſome others, condemn it as an unſafe medicine, while others are of a contrary opinion, and greatly commend its uſe. Geoffroy ſays, that ſuch as know how to time and exhibit this medicine, find great conveniency and advantage in its uſe, as it has no ſmell, and very little taſte; its doſe is exceeding ſmall, rarely amounting to ten grains; its operation quick and powerful, though not violent, evacuating viſcid tenacious juices both upwards and downwards. It wants no corrector, if given in a liquid form, and ſufficiently diluted. Taken in a bolus or pill, it is apt to prove emetic; but very rarely has this effect, if joined along with *mercurius dulcis*.

GAMERON, GAMRON, *or* GOMBROWN, the port of all Perſia, and perhaps of all Aſia, where the greateſt trade is tranſacted, was quite diſregarded, till the Portugueze were driven out of Ormus; as before that occurrence, this was only a ſmall village, with about fifty miſerable huts, where the Portugueze, however, kept twenty-five or thirty armed barks, on account of the goodneſs of its port, and to maintain their own commerce, and hinder that of others.

Cha-Abas fortified the port, and began to build the city, and by privileges and immunities drew trade here, changing its name, and calling it after his own. This port is open to all nations, except the Spaniards and Portugueze; and here are ſeen, Perſians, Arabians, Indians, Banians, Armenians, Turks, Jews, Tartars, Moors, Engliſh, French, and Dutch.

The trading time is from the month of October (when the great heats are over) to the month of May (when they recommence); and at this ſeaſon the ſhips of all the Europeans eſtabliſhed in India arrive, and many others appertaining to Indians and Moors; and by land at a fixed day, are ſeen coming in here, divers caravans of merchants, from Iſpahan, Schiras, Laon, Aleppo, Bagdat, Herat, Baſſora, &c.

The Engliſh began their trade to Perſia in 1613, and were ſo much the better received, as the Grand Abas then formed the deſign of engaging their aſſiſtance to diſlodge the Portugueze from Ormus and other parts, and for that purpoſe entered into a treaty with our countrymen, that intitled them to many privileges, which have however been very ill obſerved; for as ſoon as the Perſian monarch had his turn ſerved, he forgot or rather ſlighted his engagements; and though he ſtill continued to prefer the Engliſh, it was not in the manner, nor to the degree, as was promiſed, or their ſervices deſerved.

They now carry to Perſia ſilver, a large quantity of cloth, pewter, ſteel, indigo, ſilk ſtuffs, and the fineſt and moſt beautiful Indian cottons.

The Dutch cargoes conſiſt of Spaniſh dollars, and rix dollars, goods that they receive from Europe, and what they collect from their different ſettlements in India, but above all, ſpices, with which they ſupply all Perſia; ſiampan, anis, and ſantal woods, ginger, indigo, vermillion, incenſe, benzoin, quickſilver, lead, pewter, copper, coloured cloths and linens.

The Indian, Arabian, and Mooriſh veſſels are loaden with the products and manufactures of their countries; and the goods that come by the caravans conſiſt in various gold and ſilver ſtuffs, velvets, taffeties, porcelain, feathers, Morocco leather, wool, brocades, carpets, Turkey camblets, and other ſlighter ones from Arabia, medicinal drugs, dragons blood, manna, myrrh, incenſe, raiſins, dates, Barcun horſes, but particularly in raw ſilk, which is the greateſt article in the Perſian trade: here are alſo found turquoiſes and pearls; for the fiſhery of which latter in the Perſic gulph, *ſee* BAHAREM.

All nations trading to *Gamron* have their houſes and magazines here; thoſe of the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have more the air of palaces than merchants offices and habitations, and are ſeated along the ſea-ſide, which is very convenient for the loading and unloading of their ſhips, as they arrive.

Perſia has ſtill ſome other ports in its gulph, but much leſs conſiderable than *Bender-Abaſſi*, which has attracted almoſt all the commerce of theſe parts.

*Congre*, or as ſome call it *Bender-Congo*, or *Bender-Erric*, is alſo in ſome reputation, and ſtrangers ſend their ſhips, or conduct their caravans here; the chief trade is however in pearls, and boles for dyeing and painting green and red, which are gathered from little hills of theſe colours in a mountain a few leagues from the city, called by the natives Chiampa.

GANTAN, a weight uſed at Bantam in the iſle of Java, and ſome other parts of the Eaſt-Indies, weighing near three Dutch pounds: it is alſo a meaſure for pepper, containing exactly three pounds. *See* BARUTH. Nic. de Graaf ſays, that the inhabitants of Batavia call the meaſure they uſe for rice, *ganting*, containing near fourteen pounds weight, and though the names are very much alike, their contents greatly differ. *See* HALI.

GANZAS, *or* GAUZAS, is a money made of copper and pewter by private perſons in the kingdom of Pegu, and not in the royal mints. The value of theſe are not fixed, but riſe and fall, according to the times of payment, for the goods of the country, though they are commonly worth between two and three French ſous.

GARBLER *of ſpices*, (mentioned in *ſtat.* 21 *Jac. c.* 12.) is an officer of great antiquity in the city of London, who may enter into any ſhop, warehouſe, &c. to view and ſearch drugs, ſpices, &c. and to *garble* the ſame, and make them clean.

GARDENER. This is a healthful, laborious, ingenious, and profitable buſineſs; but common gardening alone requires no great learning to qualify a young man to become apprentice to it. There are a vaſt number of *gardeners* round London, whoſe ſkill chiefly conſiſts in the laying out their grounds to the beſt advantage, and in bringing the beſt and moſt early produce of the kitchen-garden to market. The youth, who is apprentice to this moſt ancient profeſſion, may reap great improvement from ſtudying the works of Bradley, Miller, and other authors on this ſubject; which will be of uſe to every ſpecies of *gardeners*.

There is another claſs of *gardeners*, called *nurſery-men*, who make it their chief buſineſs to produce all ſorts of fruit-trees, and particularly the beſt and moſt valuable foreign fruits; as the ananas, or pine-apple; they alſo produce ever-greens, the moſt beautiful and ornamental trees, ſhrubs, and flowers. Theſe are alſo deſigners and draughtſmen, and ſurveyors. They ſell their productions to noblemen and gentlemen, by whom they are alſo employed in the profitable buſineſs of drawing plans, laying out ground, and directing plantations. Theſe ought to have a much more liberal education. They ſhould early learn the uſeful arts of drawing, and the rules of perſpective, and be particularly expert in drawing trees and landſcapes; they ſhould alſo learn ſurveying.

There are a few *gardeners* chiefly employed in the production of herbs, plants, ſeeds, &c. for medicinal uſes; and it will be of great advantage to the boy, who is to be



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put apprentice to one of these, to study botany; which will not only perfect him in his business, but prevent his making mistakes that may prove fatal to his customers.

The *gardeners* take five or ten pounds with an apprentice, who ought to be a strong lusty lad, capable of bearing all weathers; but the journeymen, who work in the kitchen garden, have seldom more than ten shillings a week; but one regularly bred to the nursery part may have half a crown a day.

Divers persons having of late years wilfully and maliciously cut down, barked, or otherwise destroyed, timber-trees, to the great detriment of the owners, and to the discouragement of planting in general, so beneficial to Great-Britain; and many evil disposed persons having frequently entered into nurseries, gardens, &c. and carried away roots, shrubs, and plants, and destroyed others on the spot, which nursery-men, gardeners, &c. had collected and cultivated at great expence, supporting themselves and many others of his majesty's subjects by importing from, and exporting the same to, other countries; it is therefore enacted by 6 *Geo.* III. that, from and after the second day of June, 1766, the penalty on cutting down, spoiling, carrying away, &c. in the night-time, any oak or other timber-trees; or roots, shrubs, or plants, of five shillings value, in any garden, nursery, or inclosed ground, is felony.

The court is impowered to transport the offender for seven years; and aiders and abettors therein, and persons who shall buy or receive such roots, shrubs, or plants, knowing the same to be stolen, are liable to like punishment as if they had stolen the same. *See* TIMBER.

GARI, a sort of an imaginary specie, or rather the denomination of a sum, used in many parts of the East-Indies, and particularly in the dominions of the great Mogul: one *Gari* of roupies is worth near four thousand roupies.

GARNET. *See* GRANATUS.

GASCONY, the most south-west principality of France, is bordered on the east by Armagnac; on the north by Bazadois; on the west by part of the sea of Biscay; and by Bearn on the south. It consists of the territories of Landes, Chalosse, and Turfan.

*Dax*, or *Acqs*, the capital city of Landes, drives a good trade, by means of the river, which falls into the ocean about nine leagues below it, and its neighbourhood to Spain. *St. Sever* is reckoned the capital city of Gascony. They trade here in wine, which they send to Dax and Bayonne.

GATE *and* PALISADE-SMITH. The boy, who has a taste for this business, ought not only to have great strength of body, but a solid and masterly genius; which he should early improve, by learning to draw. While he is an apprentice, he must learn to adorn gates with foliage and a kind of chased work, and to display a bold fancy in the disposition of the scrolls: order, variety, and uniformity must appear in all the parts; and the whole have an air of grandeur suitable to the dignity of the owner. The balusters of stair-cases must be done in taste, and neither crowded with ornaments, nor too bare; they ought to appear of a piece with every thing about them; and should not be charged with any thing that would not discover a visible defect if taken away. Those of this ingenious branch of the smith's business take about ten pounds with an apprentice, who works from six to eight; and with five hundred pounds may set up master, when his time is expired.

GAUGER, signifies an officer of the king's, appointed to examine all tuns, pipes, hogsheads, barrels, and tertias of wine, beer, ale, oil, honey, butter, and give them a mark of allowance, before they are sold in any place. And because this mark is a circle, made with an iron instrument for that purpose, it seems that from thence he taketh his name.

*Gauger* also signifies an officer appointed by the commissioners of excise, to measure or gauge all casks, tuns, &c. of beer, wine, cyder, &c. in order to the levying a certain duty on these commodities, granted to the king.

All wines brought to be sold shall be gauged by the king's *gauger*. 27 *Edw.* III. *stat.* 1. *c.* 8. 31 *Edw.* III. *stat.* 1. *c.* 5. 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 13.

Vessels of wine, vinegar, oil, honey, &c. shall be gauged. 4 *Rich.* II. *c.* 1. 18 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 17. Rhenish wine exempt. 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 8.

The contents of pipes, hogsheads, &c. of wine and fish. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 11.

The *gauger* shall at all times be ready to do his duty. 23 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 15.

The contents of barrels of salmon, herring, and eels. 22 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 2.

The contents of vessels of wine and oil. 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 13. Vessels to be marked. 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14.

Vessels brought from beyond sea, and used for utterance of ale and beer, shall be gauged. 31 *Eliz.* *c.* 8.

The wardens of the coopers shall attend to gauge vessels upon request. 23 *Hen.* VIII. *cap.* 4. 31 *Eliz.* *cap.* 8. *sect.* 3.

*Gaugers* may take samples not exceeding half a pint. 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29.

GAWZE, a very thin slight kind of stuff, made of silk, &c. We have *gawzes* chiefly brought from China with gold and silver flowers on a silk ground.

GAZANA, *or* GASAVA, is a silver coin, and one of the roupees current in the great Mogul's territories, particularly at Amadabath, worth one livre and a half Tournois.

GAZE, a small copper money made and passing in Persia, worth near two French liards; some confound this with the kabesqui, and others esteem it the demi-kabesqui, or Persian liard.

GE, *or* JE, a long measure in the empire of the great Mogul, though it is not real but imaginary, and comes to about thirty-four Dutch aunes and a half.

GEDER, a measure of continence, used by the Indians for their grain: it contains near four pounds (of sixteen ounces) weight of pepper.

GELDERLAND, comprehending Zutphen, is a province of the United Neitherlands, bounded by the Zuider-Sea, and by the principality of Overyssel on the north; by Westphalia on the east; by Brabant and Prussian Gelderland on the south; and by the province of Utrecht on the west. *Nimeguen* on the river Waal, in this province, is a large city: its inhabitants are addicted to trade, and make great profit by brewing of beer and feeding of cattle. The chief riches of the inhabitants of *Wageningen*, situate on the Rhine, arise from their cattle and the tobacco trade. In the neighbourhood of *Hardewyk*, which stands on the banks of the Zuider-Sea, they have in the woods such plenty of blue berries, in the season, which continues but six weeks, that the very freight of what they sell at Amsterdam, where they are much esteemed, amounts to four hundred crowns.

GEM, the common appellation given to precious stones or jewels; the chiefs of these are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, emerald, turquoise, opal, agate, pearl, crystal, &c. *See* each under its proper article.

*Sal* GEMMÆ, particularly denotes rock salt; it is called *gemma*, on account of its brilliancy, resembling that of crystal. The chief mines of this salt are those of Wilisca in Poland, Eperie in Upper Hungary, and Cardonna in Catalonia.

Its use is chiefly for pickling, where there are no salt springs, &c.

GENEVA. This city is celebrated for its antiquity, for its advantageous situation, for the number of its inhabitants, and particularly for its great trade, which however was yet much more considerable before the removal of its fairs to Lyons. It is seated in one of the delightfullest countries of Europe, at the extremity of the lake bearing its name; which facilitates a commerce the industry of its inhabitants has rendered very extensive. In respect of its interior part, this city may, with proper limitations, be regarded as one of the store-houses of France, a part of Germany, Switzerland, Piedmont, and Italy, which countries it supplies with all sorts of linens, muslins, chints, drugs, spice, English, French, and Dutch cloths, porcelanes, tea, hard-ware from Germany and Foreſt, scythes, sickles, iron and lattin wire, gold and silver galloons and laces, stockings, hats, jewels true and false, all sorts of clock-work, variety of files, steel of its own growth and from Germany, tin, wrought copper, and books on all subjects.

Independent of which traffic, the diligent inhabitants have carried it to the moſt remote countries, by intereſting themſelves in voyages to America, and the iſles; but we ſhall add a ſhort detail of what we have ſaid above of their products and manufactures, as due to a city numbered among the moſt celebrated ones of Europe.

Its territories, though they are not the moſt fertile, do nevertheleſs yield excellent corn, and wine both white and red of a good quality; it has alſo paſtures ſufficient for the breeding and ſupport of its cattle, and the Rhone furniſhes it with trout, of which ſome of above thirty pounds weight are exported, and carried even as far as Paris.

Horologery is, however, the moſt conſiderable manufacture, which alone eaſily ſubſiſts near a quarter part of the men, women, and children dwelling here, who are all profitably employed in the different branches of this art, and have brought it to ſuch perfection, as to yield only to England therein.

Gilding is alſo in a flouriſhing condition here, where ſilver wire is drawn gilt, as alſo with the deceitful appearance of its being ſo made only by ſmoking; gold and ſilver galloons, and laces are made of all ſorts and qualities, with embroideries of ſilk in variety of ſhades and colours, all which are ſent into Germany, Italy, Portugal, Spain, and from thence to the Indies.

Another very conſiderable fabric is that of painted linens, in imitation of thoſe performed by the Engliſh and Dutch; which for beauty of deſign, and vivacity of colours, are only inferior to thoſe of the ſaid two nations.

The bibliothecal and printing buſineſs is alſo very great here, and a material object of trade, as the liberty of the preſs extends to all ſorts of works, provided they contain nothing againſt religion in general, princes, and good morals; ſo that no objection is made againſt printing the writings of the Romaniſts againſt Proteſtantiſm, but it is performed with the greateſt exactneſs and fidelity; and beſides the books printed here, the libraries are aſſorted with all thoſe that daily appear in France, Italy, Holland, and Germany.

There is no place of its ſize, where more jewels are compoſed, both true and falſe, than here; and in general there reigns in this ſort of work ſo good a taſte, that the trade which it attracts cannot but engage the ingenious artiſt to maintain the reputation he has already acquired.

The fabric of ſilk ſtockings goes on improving, and is got into ſome reputation, as is that of velvets; and we ſhould do injuſtice to the arts, and thoſe who exerciſe them, ſhould we paſs them over in ſilence, as here are machiniſts, engravers, deſigners, and mathematical inſtrument makers, who practiſe all theſe employs with ſucceſs and credit; not forgetting thoſe celebrated medalliſts, Meſſrs. Daſſier, who will tranſmit to lateſt poſterity, the delicacy and grandeur of their excellent *burin*.

We ſhall finiſh this article with the deſcription of two manufactures lately eſtabliſhed in the country of Dardagny, dependent on the ſovereignty of Geneva; of which the firſt is a fabric of ſteel in bars of any ſize, that equals in quality moſt others made elſewhere, and which has for offſpring a manufacture of files and raſps of all ſorts and ſizes.

The other is a fabric of copper, producing all aſſortments that can be deſired in this commodity, ſuch as bands, cups of all ſizes, plates, chaldrons, and an alloy of metals for all uſes, and this on cheaper terms than elſewhere.

The correſpondence between the merchants of this city and thoſe of Marſeilles and Amſterdam, and the little way there is by land, for the tranſportation of their goods to the Rhine and Rhone, facilitates that of the two ſeas; ſo that there is hardly a place, howſoever diſtant, where the other nations of Europe ſend their ſhips, that ſome of the Genevans are not ſeen as partners, or principals in the voyage.

GENEVA, vulgarly called GIN, is a kind of compound ſpirit, ſo denominated, as being drawn partly from juniper berries, malt, &c. It is a liquor common in England, Holland, &c. *See* ARRACK, and JUNIPER.

GENOA. This republic, for a long time, diſputed with that of Venice the empire of the Mediterranean Sea, and the trade of the Levant; but after the celebrated victory of Chiozza, they ceaſed to rival the Venetians, after they had done ſo for near three hundred years: it is, however, certain, that they now only yield the ſuperiority in the Levant trade to their ancient competitors, as theirs is ſuppoſed to be conſiderably greater to the reſt of Europe, and more eſpecially to Spain; and it is beſides by Genoa, that foreigners carry on all their trade with Lombardy.

Raw ſilks, and in ſkains, which the Genoeſe get from Meſſina, and other ports of Sicily, and the fine rich ſilks they make in their capital, occaſion a conſiderable trade, and they ſee an annual import of ſhips, hardly credible, who all take ſomething of their manufactures. It is true, at preſent, and for ſome time paſt, the buſineſs of their city has not been ſo briſk as uſual, chiefly owing to their ill judged engagements in the late embroils of Europe, which has ruined their bank, and conſequently, for the preſent, deſtroyed public credit among them; but as it is to be hoped they will find ſome means to re-eſtabliſh it, and as trade will naturally revive whenever this is done, we ſhall deſcribe it as it has been, with our beſt wiſhes that, Phœnix like, it may riſe out of its own aſhes.

The fabrics here are plain and flowered velvets, and ſome with gold and ſilver grounds; damaſks, ſattins, tabbies, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and many other ſorts of ſilks, both plain and flowered; here are likewiſe oil, olives, dry ſweetmeats, ſilk ſtockings, gloves, breeches and waiſtcoats, ribbons, galloons, paper, ſoap, rice, figs, almonds, anchovies, marble, lemons, ſcented oil and perfumes, tartar, Parmeſan cheeſe, red coral, coffee, cotton, and all dying and medicinal drugs, that come from the Levant.

At preſent the Genoeſe trade to Smyrna is but trifling: however, they always keep a conſul there.

In the flouriſhing æra of this republic, it was miſtreſs of ſeveral iſles in the Archipelago, and poſſeſſed many cities and towns on the coaſt of Greece, and the Black Sea; Pera, one of the ſuburbs of Conſtantinople, was once under their dominion, which facilitated the carrying on a great trade in the Levant.

The decline of their power, and the loſs of ſo many ſtates, occaſioned the ruin of their commerce in thoſe of the grand ſeignior, and there is rarely ſeen to appear any under their colours now.

When foreign ſhips arrive at Genoa, (which is one of the fineſt ports in Italy) they depoſite their goods in a great warehouſe called Porto Franco, becauſe the merchandize brought in to be ſold, as well as that to be exported, pay no duties at coming in, or going out; the merchants only paying at the cuſtom-houſe in proportion to the ſales they make, and it is permitted them to reimbark whatever remains unſold, without any impoſition. *See under the head* ARTICLES, the plan of an inſurance company, formed at *Genoa:* alſo *ſee* CORSICA.

GENTIAN, in pharmacy, is a large and long root, of a tolerably firm texture, and remarkably tough: it is brought to us of various ſizes; the moſt frequent is about ſix or eight inches in length, and an inch or ſomewhat more in diameter, but we ſometimes ſee it ſixteen or eighteen inches long, and the thickneſs of a child's arm. It grows gradually ſmaller from the top downwards, but ſeldom runs ſingle to any great length, more frequently dividing into two or more large branches.

It is naturally of a rough, corrugated, wrinkled ſurface; of a duſky browniſh colour on the outſide, but of a very bright and clear yellow within; it is very difficultly reduced to powder, unleſs thoroughly dried firſt; it has a faintiſh and ſomewhat diſagreeable ſmell, and an extremely bitter taſte.

*Gentian* is too cheap to make it worth while for any body to adulterate it, and too bitter to ſuffer any other root to be impoſed on people in its place. There is indeed one root in the world which unhappily very much reſembles it, and which we have not long ſince been threatened with very bad effects from, as it was caſually mixed among ſome parcels of *gentian*. This is the root of the *thora valdenſis*, or *thora cyclaminis folio* of John Bauhine; it much reſembles the ſmaller roots of *gentian*, but is, when nicely examined, of a darker colour on the outſide, and wants the yellowneſs of the *gentian* within; it is more friable, and is of a remarkably viroſe ſmell. This root has been always

always eſteemed, and probably with juſtice enough, a poiſon. There was unluckily a quantity of it mixed among the *gentian* ſent from Hamburgh ſome years ago, and many very bad accidents attended the infuſions made with the roots among which it was; but happily the miſchief was ſtopped by a diſcovery of a falſe root among the *gentian*: though the unacquaintance of the world in general with theſe ſubjects left them in the dark, as to what that root was.

*Gentian* is brought to us from Germany, where in many places it is cultivated for uſe, as liquorice is in England: it is frequently wild on the Alps and Pyrenæan mountains, and in ſeveral parts of France and Italy.

It is one of the beſt and moſt valuable ſtomachic bitters that the *materia medica* affords us. It procures an appetite, and greatly aſſiſts digeſtion. This is the intention in which it is principally uſed in the preſent practice; but, if we will credit authors, this is one of the leaſt of its good qualities: they have recommended it to us as a febrifuge and an alexipharmic, and as the moſt certain of all remedies for the madneſs from the bite of a mad dog. It is not only recommended internally, but externally alſo; on this occaſion a cataplaſm made of Venice treacle and the powder of this root being ordered to be applied to the wound. It is ſaid to be as certain a remedy as the bark for agues, and even to be one of the beſt known medicines againſt the plague; our ſurgeons ſometimes uſe a piece of it by way of a tent, when they would dilate gradually the orifice of a wound.

*Gentian* is an ingredient in the bitter infuſion and tincture of the London and moſt other diſpenſatories. The only ſimple preparation of it in uſe, is the *extract*, made in the following manner:

Take a pound of good ſound *gentian root*, cut it into thin ſlices, and pour upon it, in a mattraſs, two quarts of water; keep it in a ſand-heat, under the degree of boiling, for twelve hours, often ſhaking it; then ſtrain off the clear liquor, and filter it through paper, after which evaporate it in the ſame ſand-heat to the conſiſtence of thick honey.

GEOGRAPHY is that part of mixt mathematics, which explains the ſtate of the earth and its parts. We ſhall here, as beſt adapted to our purpoſe, conſider it in a new light, particularly with a view to future diſcoveries.

The ſurface of our earth is not, like that of the planet Jupiter, divided alternately by belts, and parallels to the equator, but from pole to pole by two tracts of land and two of ſea. The principal tract is the old continent, whoſe greateſt length is found by meaſuring in diagonal, from the eaſternmoſt point of North Tartary, along the borders of the Linchidolen gulph, where the Ruſſians have a whale-fiſhery, to Tobolſki; from thence acroſs the Caſpian and Red Seas to Monœmuigi and the empire of Monomotopa, and from thence to the Cape of Good Hope. This line, the longeſt that can be meaſured on the old continent, is about ten thouſand eight hundred miles, and is no where interupted, except by the Caſpian and Red Seas, whoſe extent are very inconſiderable in an enquiry which includes the whole ſurface of the globe as divided into four parts.

This extraordinary length could neither be obtained by meaſuring in meridians, nor by lines parallel, nor nearly ſo, to the equator. The longeſt on the former plan, from Cape North in Lapland, to the Cape of Good Hope in Africa, is only about 7500 miles; and on the latter plan, from Breſt in Brittany to the eaſternmoſt coaſt of Cochinchina, about 6900 miles: whence, it is evident to demonſtration, that the greateſt length of the old continent, from the eaſternmoſt Cape of North Tartary to the Cape of Good Hope, is about 10,800 Engliſh miles.

This line muſt, therefore, be regarded as the middle, or center line, of that tract of land diſtinguiſhed by the name of the old continent, becauſe, in meaſuring the ſurface of the earth on both ſides of this line, the part on the left is found to contain 7,413,278 ſquare miles, and that on the right 7,409,061 ſquare miles, a ſurprizing equality, which is next to a demonſtration that this line is not only the longeſt, but the true middle line of the old continent, which, according to this admeaſurement, contains about 14,822,339 ſquare miles, ſomewhat leſs indeed than a fifth of the ſurface of the whole globe, but yet a vaſt tract of land inclined to the equator in an angle of thirty degrees.

The new continent muſt alſo be regarded as an immenſe tract. Its greateſt length ſhould be taken from the mouth of the river Plata to that ſwampy country, which lies beyond the lake of Aſſinoboils. The line of admeaſurement ſtretches from la Plata to the lake Caracares, from thence through the country of the Mataquais and Chiriguanis, to Pocono, Zongo, and Zamas; from thence to St. Fe and Carthagena, through the gulph of Mexico, croſſing Jamaica, Cuba, and the peninſula of Florida, to the Apalachian mountains; from thence to Fort-Louis in Louiſiana, and laſtly to the people that dwell beyond the lake of Aſſinoboils, where it terminates in land not yet diſcovered.

This line, which is interrupted only by the gulph of Mexico, a kind of Mediterranean Sea, is in length about 7,500 Engliſh miles, dividing the new continent into two equal parts, of which that on the left contains about 3,207,158 ſquare miles; and that on the right 3,212,778 ſquare miles. This continent, like the other, is inclined to the equator in an angle of thirty degrees, but in an oppoſite direction; the old continent ſtretching from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and the new from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt. The ſum of theſe two continents, taken together, amounts to no more than 21,242,979 ſquare miles, not a third of the ſurface of the whole globe, which is computed at ſeventy-five millions of ſquare miles nearly.

It is beſides obſervable, that theſe two lines which traverſe the old and new continents, dividing each into equal parts, both terminate in the ſame degrees of latitude, as well to the north as to the ſouth; and, it is no leſs remarkable, that the two continents lie oppoſed to each other in contrary directions.

It is likewiſe very remarkable, that the countries bordering upon theſe lines, that is, within a moderate diſtance of ſix or ſeven hundred miles on each ſide of them, are more ancient, generally ſpeaking, than thoſe at a greater diſtance. Whoever will take the pains to purſue this idea, may be convinced that Europe, and perhaps China and the eaſtern parts of Tartary, are new countries compared with Arabia the Happy and the Deſert, Perſia, and Georgia, Turcomania, Circaſſia, and the innermoſt parts of Tartary. Thus, in the new continent, the Terra Magellanica, the eaſtern coaſt of Brazil, the country of the Amazons, Guiana, and Canada, are new to Tucumen, Peru, the Terra Firma, Mexico, and Miſſiſſippi. To theſe obſervations may be added, two very ſingular facts; the firſt, that, as the two continents are oppoſed to each other, the old is more extended to the north of the equator than the new; and, on the contrary, the new ſtretches farther to the ſouth than the old: thus, by each having its center, the one in ſixteen or eighteen degrees of north latitude, and the other in ſixteen or eighteen degrees of ſouth latitude, they ſeem both deſigned by providence as a counterpoize to each other. The ſecond fact is, the remarkable conformity between the two continents, in that both are nearly divided into two parts, each of which parts would be encompaſſed by the ſea, were it not for the two little iſthmuſes of Suez and Panama.

Theſe are the principal remarks which an attentive inſpection into the general diviſion of the earth has produced. It may, however, appear too precipitate to form a new hypotheſis upon theſe premiſes; but as none hitherto have conſidered the diviſion of the earth in the ſame point of view, it will not be improper to add a few reflections.

It is certainly very ſingular, that the line which gives the greateſt length to the terreſtrial continents, ſhould likewiſe divide them into two equal parts; and it is no leſs remarkable, that theſe two lines ſhould begin and end in the ſame degrees of latitude, and have both the ſame degrees of inclination to the equator. Theſe conformities may lead in general to ſomething which may hereafter be diſcovered, and of which we are now ignorant; but we ſhall proceed to illuſtrate what has already been obſerved, that the moſt ancient countries are thoſe which are the higheſt, and approach the neareſt to theſe lines; and that the laſt inhabited are the loweſt, and the fartheſt removed from them. Thus, for example, in America, the country of the Amazons, Guiana, and Canada, appear to be the laſt peopled. By caſting an eye over a map of thoſe countries, any one may ſee, that the waters every where over-

ſpread them; that they abound in lakes and wide rivers, certain indications of newly inhabited lands. On the contrary, Tucuman, Peru, and Mexico, are high lands, extremely mountainous, and border on the line which divides the continent. In like manner the interior parts of Africa, on the old continent, appear to be high and mountainous, and are without doubt very ancient, in compariſon of which even Egypt, Barbary, and the weſtern coaſts, as far as Senegal, may be regarded as new lands. Aſia is likewiſe an ancient country, and perhaps the moſt ancient of any yet mentioned, eſpecially Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; but the irregularities of that vaſt tract of land, as well as thoſe of Europe, would require a ſeparate treatiſe to explain. Let it ſuffice in general to obſerve here, that Europe is a new country; the tradition concerning the migration of its people, and of the firſt introduction of arts and ſciences into it, is an almoſt inconteſtable proof of the truth of this aſſertion. Beſides, it is not many centuries ago, ſince it abounded with marſhes and lakes, and was covered with foreſts; whereas, in the oldeſt inhabited countries, there are but few foreſts, fewer ſtagnations of water, no ſwamps, but, on the contrary, much heath and furz, and vaſt ridges of mountains, whoſe ſummits are dry and barren; but whoſe ſides abound in paſtures, and are fertile to this day to a degree of luxuriance ſcarce known to new countries. Nothing is more certain, than that men cut down foreſts, drain off waſte waters, deepen the ſhallow currents of great rivers, and in proceſs of time give the earth a quite different face to that of other countries uninhabited, or but lately peopled.

The ancients were acquainted with a very inconſiderable part of the globe: the whole continent of America, the Artic countries, the *Terra Auſtralis*, and Magellanica, a great part of the inland countries of Africa, were intirely unknown to them; neither were they certain that the torrid zone was habitable, notwithſtanding they had in their navigations ſurrounded all Africa, as appears from what Herodotus reports, that Neco, king of Egypt, about twenty-two hundred years ago, built ſhips for the Phenicians, with which they ſailed from the Red-Sea, coaſted along the eaſtern ſhores of Africa, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and having ſpent two years in this navigation, entered the third year into the Streights of Gibraltar, and finiſhed their voyage by the Mediterranean-Sea. This is the more wonderful, as the ancients were wholly ignorant of that amazing property of the loadſtone in pointing to the poles, although they knew that of its attracting iron. They were equally ignorant of the general cauſe of the flux and reflux of the ſea; and were doubtful whether the earth was encompaſſed by the ocean, or was connected by necks of land, like that of the iſthmus of Suez. Some, indeed, ſuppoſed the terreſtrial globe to be one vaſt iſland; but upon ſuch ſlender proofs, that none of them ventured to aſſert, or even to ſuggeſt, that it was poſſible to ſail round it. Magellan was the firſt, who, in the year 1519, attempted this grand tour, and performed it in eleven hundred and twenty-four days; Sir Francis Drake, in 1577, made the ſame voyage in a thouſand and fifty-ſix days; and after him Sir Thomas Cavendiſh, in 1586, ſailed round the globe in ſeven hundred and ſeventy-ſeven days. Theſe renowned voyagers were the firſt who demonſtrated phyſically the ſphericity and true meaſure of the circumference of the earth, which the ancients could never aſcertain, notwithſtanding all their endeavours to determine it. The monſoons, or what is commonly called the periodical or trade winds, with the means to be made uſe of in the proſecution of long voyages in ſeas remote from land, were points of which the ancient navigators had no adequate idea. It is not, therefore, to be wondered, that ſo little progreſs was made by them in geography, when, at this day, notwithſtanding all the helps that have been added by the improvements in mathematics, and the diſcoveries of navigators, there ſtill remain many things to find out, and vaſt countries yet to be diſcovered. Almoſt all the lands about the South Pole are at this hour unknown to us; what we know concerning them is, that they exiſt, and that they are ſeparated from all other lands by the ocean. There are likewiſe many other countries yet undiſcovered about the North Pole, and it muſt be acknowledged, though with regret, that for more than a century paſt, the humour for diſcovering new lands has been declining, and men have preferred, perhaps with reaſon, the utility of improving thoſe already known, to the glory of diſcovering others, and making new conqueſts.

Nevertheleſs, the diſcovery of the *Terra Auſtralis* would be a grand object of curioſity, as well as uſe; we have a very ſuperficial knowledge of the polar parts of the globe, and it is very unfortunate that all the navigators, who have attempted the diſcovery of the ſouthern countries, though they deſcried the coaſts, have generally been prevented, by the ice, from making land. The fogs, which prevail to an aſtoniſhing degree, near unfrequented lands, have been another great obſtacle; but, notwithſtanding both theſe inconveniencies, there is ſtill reaſon to believe, that, by ſailing from the Cape of Good Hope, at different ſeaſons of the year, ſome part of thoſe lands may at length be approached, which at this time make a ſeparate world.

Another method there is to be purſued, that perhaps might ſtill prove more ſucceſsful. As the ice and fogs appear to be the impediments that have prevented all the navigators, who have hitherto attempted the diſcovery of the ſouthern countries, by the Atlantic Ocean, from making land; and, as the ice has been found to exiſt in the ſummer, as well as in other ſeaſons, why might not an attempt by the Pacific Sea be attended with the wiſhed for ſucceſs? By ſailing from Baldivy, or any convenient port on the coaſt of Chili, and croſſing the Pacific Sea under the fiftieth degree of ſouth latitude, there is not the leaſt reaſon to apprehend that the voyage, though it has never been made, would be dangerous; but, on the conarary, the higheſt probability that, in the courſe, new lands would be found, ſince the tract that remains to be diſcovered on that ſide of the South Pole is ſo conſiderable, that, moderately ſpeaking, it may be eſtimated at more than a fourth part of the ſuperficies of the whole globe; inſomuch, that there may exiſt in thoſe climates a terreſtrial continent as large as Europe, Aſia, and Africa, taken all three together.

As we know nothing of that part of the globe, it is impoſſible to aſcertain the proportion there may be between the ſurface of the land and that of the ſea; only, if we may be allowed to reaſon from what we know of other lands, we may conclude there is more ſea than land.

To form an idea of the enormous quantity of water which the ſeas contain, let us ſuppoſe them all of one common depth of two hundred fathoms only, or the fourth part of a mile; and then, by nice calculation, it may be maintained, that there will be water enough to cover the whole globe to the height of ſix hundred feet; and, if we reduce this body of water into one intire maſs, it will be found to make a globe of more than a hundred and eighty miles in diameter.

Navigators pretend, that the ſouthern climates are much colder than thoſe of the ſame latitude about the North Pole, but there is not the leaſt appearance that this opinion is juſt; and it is probable that it has been adopted by voyagers, becauſe they found ice in a latitude, in which it is ſeldom or never found in the North Sea, which might be owing to many particular cauſes. We find no ice after the month of April on this ſide the ſixty-ſeventh or ſixty-eighth degrees of north latitude; and the Indians of Canada and Hudſon's Streight affirm, that when the ice is not wholly ſunk in that month, it is a preſage, that the reſt of the year will be cold and rainy. In 1725, they had, if one may be allowed the expreſſion, no ſummer, the rain pouring down from the clouds almoſt inceſſantly; and it was remarkable in that year, that the ice of the North Sea not only remained unſunk in the month of April, at the ſixty-ſeventh degree of latitude, but that it was buoyant till the 15th of June in the latitudes of forty-one and forty-two.

A vaſt quantity of this floating ice is found in the North Sea, eſpecially near land. Whole iſlands of it come from the ſea of Tartary into that of Nova-Zembla, and into other places from the icy ſea; ſo that it is not peculiar to the ſeas in which it is generated. To avoid therefore the inconveniencies ariſing from the frequent obſtructions occaſioned by it, Captain Monſon, in king James's time, inſtead of ſeeking a paſſage into China between the north lands, directed his courſe to the pole, and approached within two degrees of it, and there found a high ſea without ice; but, being oppoſed by the ſhip's company, was obliged to return. This proves, however, that ice is formed at

or near land, and never in the high ſea; for could we ſuppoſe, contrary to all experience, that the cold could be ſo exceſſive near the poles as to freeze the ſurface of the ſea, we ſhould ſtill be at a loſs to conceive how ſuch enormous iſlands of ice as are found floating ſhould be accumulated, without ſome reſting place at land, from whence they might afterwards be ſeparated by the heat of the ſun.

The two veſſels, which the French Eaſt-India company ſent out in 1737, for the diſcovery of the *Terra Auſtralis*, found ice indeed in the latitude of forty-ſeven and forty-eight; but this ice was at no great diſtance from the ſhore, becauſe they could plainly diſcern land from the maſt-head, though they were unable to reach it. Theſe ice-hills might come from the inland bays neareſt the South Pole; and it is no improbable conjecture, that they are brought down by the currents of the many huge rivers, with which theſe unknown countries may be watered, in like manner as the Oby, the Janeſca, and other vaſt rivers that fall into the North Seas, bear down the ice-hills that choak up the Streights of Wyegats, and render, by that means, the Tartarian Sea unapproachable by that courſe, during the greateſt part of the year; at the ſame time, that beyond Nova-Zembla, and much nearer to the poles, where there are ſcarce any rivers, and but little land, the ice-hills are leſs common, and the ſea more navigable; inſomuch, that were navigators again to attempt a north paſſage to China or Japan, they would do well to direct their courſe to the poles, and keep the higheſt ſeas, where certainly they would meet with little or no ice to obſtruct their paſſage; for it is well known that ſalt-water, without freezing, is capable of becoming much colder than freſh-water congealed; and, conſequently, that the exceſſive cold of the pole may render the water of the ſea under it much colder than ice, and yet not freeze the ſurface: add to all this, that at eighty and eighty-two degrees the ſurface of the ſea, though mingled with vaſt quantities of ſnow and freſh-water, is never frozen, except near the ſhores. From all that can be gathered from the teſtimony of voyagers, concerning the paſſage from Europe to China by the North Sea, it appears, that there is ſuch a paſſage, and that the reaſon it has ſo often been attempted in vain, is, becauſe navigators have dreaded to leave the land, and have regarded the polar courſe as the broad way to certain deſtruction.

William Barnet, who miſcarried, as well as many others, in his voyage, makes no manner of doubt but that there is a paſſage, and that, if he had ſteered from land, he might have found an open ſea without ice. The Ruſſian navigators ſent by Peter the Great, to reconnoitre the North Seas, report, that Nova-Zembla is not an iſland, but part of the main land of Tartary; and that to the north of Nova-Zembla, there is a free and open ſea. A Dutch voyager aſſerts, that the ſea frequently throws up whales on the coaſt of Corea and Japan, on whoſe backs are found ſticking ſometimes Engliſh, and ſometimes Dutch harpoons.

Another Dutchman pretends to have ſailed directly under the pole, and aſſures that he found it there as warm as at Amſterdam in ſummer. One of our Engliſh captains, by name Goulden, who had made three voyages to Groenland, informed king Charles II. that the maſters of two Dutch veſſels, in whoſe company he ſailed, having been diſappointed in their fiſhery off the Iſle of Edges, reſolved to try what diſcoveries they could make farther north; that, on their return in about fifteen days, they told him they had been as far as the eighty-ninth degree of latitude, within one degree of the pole; and that they found there no ice, but a ſea free and open, very deep, and much like that of the Bay of Biſcay; in proof of which they produced to him four journals of the two ſhips, which all agreed, as near as could be, in the ſame particulars. It is, moreover, reported in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, that two navigators, who had undertaken to diſcover this paſſage, ſteered a courſe of three hundred leagues to the eaſtward of Nova-Zembla; but that being about to return home, the Eaſt-India company, who had an intereſt that this paſſage ſhould not be diſcovered, detained them in India, and ſecreted their journals. The Dutch Eaſt-India company, however, were of another mind; and having fruitleſsly attempted a paſſage from Europe, endeavoured to find it from Japan; and, in all probability, would have ſucceeded, had not the emperor of Japan prohibited to ſtrangers all navigation with the lands of Jeſſo.

From all that has been ſaid, it may be concluded, that this paſſage may be found by ſteering a direct courſe from Spitzberg to the pole, or rather by keeping the middle of the high ſea, between Nova-Zembla and Spitzberg, under the ſeventy-ninth degree of latitude. If this ſea is of any conſiderable breadth, there is no fear of interruption from the ice in that latitude, much leſs under the pole, for the reaſons already alledged. In ſhort, there is no example of a wide ſea being frozen at any conſiderable diſtance from ſhore; the only inſtance of a ſea bring wholly frozen over, is that of the Black Sea, which being narrow and ſcarce ſalt, and receiving an infinite number of rivers, from the high lands of the North, that bring down with them innumerable iſlands of ice, is ſometimes entirely frozen to a conſiderable depth; and, if hiſtorians may be credited, in the reign of the emperor Copronyma, the ice was thirty cubits thick upon it, without including twenty cubits of ſnow, which covered its ſurface after it was frozen. Though this relation ſeems exaggerated beyond belief; yet it is certain, that this ſea is frozen over almoſt every winter, at the ſame time that the high ſeas, ſituated ſome thouſands of miles nearer the pole, are not frozen at all. This can only be owing to their greater ſaltneſs, and to the few ice-iſlands which they receive by the floods, in compariſon to the enormous maſſes carried into the Black Sea.

Theſe ice-hills, which may be conſidered as the great barriers that oppoſe the navigation towards the poles, and have hitherto prevented the diſcovery of the *Terra Auſtralis*, prove not only, that there are immenſe rivers in the vicinity of thoſe climates, where they are moſt frequent, but alſo, that there are vaſt continents, at no very great diſtance, from whence theſe rivers derive their origin; and therefore navigators, ſo far from being diſcouraged by their appearance, ſhould be animated to ſurmount every difficulty, and endeavour to accompliſh the end by perſeverance; or, by attempting the diſcovery in ſome other part, it being next to impoſſible, that in the immenſe circle which terminates the *Terra Auſtralis* on the ſide of the equator, every part can be alike defended by ſuch vaſt congealations.

The deſcription which Dampier, and other voyagers, have given of New Holland, agrees very well with the obſervations already made, that this part of the globe, which lies contiguous to the *Terra Auſtralis*, is a new country in compariſon with that: New Holland, according to them, is a low country, without mountains, and full of ſwamps, whoſe natives are ſavages, without laws and without induſtry; a kind of proof, that, in the bordering continent, there are ſome ſuch beings as the Amazons of Paraguay, and the ſavages of Canada, while, at the ſame time, there may be found in the elevated parts of it, a people formed into ſociety, civilized by laws, and improved by ſcience; in like manner, as in Peru and Mexico, there were found kingdoms and empires, magnificent buildings, and curious decorations, while the few inhabitants of the low and remote countries were rude and uncivilized, with little more reaſon than the beaſts that periſh.

The innermoſt parts of Africa are as much unknown to us as they were to the ancients. They, as well as the moderns, had made the tour of the coaſt, though they have neither left us chart or deſcription of it. Pliny, indeed, informs us, that the Greeks, in the time of Alexander, made the tour of Africa, and found, in the Arabian ſea, the wreck of a Spaniſh ſhip; he likewiſe reports, that Hanno, the Carthaginian general, made a voyage from Gades [Cadiz] to the Arabian ſea, a relation of which voyage he had left in writing, though it has never been tranſmitted to us. Cornelius Nepos, too, takes notice, that, in his time, a perſon named Eudoxus, being perſecuted by king Lothurus, was obliged to fly his country; and that having ſailed from the Arabian Gulph, he at length arrived at Gades. But notwithſtanding all theſe concurrent teſtimonies, it is yet a queſtion, whether any of the ancients ever doubled the Cape of Good Hope, that courſe having always been conſidered as a new diſcovery made by the Portugueze, in their way to the Eaſt-Indies; but, to wave this inquiry, let us hear what Abuziel, an hiſtorian

hiſtorian of the ninth century, relates of a fact that happened in his time.

"There has, ſays he, been diſcovered in this our time, a thing quite new, and altogether unknown to thoſe who lived before us. No body ever believed, that the ſea which ſtretcheth from the Indies towards China, had any communication with the ſea of Syria; neither could it have entered into any one's mind. But ſee what has happened in this our time, according to the beſt information I can get; there has been found in the ſea of Roum [Mediterranean] the wreck of an Arabian veſſel, which a tempeſt had caſt away, and every ſoul on board periſhed. The billows having daſhed the ſhip to pieces, the fragments were carried by the winds and waves quite into the ſea of the Cozars; and from thence to the ſtrait of the Mediterranean ſea; from whence they were at length caſt on ſhore on the coaſt of Syria. This ſhows, that the ſea encompaſſeth all the coaſt of China and Cila, the extreme parts of Turqueſtan, and the country of the Cozars; that at laſt it runs through the ſtraits as far as where it waſhes the coaſts of Syria. The proof is drawn from the conſtruction of the veſſel, which was plainly a ſhip of Siraf, whoſe fabrick is ſuch, that the ſeams were not caulked, but cloſed in a particular manner, as if they had been ſewed; whereas, all the veſſels of the Mediterranean, and the coaſt of Syria, are caulked, and are not cloſed in that manner."

The tranſlator of this ancient relation adds theſe obſervations upon it:

"Abuziel, ſays he, remarks, as a thing new and ſtrange, that a veſſel could be driven from the Indian ſea upon the coaſt of Syria. To find a paſſage into the Mediterranean, he ſuppoſes a large extent of ſea below China, which has a communication with the ſea of the Cozars, or Muſcovites. The ſea beyond Cape Coriantes was utterly unknown to the Arabs, by reaſon of the extreme danger of the navigation, and the rudeneſs of the inhabitants on the coaſts, whom they could neither ſubdue nor civilize by commerce. The Portugueze, from the Cape of Good Hope to Soffala, found no Moors ſettled on the coaſts, as they afterwards did in all the maritime towns from thence to China. Soffala was the laſt town the ancient geographers knew; but whether there was a communication from thence to Barbary by ſea, they knew not; and therefore contented themſelves with deſcribing the coaſts as far as Zingo, now called Caffrerie. Hence it is evident, that the diſcovery of the paſſage from that ſea, by the Cape of Good Hope, is to be attributed to the Europeans, under the conduct of Vaſco Gama, or at leaſt to ſome who made the ſame voyage a few years before him. To ſtrengthen this latter opinion, there were, it is affirmed, ſea charts to be produced more early than this navigation, where this cape is marked by the name of Fronteira da Africa. Anthony Galvan affirms, upon the credit of Franciſco de Souſa Tavares, that in 1528, the Infant Don Ferdinand ſhewed him ſuch a chart, which that prince found in the monaſtery of Acoboca, and which had been drawn 120 years before, perhaps from one ſaid to be at Venice in the treaſury of St. Mark, and which is believed to have been copied from that of Marco Paolo, which likewiſe marks this point of Africa, according to the teſtimony of Ramuſius." The ignorance of the age in which this ancient relation is ſaid to be written, with reſpect to the navigation round Africa, is, perhaps, leſs to be wondered at, than the ſilence of the editor with reſpect to the paſſages from Herodotus and Pliny, already cited, and which ſeem to prove, that the ancients had made the tour of Aſia.

Be this as it may, the coaſts of Africa are now well known; but the attempts that have been made to penetrate into the heart of that country have not yet ſo far ſucceeded, as to furniſh any ſatisfactory account of its inhabitants, productions, or commerce. It were, however, greatly to be wiſhed, that by means of the river Senegal, or ſome other great river, a ſettlement could be eſtabliſhed far up in the country, from whence ſurveys might be made, from time to time, till a thorough knowledge is acquired of its contents, the richeſt, perhaps, in the world; for it is well known, that the rivers of Africa bring down much gold; and, as it abounds with ſtupendous mountains, many of them riſing directly under the equator, there is not the leaſt reaſon to doubt, but that they afford mines as valuable as thoſe of Peru and Braſil; and gems and precious ſtones equal to, if not ſurpaſſing all that have been yet diſcovered. This immenſe continent of Africa is ſituated in the fineſt climate of the world, and was formerly inhabited by mighty and populous nations, and filled with magnificent cities. Upon the whole, if we conſider the immenſe riches of the old world, formerly drawn from thoſe parts, we ſhall be inclined to think, that the diſcoveries which might be here made, would be of great uſe to our trade; and if we attend to what is recorded in ancient hiſtory, concerning the arts and ſciences of the inhabitants; or if we reflect on the monuments of them ſtill remaining all along the coaſt of Egypt, we ſhall no longer doubt, that this part of the world is an object fully deſerving of all our toil and aſſiduity in the ſearch of it.

The vaſt country of North and Eaſt Tartary has but very lately been perfectly known. But if the Ruſſian charts may be depended upon, we know at preſent the coaſts of all this part of Aſia; and it appears, that from the eaſternmoſt point of Tartary, to the weſternmoſt in North America, the diſtance cannot be more than 500 leagues: nay, by the lateſt diſcoveries, it ſhould ſeem to be much leſs; for, in the Amſterdam Gazette of January twenty-fourth, 1747, it is ſaid, in an article from Peterſburg, that M. Steller had diſcovered beyond Kamtſchatka one of the iſles of North America; and that he had made it appear, that one might go from thence to a port in Ruſſia, by a very ſhort paſſage. The Jeſuits, and other miſſionaries, have alſo pretended, that they have found in Tartary ſavages, whom they have catechiſed in America, a circumſtance that ſeems to prove, in effect, that there is a paſſage ſtill ſhorter. Charlevoix goes ſtill farther, and even pretends, that the two continents are joined by the North. He ſays, the lateſt Japoneſe navigators give room to think, that the paſſage in queſtion is no other than a bay, above which one may paſs by land from Aſia to America: but this merits confirmation, becauſe it is preſumed, and with great appearance of truth, that the continent of the North Pole is intirely diſtinct from every other continent, as well as that of the South; and from the very ſtructure of the earth, ſo far as it is known, there is the higheſt preſumptive evidence, that all the four great continents are for wiſe purpoſes diſconnected from each other by tracts of ſea.

Aſtronomy and navigation are now brought to ſo great perfection, that we may reaſonably hope to have one day an exact knowledge of the intire ſurface of the globe. The ancients, as has already been obſerved, knew but a very ſmall part of it: for want of the mariners-compaſs, they could never venture on long voyages in the high ſeas. It is, indeed, pretended, that the Arabs were long acquainted with the uſe of this inſtrument, before it was known in Europe; and that they uſed it in trading from the Indian-ſea to the coaſts of China; but that opinion needs no farther refutation than this, that there is no word in the Arabic, Turkiſh, or Perſian languages to expreſs a compaſs, and therefore they make uſe of the Italian word *buſſola*; nay, they do not at this day know how to make a compaſs, or arm a loadſtone, and purchaſe all they uſe of the Europeans. Father Martini pretends, upon no better grounds, that the Chineſe have known the uſe of the compaſs for more than 3000 years; if that be true, how happens it, that they have reaped ſuch ſlender advantages from it? Why do they, in making their voyage to Cochinchina, go twice as far as they need? Why do they, in making their voyages, the longeſt of which is to Java, or Sumatra, always coaſt it, without venturing out to ſea? And why have not they, as well as the Europeans, made diſcoveries of new countries and new iſlands, ſo many of which lie within their reach, and court them by a luxuriancy of the richeſt productions of nature, to come and take poſſeſſion? It was but a few years after the diſcovery of this wonderful property of the loadſtone, that the Europeans undertook the longeſt and moſt hazardous voyages; they doubled the Cape of Good Hope; traverſed the African and Indian ſeas; and while the generality of navigators were directing their views to the

the eaſt and to the ſouth, Chriſtopher Columbus was meditating his grand enterprize to the weſt.

In ruminating upon this vaſt project, the concluſion was juſt and natural that there muſt be immenſe tracts of land towards the weſt; for, by revolving in one's mind a known part of the globe, and comparing the diſtance, ſuppoſing from Spain to China, with the periodical revolution of the earth or heavens, one could not help ſeeing that there remained a far greater ſpace to be diſcovered towards the weſt, than what was known eaſtward. It could not therefore be for want of aſtronomical knowledge, that the ancients did not diſcover the new world; but ſolely for want of the mariner's-compaſs. The paſſages of Plato and Ariſtotle, that ſpeak of land far beyond the pillars of Hercules, intimate that ſome navigators had been driven by tempeſt as far as America, from whence they had returned with infinite labour and difficulty; and we may even venture to aſſert, that had the ancients been fully convinced of the exiſtence of a new continent, by the relation of theſe navigators, they would have deemed it wholly impracticable to ſhape any direct courſe towards it, without ſome better guides than the ſtars, or, indeed, without the knowledge of the mariner's-compaſs.

Without the aſſiſtance of this inſtrument, the moſt ſkilful navigators of the preſent times would be as much at a loſs, as the ancients were, to navigate the high ſeas; and were any of them now hardy enough to attempt to make a known part of the new continent without it, they would, in all probability, be diſappointed.

The aſtrolabe was an inſtrument well known to the ancients, by the help of which they could ſteer from one point of the old continent to another. It was doubtleſs owing to this, and always keeping the polar-ſtar to the left, and, often taking obſervations, to keep them nearly in the ſame parallel, that the Carthaginians, mentioned by Ariſtotle, found means to return from thoſe diſtant regions to which they had been driven by a tempeſt; nevertheleſs, we ſhould now look upon ſuch an enterprize as extremely hazardous, and none would attempt it but by neceſſity.

It muſt not be forgotten, that after the diſcovery of the Azores, the Canaries, and the iſlands of Madeira, by Chriſtopher Columbus the winds having long ſet in from the weſt, the ſea threw upon the coaſts pieces of wood of a foreign growth, the like of which had not been ſeen in Europe, and even dead bodies that were known, by many eſſential diſcriminations, to be neither Europeans nor Africans. Columbus, remarked too, while he remained upon theſe iſlands, certain winds that blew from the weſt, and continued only a few days, which he therefore concluded were land winds. Nevertheleſs, with the advantage of theſe, and many more obſervations, and with the help of the compaſs beſides, the difficulties he had to ſtruggle with were ſo great, that nothing but the ſucceſs could juſtify the enterprize. For, ſuppoſing the continent of the new world to have been only five hundred leagues farther to the weſt than in effect it is, a thing which Columbus could neither know nor prevent, he could never have reached it; and, it is more than probable, that if he had then miſcarried, this vaſt country had ſtill been undiſcovered. This remark will appear of more weight, when it is known, that Columbus, though the ableſt navigator of his time, was ſeized with fear and aſtoniſhment in his ſecond voyage to this new world; for, having at firſt only found iſlands, he ſhaped his courſe in his next attempt more to the ſouth, in order to diſcover, if he could, the main land; but was ſuddenly ſtopt in his career by currents, whoſe extent was ſo conſiderable, and their direction ſo full, and their oppoſition ſo great againſt him, that he was conſtrained to change his courſe, and purſue his diſcoveries to the weſt. He fancied, that the obſtacle which prevented his progreſs to the ſouth, was not ſo much the currents, as the riſing of the ſea towards the canopy of Heaven, which, for aught he knew, it might touch towards the ſouth; ſo true it is, that in the greateſt enterprizes, the leaſt unfavourable circumſtance may turn the wiſeſt head, and enfeeble the ſtouteſt heart.

GEORGIA. This was the laſt of our ſettlements before the late war, on the American continent, as well in point of time as ſituation; it bounding our pretenſions in America to the ſouth, as Nova Scotia does to the north; and is of equal importance with this latter as a frontier province, it lies in the bounds of Carolina; but having for ſo long remained unſettled, the worthy projectors of the Georgia eſtabliſhment fixed on this ſpot as a proper one for their benevolent intentions of relieving the diſtreſſes of their fellow creatures, and at the ſame time to make their relief turn to a public advantage. It was with theſe generous views, that a ſet of gentlemen ſolicited his late majeſty, king George II. for a grant of the uncultivated lands aforementioned, with the free conſent of the Carolinians, to whom this tract was rather a burden than a benefit, and from whoſe ſettlement they expected to reap both ſecurity and advantage. His majeſty, always ready to promote the good of his ſubjects, was graciouſly pleaſed to condeſcend to their requeſt, and by his letters patent, bearing date the 9th of June, 1732, did conſtitute the petitioners a corporation, by the name of *The Truſtees for eſtabliſhing the Colony of Georgia in America*; with capacity to purchaſe and take lands, to ſue and be ſued, &c. with the reſtraining clauſes, that no member of the ſaid corporation ſhould have any ſalary, fee, perquiſite, benefit, or profit whatſoever, for acting therein, or ſhould have any office, place, or employment of profit whatſoever under the ſaid corporation, &c. They had likewiſe a power to make by-laws, &c. And amongſt other things, there was granted to the ſaid corporation and their ſucceſſors (under the reſervations therein mentioned) ſeven undivided parts (the whole to be divided into eight equal parts) of all thoſe lands, countries, and territories, ſituate, lying, and being, in that part of South Carolina, in America, which lies from the northernmoſt ſtream of a river there, called the Savannah, along the ſea coaſt to the ſouthward, unto the moſt ſouthern ſtream of a certain other great water or river, called the Alatamaha; and weſtward from the head of the ſaid rivers, reſpectively in direct lines to the South Seas: to have and to hold the ſame to them, &c. for ever, for the better ſupport of the ſaid colony, under the yearly rent of four ſhillings proclamation money of South Carolina, for every hundred acres of the ſaid lands; for every of which the ſaid corporation ſhould grant, demiſe, plant, or ſettle; but not to commence until ten years after ſuch grant, demiſe, planting, or ſettling; and erected and created the ſaid lands, countries, and territories, into one independent and ſeparate province, by the name of Georgia; and made the inhabitants, who ſhall reſide therein, free, and not ſubject to any of the laws, orders, ſtatutes, or conſtitutions of South Carolina, except the commander in chief of the militia; and authorized the ſaid corporation, for the term of twenty-one years from the date of the ſaid letters patent, to form and prepare laws, ſtatutes, and ordinances, for the government of the ſaid colony, not repugnant to the laws and ſtatutes of England; to be preſented under their common ſeal to his majeſty in council, for his approbation or diſallowance; and that the ſaid laws ſo approved of, ſhould be in full force and virtue within the ſaid province. The council, for the time being, of the ſaid corporation, were likewiſe impowered to apply their money, make contracts, &c. to appoint officers and ſervants, removeable at pleaſure; that they might tranſport and convey into the ſaid province ſuch of his majeſty's ſubjects and foreigners, as were willing to go and inhabit there; and declared all perſons born within the ſaid province, and their poſterity, to be free denizens, as if they had been born in any of his majeſty's dominions. The ſaid corporation had likewiſe power to aſſign, transfer, and ſet over, ſuch particular portions of the ſaid lands, tenements, and hereditaments, unto ſuch of his majeſty's ſubjects and others, willing to live in the ſaid colony, upon ſuch terms, and for ſuch eſtates, and upon ſuch rents, reſervations, and conditions, as the ſame might lawfully be granted, and as to the ſaid common council ſhould ſeem fit and proper; provided no grant ſhould be made of any part of the ſaid lands, unto, or in truſt for, or for the benefit of, any member of the ſaid corporation; and that no greater quantity of the ſaid lands be granted, either intirely or in parcels, to, or to the uſe of, or in truſt for, any one perſon, than five hundred acres; and declared, that all grants made contrary to the true intent and meaning thereof, ſhould be abſolutely null and void. And granted, that the ſaid corporation, for the term of twenty-one years from the date of the ſaid letters patent, ſhould have power to erect and conſtitute judicatures and courts of record, or other

courts, to be held in his majeſty's name, for the hearing and determining all manner of crimes, offences, pleas, &c. And it is directed, that all rents, iſſues, or profits, which ſhould come to the ſaid corporation, iſſuing or ariſing out of, or from the ſaid province, ſhould be laid out and applied in ſuch manner as would moſt improve and enlarge the ſaid colony, &c. And directed, that the ſaid common council ſhould, from time to time, for the ſaid term of twenty-one years, have power to appoint all ſuch governors, judges, magiſtrates, miniſters, and officers, civil and military, both by ſea and land, within the ſaid diſtrict, as they ſhould think fit and needful for the government of the ſaid colony (except ſuch officers as ſhould be appointed for managing, collecting, and receiving ſuch of his majeſty's revenues as ſhould ariſe within the ſaid province) with a proviſo, that every governor ſo appointed, ſhould be approved of by his majeſty, and qualify himſelf as other governors in America are by law required to do, &c. And they have power to train the militia, erect forts, &c. And that they ſhall have power to import and export their goods, at or from any ports that ſhould be appointed by his majeſty, within the ſaid province, without being obliged to touch at any other port in South Carolina; and declared, that after the end of the ſaid twenty-one years, ſuch form of government, and making of laws and ſtatutes, and ordinances for the government of the ſaid province and its inhabitants, ſhould be eſtabliſhed and obſerved within the ſame, as his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors ſhould ordain and appoint, agreeable to law; and that after the end of the ſaid twenty-one years, the governor, and all officers civil and military within the ſaid province, ſhould be appointed by his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors.

In conſequence of this extenſive charter, many nobles and men of fortune undertook, in quality of truſtees, to carry the deſign into execution, and had, as the object of their firſt care, the obtaining a ſufficient fund for enabling them to ſend over a conſiderable body of people, and to provide them with all kinds of neceſſaries; to which they liberally ſubſcribed themſelves, obtained conſiderable ſums by collection from perſons who were charitably diſpoſed, to forward the ſettlement, and beſides, procured a donation from parliament of ten thouſand pounds.

The propereſt method was alſo ſtudied in making this ſettlement, that it might both anſwer the intended ends of their being ſent thither, and alſo contribute as much to the public utility as poſſible; in order whereto, every individual was regarded as a planter and ſoldier, and accordingly furniſhed with arms for defence, and tools for his huſbandry, whoſe uſe and exerciſe were alſo taught him; it was alſo reſolved, that towns ſhould be planned, and lands appointed for the ſubſiſtence and conveniency of the ſettler, and theſe be held in tail-male, as the propereſt tenure in this infant colony. The introduction of negroes was alſo prohibited for many reaſons. And after theſe diſpoſitions were made, and the truſtees enabled by public and private benefactions, one hundred and fourteen ſouls, men, women, and children, embarked with James Oglethorpe, Eſq; (one of the truſtees) in November, 1732, and ſailed for Carolina, where they arrived on the 15th of January following; and being aſſiſted by the governor of Charles-Town, and other kind gentlemen, a town was marked out, and the firſt houſe begun (ten miles up the river Savannah) on the ninth of February; after which, Mr. Oglethorpe procured all the aſſiſtance and neceſſaries he could for his young colony, ſowed and planted a quantity of corn, herbage, and fruit, made a treaty with the Indians, and then returned to England, in order to continue his good offices by procuring the neceſſary ſupplies to be ſent to this object of his care; and arrived in ſafety, in June, 1734, accompanied by ſeveral of the Indian kings, and chiefs, who were endeared to our countrymen by the kind uſage ſhewn them here.

Mr. Oglethorpe again embarked, and on the ſixth of February, 1735, arrived with four hundred and ſeventy perſons, who were ſettled on the iſland of St. Simon; and in the preceding month, a parcel of Scotch Highlanders were got there, and eſtabliſhed up the river Alatamaha, about ſixteen miles diſtant from the aforeſaid iſle; they both built towns, the Engliſh calling theirs Frederica, and the Scots, New Inverneſs: roads of communication were made between the towns of the Britiſh adventurers and the Indians, and both the north and ſouth frontiers were not only ſecured by fortifications, but alſo by an amicable treaty, concluded with the Spaniards of St. Auguſtin, which however was diſapproved of by their court and the governors of Cuba; and Spaniſh Florida had directions to prepare ſuch a force as they imagined would be ſufficient to deſtroy our ſettlements, as well in Carolina as Georgia; to prevent which, his majeſty was graciouſly pleaſed to order a regiment of ſix hundred effective men to be ſent to Georgia for its defence and protection, and the truſtees allotted each one of them a parcel of land to encourage their good behaviour.

The parliament alſo now granted them twenty thouſand pounds, and twenty-ſix thouſand at ſundry times afterwards, for their further aſſiſtance, which enabled the truſtees to make another embarkation, and with theſe repeated augmentations of people, the towns laid out in this new colony began to flouriſh. Mr. Oglethorpe was appointed colonel of the aforeſaid regiment; and no one could have been more proper for the command than he, who only uſed his authority and care to protect that ſettlement, which with ſo much fatigue and aſſiduity he had planted; but this reinforcement did not induce him to abate any thing of that diſcipline he had always obſerved, but he continued to train his militia, with the ſame exerciſe and regularity he had before uſed them to, and diſregarding the dangers he run, and the inconveniencies he ſuffered by travelling in an almoſt unknown, uninhabited, and conſequently an uncultivated country, he undertook a journey of five hundred miles from Frederica, purely to increaſe the ſervices he had already rendered the colonies of Carolina and Georgia, by concluding a new treaty with the Indians, and thereby confirming them in the Engliſh intereſt, at a time when the French were uſing their utmoſt efforts to draw them off from it; thus (to advance and ſecure the happineſs of others) did this worthy man, with unwearied diligence, expoſe himſelf to hazards and toils, that would have proved unſurmountable to one of a leſs enterprizing genius and ſteady reſolution; but theſe enabled him to go through even ſuch a comfortleſs and tireſome expedition, as this now mentioned.

The number of people ſettled in Georgia in the firſt eight years was upwards of two thouſand, which under Mr. Oglethorpe's prudent conduct, in obedience to the wiſe regulations and diſpoſitions of the truſtees, had now acquired ſtrength ſufficient to defend themſelves, as they were ſoon obliged to prove; for the war, kindled here with the Spaniards in 1739, ſoon blazed out in America, where general Oglethorpe, having, with all the other governors in that country, received his majeſty's orders to annoy the Spaniards as much as they could, agreed on an expedition againſt them at St. Auguſtin, in conjunction with the forces of Carolina; and though the plan of their operations ſeemed to be well concerted, it unfortunately miſcarried, with the loſs of many men and much money. The Spaniards, in return, paid them a viſit in the beginning of June, 1742, but met a ſignal repulſe from the Engliſh; for though their force conſiſted of fifty-ſix ſail, with between ſeven and eight thouſand men, they were defeated by the handful general Oglethorpe had with him, to the immortal honour, both of the ſoldiers and their commander, who obliged the enemy to ſo precipitate a flight, as to leave part of their baggage, &c. behind them. The general received the congratulations and acknowledgments, ſo juſtly due to his bravery, from all our American governors, and ought to have the ſame incenſe paid him by every well-wiſher to the colonies, or indeed Great-Britain itſelf.

This province is ſaid to be capable of producing all that Carolina does, though the truſtees, from an obſervation that moſt of the American ſettlements run into a cultivation of the ſame commodities, recommended a different practice here, and ordered a large plantation of mulberry-trees to be made, invited thereto by the propriety of the ſoil, and agreeableneſs of the clime for raiſing ſilk, of which a parcel was brought from thence in 1739, and deemed by competent judges to be very good; though what more it may have produced ſince, we muſt confeſs ourſelves ignorant, or indeed, of what other returns it has made to the people's expectations, from the large ſums expended on it; though, ſhould it fall ſhort in the fertility it has been praiſed for, and remit but little in exchange

for

A New MAP of the EMPIRE of GERMANY Divided into CIRCLES Drawn from the best Authorities
German Miles 15 to a Degree
5 10 15 30
British Miles 69 to a Degree
10 20 40 60 80 100 120 140
BALTIC SEA
NORTH SEA
SWEDEN
DENMARK
HOLSTEIN
LOWER SAXONY
BREMEN
HAMBURG
LUNENBURG
BRANDENBURG
PRUSSIA
POLAND
WESTPHALIA
UNITED PROVINCES
BRABANT
LUSATIA
BOHEMIA
MORAVIA
HUNGARY
AUSTRIA
SALTZBURG
STYRIA
CARINTHIA
CARNIOLA
SWABIA
BAVARIA
FRANCONIA
HESSE
SAXONY
LORRAIN
SWITZERLAND
SAVOY
VENICE
Copenhagen
Hamburg
Bremen
Amsterdam
Brussels
Antwerp
Berlin
Dresden
Leipzig
Prague
Vienna
Munich
Augsburg
Frankfort
Strasburg
Basil
Milan
Venice
Trieft
Dantzick
Konigsberg
Warsaw
Cracow
Breslau
Buda
Presburg
Olmutz
Brunn
Znaim
Gratz
Inspruck
Salzburg
Ratisbon
Nuremberg
Wurtzburg
Mentz
Cologne
Namur
Luxemburg
Metz
Nancy
Zurich
Berne
Geneva
Turin
Mantua
Ferrara
Bologna
Florence
Rome
Naples
Sicily
Sardinia
Corsica
Malta
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Dantzick
Adriatic Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Tyrrhenian Sea
Ionian Sea
Archipelago
Black Sea
Sea of Azof
Crimea
Constantinople
Smyrna
Aleppo
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Morocco
Fez
Gibraltar
Cape St Vincent
Lisbon
Madrid
Barcelona
Valentia
Toledo
Seville
Cadiz
Granada
Carthagena
Malaga
Oran
Bona
Tripoli
Alexandria
Cairo
Rosetta
Damietta
Jerusalem
Acre
Tyre
Sidon
Damascus
Tripoli
Scanderoon
Cyprus
Rhodes
Candia
Negropont
Salonichi
Athens
Corinth
Patras
Modon
Coron
Navarino
Zante
Cephalonia
Ithaca
Corfu
Durazzo
Valona
Otranto
Brundusium
Naples
Gaeta
Civita Vecchia
Leghorn
Genoa
Nice
Marseilles
Toulon
Avignon
Lyons
Geneva
Basil
Strasburg
Mentz
Cologne
Aix la Chapelle
Liege
Namur
Brussels
Ghent
Bruges
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Dieppe
Rouen
Paris
Orleans
Nantes
Rochelle
Bourdeaux
Bayonne
Perpignan
Montpelier
Toulouse
Limoges
Tours
Angers
Caen
Havre de Grace
Dieppe
Calais
Dover
London
Canterbury
Portsmouth
Plymouth
Bristol
Exeter
Falmouth
Land's End
Scilly Isles
Isle of Wight
Isle of Man
Anglesea
Holyhead
Liverpool
Chester
Shrewsbury
Worcester
Gloucester
Oxford
Reading
Windsor
Hampton Court
Kingston
Richmond
Greenwich
Deptford
Blackheath
Rochester
Chatham
Sheerness
Margate
Ramsgate
Deal
Dover
Canterbury
Maidstone
Tunbridge
Lewes
Brighthelmstone
Arundel
Chichester
Portsmouth
Southampton
Salisbury
Winchester
Andover
Basingstoke
Guildford
Kingston
Richmond
Hampton Court
Windsor
Reading
Oxford
Banbury
Coventry
Warwick
Birmingham
Worcester
Gloucester
Bristol
Bath
Wells
Exeter
Plymouth

for the manufactures it takes from hence, the eſtabliſhment ought to be ſupported as an important frontier, whoſe conſequence has been demonſtrated, in the ſtand it made againſt the above-mentioned powerful attack, which might otherwiſe have proved of fatal conſequence to ſeveral of our colonies. *See* PLANTATIONS.

GEORGIA *in Aſia*. There is hardly any country in all Aſia more abundant in cattle, wild and tame fowl, fruits, wines, and indeed all the neceſſaries of life, nor where they are in greater perfection, than here. Its wines, particularly thoſe of *Teffliſ*, its capital, are tranſported to Armenia, Media, and even to Iſpahan, where a quantity of them is always reſerved for the king's table; ſilk is gathered here in plenty, but the Georgians not underſtanding its preparation, nor having hardly any artificers among them to manufacture it, they carry it among their neighbours, and drive a great trade with it at Arzerem in Turkey, and thereabouts.

The lords in *Georgia* being maſters of the lives and liberties of their vaſſals, as the fathers are of their children, make the bad uſe of their power to ſell many thouſands of both ſexes yearly into ſlavery, more eſpecially of the females, who, being all very beautiful, are purchaſed by the Turks and Perſians for their ſeraglios; and this iniquitous commerce is principally carried on by the Armenians.

Of late the Georgians have withdrawn themſelves from their obedience to the Ottoman power, and their prince, Heraclius, has defeated the Turks in ſome battles. Time only can diſcover what the event is likely to prove.

GERMANY. Our commerce with this country will appear to be but little, when its vaſt extent and populouſneſs are conſidered; as Dr. Davenant makes the medium of a ſeven years dealing with it (viz. from Chriſtmas 1698, to 1705) to be in exports 838791 l. and imports 677521 l. *per annum*, though indeed he accounts for the ſmallneſs of it in a very reaſonable manner, by acquainting us, that the Dutch ſupply that people now with thoſe fine cloths, ſtuffs, ſays, ſerges, &c. manufactured here, which our merchants uſed formerly to export to Hamburgh, and other parts of the German empire, otherwiſe our dealings there would certainly be much more conſiderable than they are, and increaſe our advantage by augmenting the employ of our ſhipping in their carriage; and this would certainly have occurred, as the importation of ſo large a quantity of German linens muſt have been anſwered by an adequate quantity of our woollen manufactures, had not we been intercepted in that traffic by our Flemiſh neighbours, with goods of our own manufacturing, taken immediately from the premiſes; and this in part proves that Holland is no ſufferer in the over-balance we ſeemingly have againſt them in our mutual dealings.

It is true, our late improvements in the linen fabrics have ſupplanted the Germans in ſome part of theirs, ſince the before-mentioned calculation; but, on the other hand, this branch of buſineſs muſt have roſe in their favour, and it has gone ſinking in that of France's, and is certainly rendered more beneficial to us both by the alteration; our imports of linen being repaid by an export of woollens, and therefore the increaſe of one is conſequentially the augmentation of the other. Our exports there are cloths, bays, ſtuffs, frize, flannels, kerſies, hats, hoſe, doub. dozens, logwood, pipes, cochineal, wrought iron and braſs, haberdaſhery, ſilk mixed, ſilk wrought and unwrought, ſugar, and ditto refined, painters colours, turners wood, wrought plate, leather, printed linen, callicoes, and other India goods; rice, ginger, pimento, pepper, tobacco, ditto cut, drugs, coffee, allum, pewter, cotton wool, lead, litharge, tin, apothecaries ſtuff, copperas, orchal, chalk, glaſs, glue, lanthorn leaves, ſilver coin, coney wool, fuſtic, blankets, cabinet ware, &c. And we import from thence, linens, Spaw and Bourn water, Ruſſia mats, rags, ſmalts, white copperas, melting pots, pearl, weed, and pot-aſhes, fenugreek, ſturgeon, canvas, broken glaſs, hartſhorns, drugs, flax, tow, quills, briſtles, &c.

GEZEON, is a place in Arabia, which the pearl fiſhery renders famous, and its trade flouriſhing, of which the Banians have the direction, with very conſiderable profits.

GHILAN, a province in Perſia, lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Caſpian-Sea, which, with the province of Tabriſtan, bounds it on the eaſt, Perſian Irac on the ſouth, Aiderbeitzan on the weſt, and the heath of Mockan on the north.

This province is exceedingly well ſituated, having on one ſide the ſea, along which it lies in form of a creſcent, and on the other high mountains, by which it is ſo well ſeparated from all the reſt of Perſia, that there is no entrance to it on the land ſide but by very narrow paſſes, which can be very eaſily defended. Theſe mountains towards Perſia are nothing but frightful ruins and precipices; but towards the province of *Ghilan* they have a moſt delightful deſcent, being covered with all ſorts of fruit-trees. The country of *Ghilan* is the fineſt and moſt fruitful of all Perſia. It is watered by ſeveral fine rivers, which ſpring on all ſides from the mountains. The ſea on the coaſt abounds with fiſh, as do alſo the rivers that fall into it; and to ſuch a degree, that the farming out the privilege of fiſhing here brings in a very conſiderable revenue to the king. The cities in *Ghilan* are *Reſht* or *Raſcht*, *Keſker*, and *Aſtara*. The firſt wants nothing that can render a city agreeable, rich, and beautiful.

GILDER. The *gilding* of metals is a very profitable, and, at the ſame time, a dangerous buſineſs with reſpect to thoſe who perform the work, occaſioned by the quickſilver uſed in this art, which is apt to affect their nerves, and render their lives a burden to them; whence the trade is but in few hands, and ſome of them women. *Gilding* is performed with the following amalgama of gold and quickſilver: the gold in thin plates is heated in a crucible, and when juſt ready to flow, three or four times the weight of quickſilver is poured upon it, and being immediately quenched in water, both together become a ſoft ſubſtance, like butter. When the artiſt intends to gild, he rubs the piece to be gilt with *aqua fortis*, and then covers it with the amalgama. When it is all covered over and ſmooth, he holds it over a charcoal fire, by which means the mercury evaporates, and the gold remains upon the piece; the artiſt then rubs off all the roughneſſes, and, at the ſame time ſpreads the gold with an inſtrument called a ſcratch-bruſh; he then burniſhes the work, and this gives it the colour wanted. The *gilders* take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice. A journeyman may earn from fifteen ſhillings to a guinea a week; and a maſter may ſet up with about ſixty pounds.

*Gilding* in oil, or oily ſize, is uſed for domes, roofs of churches, ſtatues that are to ſtand in the weather, &c. For this purpoſe the Engliſh *gilders* generally adopt a gold ſize, made of yellow oker ground fine with water, and dried on a chalk ſtone, then ground up with a proper quantity of drying oil, to give it the ſtiffneſs required.

For *gilding* on a water ſize, the ſize is made of ſhreds of parchment, glove, or any other allum leather, boiled in water to the conſiſtence of a jelly. Wooden works and ſtucco are the only ones gilt in this way, which muſt, beſides, be ſheltered from the weather.

GILOLO. *See* MOLUCCA ISLES.

GINGER is a knotty, flattiſh root, of a ſomewhat fibrous ſubſtance, of a pale or yellowiſh colour, covered with a thin, duſky, pellicle, which is uſually taken off while it is freſh, before it is brought to us; of a hot, biting, aromatic taſte, and fragrant ſmell. It is brought from China, and ſome of our own colonies in America: the former is of a leſs fibrous ſubſtance than the other, and is uſually preferred. *Ginger* yields, upon diſtillation, a fiery, hot, eſſential oil, leſs grateful than the ſpice.

The Indians are very fond of *ginger*; they eat both the young ſhoots of the leaves, and the roots themſelves, cut ſmall in their ſallads and broths, and they make an excellent ſweet meat of them, preſerving them with ſugar.

*Ginger* is an excellent carminative and ſtomachic; it aſſiſts digeſtion, diſpels flatuſes, and takes off cholicy pains often almoſt inſtantaneouſly. It is alſo highly eſteemed by ſome as a cephalic, and is particularly ſaid to ſtrengthen the memory. It is often uſed as a corrective to purging medicines, and has the credit of being a great provocative to venery, eſpecially in the preſerved ſtate.

GINGERBREAD, is a kind of rich bread, whoſe flavour is heightened with ſpices, particularly ginger, from which it takes its name.

GINGERBREAD-BAKER. This, as well as the baker's, is a pretty laborious buſineſs, though it is not quite

ſo

ſo fatiguing, nor is the apprentice obliged, in common, to work by night, or to carry ſuch heavy loads by day. There are but few of this employment; and thoſe make *gingerbread* of ſeveral kinds from great cakes to farthing and halfpenny toys. It requires no more than the common education, nor any genius. The maſters take with an apprentice from five to twenty pounds, which they ſeldom exceed. The wages given to journeymen are not much different from thoſe given by a common baker; and a maſter may ſet up with ſixty or ſeventy pounds.

GINSENG, a root lately brought into Europe, and extolled with immoderate praiſes; but its great price has prevented its hitherto coming into general uſe.

It is an oblong root, never growing to any great ſize, its uſual ſtandard being about four or five inches in length, and its thickneſs that of one's little finger. It is ſeldom gathered much leſs than this, and rarely grows to be much larger. It is thickeſt at the top, and terminates in a very ſlender end at the bottom. It very rarely, however, continues ſingle its whole length, but uſually ſplits into two branches, at about two or three inches from the top: theſe have given fanciful people the idea of a man's two legs, and the upper or whole part of the root has been ſuppoſed to repreſent his body. It is of a tolerably firm texture; its ſurface is not perfectly ſmooth, but furrowed in different places with ſeveral wrinkles. It is moderately heavy and not over hard, and may be broke between the hands, if it has not been kept ſo damp as to make it tough, and at any time is eaſily cut through with a knife. It is of a browniſh colour on the outſide, and ſomewhat yelloviſh within, and is ſo pure and fine that it ſeems almoſt tranſparent. What is moſt ſingular is the formation of the top of the root, which, when ſent intire to us, is found compoſed of knots or tubera, placed over one another in an irregular manner. Theſe are formed of the bottom of the decayed ſtalks of the ſeveral preceding years; when the root is fair and intire, it is eaſy to know by them how old it is; but very old roots not being ſo much in repute, the people who gather *ginſeng* have often the precaution to cut off ſome, or even all theſe knobs, before they dry the root. The Orientals themſelves are ſo nice on this ſcore, that they will not uſe any root that is not brought to them perfect, with the evident marks of the upper knob being the real head, and there being but one or two under it.

*Ginſeng* is of a very agreeable and aromatic ſmell, though not very ſtrong, its taſte is acrid and aromatic, and withal ſomewhat bitter. It is to be choſen ſound and firm, moderately heavy, not too tough, and of a good ſmell. Before it is bought, it will be prudent to cut every root through; for the Chineſe, of whom we have it, are ſuch expert cheats, that they frequently find a way to introduce pieces of lead into it to increaſe the weight.

*Ginſeng* is produced in the greateſt plenty in the ſhadowy foreſts of China and Tartary, between the degrees of thirty-nine and forty-ſeven north, and there is of it in the ſame latitudes in America.

The Chineſe value the *ginſeng* ſo highly, that it ſells with them for three times its weight in ſilver. They are too well acquainted with it to let any adulterations paſs upon them: but it is no wonder, if at this diſtance, we readily accept the root of *ninzin*, which ſo much reſembles it, under its name.

The Chineſe, and indeed the Aſiatics in general, think the *ginſeng* almoſt an univerſal medicine; they have recourſe to it in all diſeaſes as the laſt remedy, and readily give themſelves over when it will not cure them. There is ſcarce a diſeaſe it is not recommended as a remedy for; but the virtues moſt generally believed to be in it, are thoſe of a reſtorative, a provocative, and a cordial. It is famous in the Eaſt for giving ſtrength and ſpirits to perſons who have diſabled themſelves by too free a uſe of women. They recommend it greatly alſo in the ſmall-pox, in fevers of all kinds, and in diſorders of the ſtomach and bowels, and tell us that diarrheas and dyſenteries are cured by it; but they caution people not to give it in too large doſes to perſons of florid ſanguine conſtitutions, on whatever occaſions it may be neceſſary to them.

The European phyſicians eſteem it a good medicine in convulſions, vertigoes, and all nervous complaints, and recommend it as one of the beſt reſtoratives known. Its doſe is from ten to twenty grains in powder, and from one drachm to two, to the pint in infuſion.

GIRDLER. The *girdlers* of London are very few in number; and have little to do in their own buſineſs during a peace; but, on the breaking out of a war, the m ſters are pretty ſure of making their fortunes, by the vaſt number of hands they are obliged to employ, occaſioned by the great demand for belts and other accoutrements for the uſe of the army. The lads put apprentice to this buſineſs require neither much ſtrength, genius, or learning; the maſters take about ten pounds with them.

By 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 12. *f.* 1, 2. *girdles*, or harneſs wrought for *girdles*, points, leather laces, purſes, pouches, pins, gloves, knives, hangers, tailors ſheers, ſciſſors, and irons, cupboards, tongs, fire-forks, gridirons, ſtocklocks, keys, hinges, and garnets, ſpurs, painted glaſſes, painted papers, painted forcers, painted images, painted cloths, beaten gold, or ſilver wrought in papers for painters, ſaddles, ſaddle-trees, horſe-harneſs, boots, bits, ſtirrops, buckles, chains, latten nails with iron ſhanks, turnets, hanging candleſticks, holy-water ſtops, chafing-diſhes, hanging lavers, curtain rings, cards for wool, Roan cards (except claps for garnets) ſheers, buckles for ſhoes, broches or ſpits, bells, hawks-bells, tin and leaden ſpoons, wire of latten and iron, iron candleſticks, grates, horns for lanthorns, may not be imported by ſtrangers to be ſold, upon forfeiture or the value.

GIRO, *or* AGITO. *See* ABUCCO.

GIRTHROP, *or* GIRTH-WEAVERS. This buſineſs requires neither any extraordinary abilities nor learning. The *girthrop-weavers* make the ſtuff of which *girths* are made by the ſadler, who cuts them into lengths, and ſews on the leather-ſtraps and buckles. There are few of them in London; and theſe take about five pounds with an apprentice, who ought to be pretty ſtrong; and may ſet up with twenty or thirty pounds. But this buſineſs is neither very profitable to the maſter nor the journeyman; which laſt may earn from ten to fourteen ſhillings a week.

GLAMORGANSHIRE. The ſouth part of this country is ſo fruitful as to be called the garden of Wales; yet its products are confined to cattle and corn, and the natives attendance thereon is their ſole employ.

GLARIS, the capital town of that canton in Switzerland, furniſhes green cheeſes, renowned for their goodneſs and medicinal virtues, given them by a certain inſerted herb, which alſo produces their colour, and they are called by the inhabitants *ſchabziguer*. Its ſlate quarries are reputed the fineſt in Europe, and furniſh the tops of tables of a ſurprizing bigneſs. This canton is rich in cattle, and the inhabitants very laborious; here is a great deal of cotton ſpun, part ſold, and the remainder employed in the manufactures of Switzerland; and ſome linens and ſtuffs are made here according to the cuſtom of the country.

GLASS, a kind of factitious, brittle, and tranſparent body, produced by the action of fire upon a fixed ſalt and ſand that readily melts.

Venice, for many years, excelled all Europe in the fineneſs of its glaſſes; but lately the Engliſh and French have excelled the Venetians; ſo that we are no longer ſupplied from abroad.

The materials at preſent made uſe of in the compoſition of glaſs, are a ſalt extracted chiefly from a kind of aſhes, called *pulverine* or *rochetta*, and ſand or ſtone. The aſhes called *pulverine*, are thoſe of a vegetable common in the Levant, called *kali*. Nothing makes finer and clearer glaſs than the common flint; but the charge of preparing it hinders the glaſs-men from much uſing it. When proper ſtones are not eaſily procured, the glaſs-men ſubſtitute a fine white ſand, ſuch as is dug near Maidſtone in Kent, for cryſtal glaſs; and a harder and more gritty ſort, ſuch as is brought from Woolwich in the ſame county, for green and bottle glaſs. But, when the artiſt propoſes a perfect colour and tranſparency, he adds a ſmall proportion of *manganeſe*, or *ſyderea*, a ſpecies of loadſtone, found in ſeveral parts of Germany, Italy, and even the Mendip-hills in Somerſetſhire.

The ſalt always dries in lumps; but, before it is fit for mixing with the ſand, &c. the lumps muſt be beaten to a groſs powder, and dried gently in a furnace. When it is intirely dry, it muſt be reduced to a fine powder and ſifted.

In like manner whatever ſtone is uſed in glaſs, it muſt be calcined, powdered very fine, and ſifted.

*Frit* is an equal proportion of ſalt and ſand, or powdered ſtone, mixed and incorporated together by a ſtrong fire in a furnace, ſo that this ſubſtance may be readily fuſed and turned into glaſs.

This *frit*, or *calx*, is of three ſorts; the fineſt is made of the ſalt extracted from *pulverine* and ſand, or flint-powder, of which cryſtal glaſs is made. A ſecond ſort is made of the aſhes of *pulverine* or *barilla*, without extracting the ſalt from them, of which is made the ordinary white glaſs. The third ſort is made of common aſhes, without any preparation, and will require ten or twelve hours baking: whereas it is ſufficient to bake the others about five hours, after they have been well mixed over a moderate fire.

For the drawback on exportation of Britiſh-made glaſs, *ſee* DRAWBACK.

A duty on foreign glaſs imported was granted from 25 March, 1746, without limitation, by 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 1, 2. This branch is, over and above all other cuſtoms, ſubſidies, and duties, to be paid by the importer, upon entry, and before landing.

| | The duty. |
|---|---|
| *Crown*, *plate*, and *flint glaſs*, for every lb. wt. | 0 0 8 |
| *Green glaſs*, or *other glaſs*, for every lb. wt. | 0 0 2 |
| *Bottles* and *flaſks*, containing the quantity of a quart each, for every dozen | 0 2 0 |
| Containing more or leſs than a quart, for every dozen quarts they contain | 0 2 0 |

To be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid, in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch ways, rules, and means, and other ſuch penalties and forfeitures, as the preſent duties upon imported manufactures of glaſs are by 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. Upon exportation, *not drawn back.*

*Glaſs*, to what duties liable. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 34. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 18. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 51. The duty upon earthern-ware, and half the duty upon glaſs taken away. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *cap.* 45. The remaining duty on glaſs taken away, 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 18. A duty of exciſe upon glaſs, 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 19. Penalty of exporting glaſs from Ireland. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 21. Duty on exportation, &c. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 16, &c.

GLASS-HOUSE. The boy, deſigned to be put apprentice to the maſter of a *glaſs-houſe*, ought to have a ſtrong conſtitution, and be capable of bearing great heats long together without the danger of fainting; and ſhould be naturally hardy: but no ſchool education is neceſſary, beſides reading, writing, and accompts. In both common and flint glaſs, the materials are vitrified by the conſtant and intenſe heat of the furnace, in which they are placed in large ſtrong earthen veſſels at every mouth of the furnace. When the glaſs is ſufficiently melted and fit for uſe, the workman puts into one of theſe mouths a long hollow iron rod or tube, and dipping it into the veſſel brings out a lump of melted glaſs; and turning the rod round to prevent its dropping off, blows through the rod, and rolling the glaſs on a ſtone forms the neck of a bottle. He then places the rod on a hook at the mouth of the furnace, and ſtill turning it round, blows out the belly of the bottle, which he finiſhes by gently rolling on the ſtone; and taking a piece of iron, forms the cavity at the bottom of the bottle, by preſſing in the ſoft yielding metal. This being done, and the bottle growing hard, he touches the neck of the bottle next the hollow rod with a cold iron; on which it breaks off, and lies upon the ſtone. The artiſt then heats the end of the rod and the little glaſs that ſtill adheres to it, and fixing it in the hollow he had made at the bottom, carries the bottle again to the mouth of the oven, and finiſhes the neck; when taking off the bottle as before, it is placed in a kind of oven over the furnace to harden.

In much the ſame manner every thing which paſſes through their hands is finiſhed by blowing, and moulding the ſoft glaſs into the form deſired; the whole proceſs being performed with amazing expedition. The common window glaſs, the making of which is a trade by itſelf, is alſo performed by blowing bladders of glaſs of a prodigious ſize, cutting each into two hemiſpheres, and ſuffering them to ſettle flat on the plane whereon they are laid.

The plate glaſs-maker, however, works in a different manner, and is likewiſe a diſtinct trade: for the plates of glaſs uſed for coach-windows, and looking-glaſſes, are caſt much in the ſame manner as the plumber caſts ſheets of lead; and theſe, coming rough from the hands of the maker, are obliged to be ground ſmooth and poliſhed, in order to render them perfectly tranſparent.

It is obſervable, that as the fires of *glaſs-houſes* muſt be conſtantly kept burning for many months together, every *glaſs-houſe* has two ſets of men, and that while the one reſts, the other is conſtantly at work. *Glaſs-houſes* are for the moſt part very advantageous to the proprietors, but require great ſums to enable them to carry them on. We are, however, not informed of the ſums given with apprentices: they are probably ſmall on account of the fatigue the boy muſt undergo; and the journeymen, in the ſeveral branches, have very large pay.

GLASS-GRINDER. The boy deſigned to be of this trade ought to be ſtrong, and capable of enduring cold and wet; little elſe being required to fit him for this buſineſs. The *glaſs-grinder* has the plate glaſs ſent to him rough; and it is his buſineſs to grind and poliſh it. For this purpoſe, he fixes the plate glaſs horizontally in a heavy wooden frame, and rubs it backwards and forwards upon a plane, on which ſand and water are conſtantly running. The glaſs, being thus on both ſides ground perfectly true, is afterwards poliſhed with emery and putty. Thoſe of this buſineſs take five or ſix pounds with an apprentice; who, when his time is expired, may earn about fifteen ſhillings a week, or with about ſixty pounds may ſet up maſter.

GLASS *and* PICTURE-FRAME CARVER. This buſineſs, which has been lately carried to great perfection, requires much ingenuity, a lively and elegant fancy, ſkill in drawing, with great neatneſs, foliages, fruit, flowers, birds, heads, &c. a good eye, and a ſteady hand. The frame being prepared, as in the following article, is ſent to the carver, who finiſhes it in two different manners, as the work requires, either carving in the wood entirely, and afterwards cauſing the work to be gilt, or cutting out the figures firſt roughly in the wood; after which the whole is covered with ſeveral coats of whiting to a conſiderable thickneſs; which, when dry, the carver wets with a bruſh, and finiſhes the figures, by making ſuch ſtrokes and embelliſhments on the whiting as is agreeable to his pattern. After this he either ſends the frame home, white as it is, or cauſes ſome parts of it or the whole to be gilt. But neither the frames finiſhed in wood, nor thoſe in the whiting, are entirely cut out of the ſolid; for all the figures that riſe above the plain of the frame are glued on before the carver begins to work. Thoſe of this buſineſs take about ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, if he is a good hand, may earn upwards of a guinea a week; or, with about twenty pounds, may ſet up for himſelf.

GLASS *and* PICTURE-FRAME MAKER. A boy deſigned for this buſineſs requires only a common genius, and no extraordinary education. The *glaſs and picture-frame makers* are a ſet of joiners, who make theſe frames for the carvers, which require but little ingenuity, as they only join pieces of deal roughly plained, in the ſhape and dimenſions required: only if the frame is to have any large holes in it, they cut them out in their proper places; or, if it is to have mouldings raiſed on the wood, theſe they put on; but the carver plants on the reſt of the figures. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may ſet up with ſo ſmall a ſum as ten or twenty pounds. The frame-maker for prints is a different trade.

GLASS-SELLER. Theſe are a ſet of ſhop-keepers, who deal very largely in all kinds of veſſels made of white flint glaſs; as decanters, mugs, drinking-glaſſes, ſalts, &c. either plain or figured, by being preſſed in a mould when making or cut. They alſo generally ſell figures to adorn chimney-pieces, &c. made of Bow and Chelſea china. They take about twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will require three or four hundred pounds to enable him to ſet up in a middling way for himſelf.

till it is drawn ſometimes much finer than a hair; and yet every part of the wire continues gilt. Silver wire is drawn in the ſame manner, only the ingot is not gilt. The wire is then ſent to the ſilver-flatter, and afterwards, being twiſted round ſilk by the ſilver thread ſpinners, forms gold or ſilver thread. The wire-drawer alſo makes purl, which is gold or ſilver wire twiſted upon a needle in a wheel: when the needle is full, it is pulled out, and the wire remains twiſted in rounds, like the windings of a very ſmall worm. This is uſed by embroiderers, and gold and ſilver button-makers. The wire-drawers are employed by the lacemen, who furniſh them with the plate, and pay ſo much an ounce for their labour. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice: a journeyman may earn three ſhillings a day, and a hundred pounds will ſet up a maſter.

The trade of *flatters* is ſometimes joined to that of the gold and ſilver wire-drawers; though there are others who keep flatting-mills for the flattening and ſpreading of pieces of plate, and follow no other buſineſs, which requires little more art than the bare management of the flatting-mill, that ſpreads ſilver plates flat, and flattens gold and ſilver wire, though finer than a hair, in order to their being twiſted round ſilk for the making of gold and ſilver thread. The *flatters* take about ten pounds with an apprentice, and give but ſmall wages to their journeymen.

GOLTSCHUT, a ſort of money, or rather a ſmall ingot of gold, that comes from China, and is regarded there rather as a commodity than current ſpecie; the Dutch give it this name, ſignifying in their language a golden boat, becauſe it is in this ſhape, though other nations call them gold cakes.

As neither in all China or Tonquin any gold or ſilver money is ſtruck, the natives cut thoſe two metals into bits of divers weights, calling the ſilver ones *taels*, and the gold ones *goliſchuts*. The latter ſerve in large payments, when the taels and copper money are inſufficient. Here are of two ſorts, the one of thirty-two ounces and one-ſeventh, and the other but half as much. When the Chineſe tranſport their *goldſchuts* into different parts of India, where they trade, the merchants they deal with commonly cut them in halves, as the Chineſe are ſo diſhoneſt as often to line theſe gold cakes with either copper or ſilver to a third of their ſuppoſed value.

The Japoneſe have alſo their *goltſchuts*, though only of ſilver, which, being of various weights, are conſequently of different value.

GOODS *inwards*, brought from beyond the ſeas, may not be taken up, or laid on land, out of any veſſel, lighter, or boat, being not in leak or wreck (except fiſh taken by Britiſh, beſtials, and ſalt) but at lawful hours, and only upon ſuch open places, keys, or wharfs, as ſhall be appointed by his majeſty's commiſſion out of the court of Exchequer, without ſpecial ſufferance and leave from the officer of the cuſtoms; upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and a hundred pounds by the maſter: offenders not revealing their offence within one month, are to forfeit a hundred pounds. 1 *Eliz.* *c.* 11. *ſ.* 2, 3, 7. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7, 14.

Imported into the port of London, may be unladen or landed at any of the lawful keys between the Tower of London and London-bridge, and between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the 10th day of September to the 10th day of March, and between the hours of ſix of the clock in the morning and ſix in the evening, from the 10th of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice to the proper officers: officers refuſing to be preſent, to forfeit for every default five pounds.

Imported into other ports, may not be taken up, diſcharged, and laid on land, out of any ſhip, lighter, &c. being not in a leak or wreck, except fiſh taken by Britiſh, and ſalt, but only in the day-light, that is, from the 1ſt of March, to the 30th of September, betwixt ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, and from the 30th of September to the 1ſt of March, between the hours of ſeven in the morning and four in the afternoon. 1 *Eliz.* *c.* 11. *ſ.* 2.

Wharfingers, or their ſervants, landing, or knowingly ſuffering to be landed, any goods or merchandizes, prohibited or unaccuſtomed, without the preſence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours (except in the port of Hull) are to forfeit one hundred pounds. 1 *Eliz.* *c.* 11. *ſ.* 2, 3. 13 and 14. *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

Of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muſcovy or Ruſſia, or of any of the dominions of the emperor thereof, all maſts, timber, boards, ſalt, pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, flax, raiſins, figs, prunes, olive oil, corn or grain, ſugar, pot-aſhes, wine, vinegar, aqua vitæ or brandy, muſt be imported only in ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, or Ireland; and currants, and all goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Turkey, in ſhips Britiſh-built; except ſuch ſhips as are of the built of the country whereof the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or of ſuch port where the ſaid goods can only, or moſt uſually are firſt ſhipped for tranſportation; on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 8.

But during the late war with France, this was not to extend to prevent any perſon importing the ſaid goods in ſhipping built in Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or any of the lands, iſlands, dominions, or territories belonging to his majeſty in Aſia, Africa, or America, provided the maſter and three fourths of the mariners are Britiſh, or of the country of which the ſaid goods were the growth, production, or manufacture: but if ſuch ſhips are the property of foreigners, although Britiſh-built, the goods are to pay aliens, and all other duties, in the ſame manner as if they were foreign built. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 19, 20.

Of the growth, production, or manufacture of Aſia, Africa, or America, may be imported only in Britiſh ſhips legally manned, or in ſhips belonging to his majeſty's plantations there, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

Goods of foreign growth, production, or manufacture (that is, of Aſia, Africa, and America only, and not of Europe) may be ſhipped, and brought from no other country, but that of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from ſuch ports where thoſe goods can only, or have moſt uſually been firſt ſhipped for tranſportation; and in Britiſh ſhips, or plantation ſhipping legally navigated; on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

But not to extend to goods of the Streights and Levant Seas, and Eaſt-India goods, which may be brought from the uſual places of lading, in Britiſh ſhips duly manned, though thoſe places be not the very places of their growth, &c. but this exemption is repealed as to raw ſilk and mohair yarn of the product or manufacture of Aſia, which can be imported from no parts or places in the Streights or Levant Seas, but ſuch as are within the dominion of the grand ſeignior. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 12, 13. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 1. Nor to goods of Perſia brought through Ruſſia by perſons free of the Ruſſia company. 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 1. Nor to gum ſenega imported from any place in Europe by Britiſh, in Britiſh-built ſhips legally navigated. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1. Nor to goods of the growth, &c. of the Spaniſh or Portugueſe plantations; which may be brought by any perſon from Spain, Portugal, or the Weſtern Iſlands, commonly called Azores, or Madeira, or Canary Iſlands, reſpectively, in Britiſh ſhips. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 14. 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 4. Nor to bullion, nor to goods taken as prize by any ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, &c. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15. Nor to cochineal, nor indigo. Nor to ſpice by licence, which may not be imported from the Netherlands or Germany.

*Goods inwards.* Of the product and manufacture of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, and Sark, may, upon certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief, and oath before the magiſtrates of Jerſey and Guernſey, that they are of the growth, &c. of the ſaid iſlands, be imported into Great-Britain, duty free (except ſuch exciſe or other duty as is now, or ſhall hereafter for the time being be due and payable for the like goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great-Britain.) 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 5.

But goods of the product of any foreign country, imported into thoſe iſlands, or foreign goods in part or fully manufactured there, are, upon importation into Great-Britain, liable to the ſame duties as if imported directly from the place of their product. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 7.

Bulk may be broken in any lawful port, and cuſtom paid for no more goods than are entered and landed.

Small parcels of fine goods, or other goods found in cabbins, cheſts, trunks, or other ſmall package, or in any private place; and all other ſorts of goods for which the duties are not paid or ſecured within twenty days after the ſhip's entry, may be brought on ſhore by the officers of the Cuſtoms, and ſecured in his majeſty's ſtorehouſes till the duties be ſatisfied, unleſs the ſaid officers have a juſt cauſe to allow a longer time. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 4.

The officers may ſtay and remain on board till all the goods are delivered and diſcharged out of the ſaid ſhips.

Permitted to be taken up by bills at ſight or view, muſt be landed at the moſt convenient keys, and there, or in his majeſty's ſtorehouſe of the port, be meaſured, weighed, and numbered by the officers, who are to perfect the entry, and return the ſame under their hands, the next day, to the collector, &c. upon forfeiture of one hundred pounds. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 21.

Not reported, and found on board any ſhip without payment of duty, after clearing the ſhip by the proper officers, and diſcharging the tideſmen or watchmen from their attendance, are forfeited; and if ſuch goods have been concealed, the maſter, purſer, or other perſon taking charge of the ſhip, forfeits one hundred pounds. 13 and 14 *Car.* *c.* 11. *ſ.* 5. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 4. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

No perſon, denizen, or ſtranger, may enter any goods, inwards or outwards, in the name of any other perſon than the very owner, being not ſold, bargained or contracted for, to or with any perſon before entry, or before the arrival of the goods in parts beyond the ſeas, upon forfeiture thereof, or their value; and the offender to ſuffer impriſonment, and make fine thereof at the king's pleaſure. 3 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Eliz.* *c.* 11. *ſ.* 6.

One Britiſh man may cuſtom in his own name the goods of another Britiſh man, and ſo may one merchant-ſtranger enter the goods of another merchant-ſtranger: but he that ſo enters the goods of other perſons either inwards or outwards, that the king loſeth his duty, forfeits the goods to the king, and the value thereof to the party grieved; and likewiſe all his own goods and chattels perſonal for ever: the proſecution to be in three years after offence committed. 1 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 3, 4, 5. 2 and 3. *Edw.* VI. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 4, 5. 1 *Eliz.* *c.* 11. *ſ.* 6.

Imported, not rated in the firſt column of Rates. The ſeveral proviſions and clauſes for aſcertaining their values, according to the oaths or affirmations of the importers are repealed after the 25th of March, 1725, in regard to ſuch goods as are expreſſed and rated in the additional Book of Rates. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1.

And whereas it may happen, that ſeveral goods and merchandizes may be imported, which are omitted to be rated in the Book of Rates made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles the Second, or in the additional Book of Rates, or in ſome particular act of parliament; in ſuch caſe the value and price of ſuch goods and merchandizes for the old ſubſidy (other than of thoſe of India, Perſia, or China) ſhall be aſcertained by the oath or affirmation of the merchant, in the prefence of the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, or any two of them: and the better to prevent frauds, and that all merchants may be upon an equal foot in trade, the collector and comptroller, or other proper officers of the Cuſtoms, may open, view, and examine ſuch goods and merchandizes, paying duty *ad valorem*, and compare the ſame with the value and price thereof ſo ſworn to, or affirmed; and if upon ſuch view and examination it ſhall appear, that ſuch goods or merchandizes are not valued by ſuch oath or affirmation, according to the true value and price thereof, according to the true intent and meaning hereof; that then, and in ſuch caſe, the importer and proprietor ſhall, on demand made in writing by the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port where ſuch goods or merchandizes are entered, deliver, or cauſe to be delivered, all ſuch goods and merchandizes into his majeſty's warehouſe at the port of importation, for the uſe and benefit of the crown; and upon ſuch delivery, the cuſtomer and collector of ſuch port, with the privity of the comptroller, ſhall, out of any money in the hands of ſuch cuſtomer or collector, ariſing by cuſtoms, or other duties belonging to the crown, pay to ſuch importer or proprietor, the value of ſuch goods and merchandizes ſo ſworn to, or affirmed, for the ſaid old ſubſidy, as aforeſaid, together with an addition of the cuſtoms and other duties paid for ſuch goods, and of ten pounds *per centum* to ſuch value, taking a receipt for the ſame from ſuch importer or proprietor, in full ſatisfaction for the ſaid goods, as if they had been regularly ſold: and the reſpective commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms ſhall cauſe the ſaid goods to be fairly and publicly ſold for the beſt advantage, and out of the produce thereof, the money ſo paid, or advanced, as aforeſaid, ſhall be repaid to ſuch cuſtomer or collector, with the privity of the comptroller, to be replaced to ſuch funds from whence the ſame was borrowed, and the overplus (if any) ſhall be paid into his majeſty's Exchequer, towards the ſinking fund, by the title of *Unrated goods imported, undervalued.*

Liable to duties.—Imported into any port, place, or creek of this realm, by way of merchandize; unſhipped, to be laid on land before the ſaid duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered to the collector thereof, or his deputy, with the conſent and agreement of the comptroller and ſurveyor there, or one of them at the leaſt, or agreed for in the cuſtom-houſe, are forfeited. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 7. 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 5. —— *c.* 4. *ſ.* 1. 2 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 4. *ſ.* 56. 4 and 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 5. *ſ.* 4. 5 and 6 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 7. *ſ.* 7. 6 and 7 *W.* III. c. 7. *ſ.* 4. 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 3. 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 8. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 45. *ſ.* 9. 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 3. 2 and 3 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *ſ.* 2. 3 and 4 *Ann.* *c.* 5. *ſ.* 2. 3 and 4 *Ann.* *c.* 4. *ſ.* 7. 8 *Ann.* *c.* 7. *ſ.* 27. 8 —— *c.* 9. *ſ.* 2. 9 —— *c.* 6. *ſ.* 12. 9 —— *c.* 11. *ſ.* 5. 9 —— *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 10 —— *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2, 3. 10 —— *c.* 26. *ſ.* 4, 8, 47. 12 —— *c.* 9. *ſ.* 14. 12 —— *c.* 16. *ſ.* 1. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 5. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 47. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 7.

Porters, carmen, watermen, or others, aſſiſting in the landing of goods, without a warrant and an officer, may be apprehended by a warrant from a juſtice of the peace; and being convicted by the oath of two witneſſes may, for the firſt offence, be committed to gaol, till they find ſurety for their good behaviour; and for the ſecond offence, to lie in priſon two months without bail, or till they be diſcharged by the court of Exchequer, &c. or pay five pounds to the ſheriff. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

Not only goods liable to duties unſhipped with intent to be laid on land before the ſaid duties are paid or ſecured, or prohibited goods imported, are forfeited; but likewiſe the boats, hoys, veſſels, horſes, and carriages employed in removing them; and the perſons aſſiſting, or otherwiſe concerned in the unſhipping of the ſaid goods, or to whoſe hands they ſhall knowingly come, forfeit treble the value of the goods. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7. 8 *Ann.* *c.* 7.

The ſeizure of ſuch veſſels, if of the burthen of fifteen tons or under, and of the horſes or other carriages, may be adjuſted by two or more juſtices of the peace, in the ſame manner as brandy, &c. by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 16, 17. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Cuſtomable or prohibited, found by an officer in the cuſtody of any perſon being in a boat, &c. on the water, or coming directly from the water-ſide, without the preſence of an officer, or found upon credible information in any houſe, &c. may be ſent to his majeſty's warehouſe, till proof be made by oath, before a juſtice of the peace, or other proper perſon, or otherwiſe (to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners in London, or of the principal officers in the out-ports, in order to be forthwith tranſmitted to the commiſſioners for their directions) of the payment of the duty, or that they were bought in a lawful way of trade, or compounded for, or condemned in the court of Exchequer. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 39, 42.

Such proof not made within ten days after the ſtop, the goods to be ſeized and proſecuted. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 40.

Upon proſecution, proof to lie on the claimer. Verdict given for the claimer, he may recover reaſonable coſts of ſuit. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 41.

Damaged by ſuch ſtop, action may be brought againſt the officer. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 42.

May be profecuted by the officer, notwithſtanding the commiſſioners directions for delivery; or delivery not ordered, the proprietor may ſue for the recovery. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 43.

Perſons, being more than five in company, carrying arms, or wearing any diſguiſe, paſſing within twenty miles of the ſea coaſts with foreign goods, landed without entry, and reſiſting officers, to be deemed felons, and to be tranſported to the Britiſh plantations for ſeven years. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Offenders diſcovering two or more of their accomplices, within two months, and before conviction, to be acquitted, and to receive of the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms or Exciſe forty pounds for each; provided the value of the goods recovered to his majeſty does exceed fifty pounds.

The like reward, beſides former recompences, for others diſcovering within three months. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 7, 8, 9. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Prohibited or run goods liable to cuſtoms, exciſe, or inland duty, knowingly harboured or concealed, forfeited, with treble the value. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 16.

The ſingle value, or worth of ſuch goods, is to be taken according to the price that the beſt ſort of that commodity is then ſold for in London. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 17.

Clandeſtinely run or imported, knowingly received or bought, before legally condemned, the offenders, upon conviction upon the oath or oaths of one or more credible witneſs or witneſſes, before one or more juſtice or juſtices of the peace, are to forfeit twenty pounds; one half to the poor of the pariſh, and the other half to the informer, or to ſuffer three months impriſonment. 7. *Geo.* I. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 19. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 10. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Prohibited goods, or goods liable to duties, fraudulently and clandeſtinely imported, inſured to be delivered, the inſurers, their aiders, abettors and aſſiſtants, and the perſons inſured, or receiving the ſaid goods, are for every offence to forfeit five hundred pounds each, beſides all other penalties. 4 and 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 15. *ſ.* 14, 15, 16, 18.

The inſurer, conveyer, or manager, diſcovering the fraud, is to keep the inſurance money, and be diſcharged of the penalties, and to have half the forfeiture of the inſured.

The inſured diſcovering, is to receive back the inſurance money, to have half the forfeiture of the inſurer, and be diſcharged of his own forfeiture.

Proſecutions for the ſaid penalties, may be commenced by any perſons within twelve months. 8 and 9 *W.* III. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 2.

Prohibited, or actually run, or pretended to have been run, offered to ſale, are forfeited, with treble the value, and the package; and may be ſeized by the perſon to whom offered, or by any officer of the Cuſtoms or Exciſe. The goods to be ſecured in the neareſt warehouſe of the Cuſtoms, Exciſe, or inland duty, to which they are reſpectively ſubject; if within the bills of mortality, within twenty-four hours, or in any other place, forty-eight hours after ſeizure. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 18, 19.

Such goods bought, are forfeited, with treble the value, and the package; and may be ſeized by the ſeller, or any officer of the Cuſtoms or Exciſe; and muſt be ſecured in the like manner as ſuch goods offered to ſale. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 20, 21.

Buyer and ſeller not to be both proſecuted for the ſame goods, but the firſt proſecutor to be acquitted. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 21.

A proſecution for ſuch goods not commenced by the ſeizer within one month, the warehouſe-keeper may proſecute. 11. *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ* 12.

Perſons guilty of the running of cuſtomable and prohibited goods, or of receiving ſuch goods, knowing them to have been run, may be proſecuted for the ſame by action, bill, plaint, or information; and thereupon a capias in the firſt proceſs (ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for) may iſſue, and the offenders muſt give ſufficient bail of natural-born ſubjects or denizens, to appear, &c. or yield their bodies to priſon. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Any perſon arreſted and impriſoned by virtue of a writ of capias, or information relating to the Cuſtoms, making affidavit before the judge of the court where the action is brought, or before any perſon commiſſioned by ſuch court, that he is not worth five pounds, beſides his wearing apparel, and thereupon petitioning the court to be admitted to defend himſelf in *formâ pauperis*, the judge may aſſign council, and appoint an attorney and clerk of the court to adviſe and carry on his legal defence, without fee or reward. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 8.

The Treaſury may compound and agree for debts incurred for the Cuſtoms, or other duties of goods clandeſtinely imported before the 12th day of May 1723; and upon payment of the compoſition-money, to cauſe the remainder of the debt to be diſcharged, and to apply the compoſition money paid, in proportion to the ſeveral branches to which it belongs. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 32.

Salved out of any ſtranded ſhips, except wrecked goods, or jetſham, flotſham, or legan, after the charges of ſalvage, &c. are paid, are liable to the ſame duties, and entitled to the ſame drawbacks, as if regularly imported. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 13.

Brought into his majeſty's ſtorehouſes for ſecurity of the duties, and remaining there ſix months unentered, are to be ſold by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, by publick auction or inch of candle; the produce whereof is firſt to be applied to the payment of the freight, primage, and charges of warehouſe-room, next the duties, and the overplus to be paid to the proprietor, or his order. 12 *Ann.* ſeſſ. 2. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 11. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 19.

Robbed on the ſeas, and afterwards brought to Great-Britain, the owner may prove his property by the marks, or by his chart or cocket, or by good and lawful merchants; or if ſtranded, to be delivered upon the like proof ſatisfying the ſalvers. 27 *Edw.* III. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1.

Upon information given upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, that three or more perſons are or have been aſſembled, in order to aſſiſt in the running of goods, &c. and armed with fire-arms or other offenſive weapons, the juſtice is to grant a warrant for apprehending them, and (if upon examination he find cauſe) to commit them to the county-gaol, without bail or mainprize, till diſcharged by due courſe of law.

Any ſuch perſon convicted of being ſo aſſembled and armed, in order to aſſiſt in the clandeſtine running, landing, reſcuing, or carrying away prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, is to be tranſported as a felon for ſeven years. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 10.

For apprehending any of the ſaid offenders, the reward is fifty pounds for each perſon convicted.

Any perſon maimed or wounded in apprehending, or endeavouring to apprehend, or purſuing any of the ſaid offenders, is to receive fifty pounds over and above any other reward he is by this act intitled to; if killed, it is to be paid to his executors, &c. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 11.

Any of the ſaid offenders diſcovering, within three months after the offence, two or more of his accomplices to the commiſſioners of Cuſtoms or Exciſe, ſo that two at leaſt be convicted, is to be diſcharged of his offence, and receive fifty pounds reward. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 12.

Two or more perſons found paſſing together within five miles of the ſea or a navigable river with a horſe or any carriage laden with more than ſix pounds of tea, or five gallons of brandy or other ſpirits, not having paid the duty, and without a permit, or with any other foreign goods above the value of thirty pounds ſterling, landed without entry and payment of the duty, and carrying any offenſive arms, or wearing a vizard maſk, &c. when paſſing with ſuch commodities, or forcibly obſtructing the officers, are to be deemed runners of foreign goods within the meaning of 8 Geo. I. cap. 18.

The *onus probandi* to lie upon the perſons found with the goods.

Every perſon convicted of any of the ſaid offences, is to be tranſported as a felon for ſeven years. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 13.

All the goods ſo found, and the cheſts, bags, caſks, and other package thereof, the weapons and arms, with the furniture of the horſes and cattle, and of the carriages, are forfeited. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 14.

Any perſon maimed or wounded in apprehending, or endeavouring to apprehend, or in purſuing any ſuch offender, is to receive fifty pounds over and above any other reward he is by this act intitled to: if killed, it is to be paid to his executors, &c. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 15.

Any

Any perſon diſcovering to the commiſſioners of Cuſtoms or Exciſe any of the ſaid offenders, within three months after the offence, is to receive fifty pounds for every one convicted, over and above any other reward he may, by any law now in being, be intitled to. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 16.

Any perſon lurking, waiting, or loitering within five miles of the ſea, or navigable river, may (upon information to be given upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, that there is reaſon to ſuſpect it is with intent to aſſiſt in the running, &c. of prohibited or uncuſtomed goods) be apprehended by a warrant, and carried before a juſtice of the peace; and not giving a ſatisfactory account of himſelf to the juſtice, he is to be committed to the houſe of correction, to be whipped, and kept to hard labour, for any time not exceeding one month. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 18.

But if ſuch perſon deſire time to clear himſelf of the accuſation, he is to be committed to the common gaol till he gives a ſatisfactory account of himſelf, or finds ſufficient ſecurity, to the approbation of the juſtice, not to be guilty of any of the ſaid offences. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 19.

The informer is to be paid by the commiſſioners of Cuſtoms or Exciſe, twenty ſhillings per head for every offender taken. 9 *Geo.* II. *c* 35. *ſ.* 18.

Any waterman, carman, porter, or other perſon employed in carrying goods prohibited, run, or clandeſtinely imported, upon whom, or in whoſe cuſtody the ſame are found, and being thereof convicted upon oath of a credible witneſs, or confeſſion of the party, before a juſtice of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, or offender found, is to forfeit treble the value; one moiety to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh where the offence is committed: to be recovered by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant from the juſtice.

For want of diſtreſs, the offender is to be ſent to the houſe of correction, to be whipped, and kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding three months. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 21.

Goods taken in at ſea by any ſhip or veſſel, or put out of any ſhip or veſſel within four leagues from the coaſt, without payment of the duty (unleſs in caſe of neceſſity, or other lawful reaſon, notice whereof muſt be given to the chief officer of the port where they firſt arrive) are forfeited, and the maſter or perſon having charge of the veſſel into which they are taken, and alſo the veſſel out of which they are taken, and all perſons concerned, are to forfeit treble the value; and the veſſels into which the goods are unſhipped and taken in, are alſo forfeited, unleſs exceeding the burden of 100 tons. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 23.

Found concealed on board any ſhip after the maſter's making his report at the cuſtom-houſe, and not mentioned in his report, are forfeited.

The maſter, purſer, or perſon having the charge of the veſſel (if it appears they were any ways conſenting, or privy to the concealment) are to forfeit treble the value. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 27.

Any officer on board a veſſel within the limits of any port of this kingdom, being forcibly obſtructed, wounded, or beaten in the execution of his duty, the offender and his aſſiſtants are to be tranſported as other felons, for any time not exceeding ſeven years. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 28.

Keeper of an alehouſe, tavern, &c. knowingly entertaining any perſon who abſconds for obſtructing or abuſing officers, or for any offence againſt the laws for preventing frauds in the cuſtoms or exciſe; or who has made his eſcape after having been committed to priſon for the ſaid offence, or flies from juſtice after conviction, is to forfeit one hundred pounds, and be rendered incapable of having a licence for the future: provided public notice has been given of the perſons abſconding ſix days before in two ſucceſſive Gazettes, and in writing upon the door of the pariſh church where he laſt dwelt before his abſconding. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 30. and 31.

Any perſons, to the number of three or more, armed with fire-arms or offenſive weapons, being aſſembled in order to aſſiſt, or being actually aſſiſting in the running, landing, or carrying away prohibited goods, or goods liable to any duties which have not been paid or ſecured; or in relanding goods exported upon debenture or certificate, or in refcuing the ſame after ſeizure from an officer of the revenue, or his aſſiſtant, or from the place where lodged by them; or in refcuing any perſon apprehended for any offence, made felony by an act relating to the revenue, or in preventing the apprehending any ſuch perſon; or in the illegal exportation of wool, or other goods prohibited to be exported, or in the carrying them in order thereto; or if any perſon having his face blacked, or wearing a vizard maſk, or other diſguiſe, when paſſing with ſuch goods, or aſſaulting or obſtructing any officer in the ſeizing ſuch goods: alſo every perſon maiming, or dangerouſly wounding any officer in his attempt to board any veſſel within the limits of any port, or ſhooting at, maiming, or dangerouſly wounding him when on board, are, if convicted thereof, to be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death; and if convicted in Scotland, to ſuffer death, and confiſcation of moveables. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 1.

If any perſon is charged with any of the ſaid offences, by information upon the oath of a credible perſon ſigned by him, before a juſtice of the peace, or one of the juſtices of the court of King's Bench, if committed in England; or before the lord juſtice general, or one of the lords of juſticiary, or a juſtice of the peace, if in Scotland; ſuch juſtice, &c. reſpectively, is to certify, under his hand and ſeal, and return the information to one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate, who is to lay it before his majeſty in privy-council; who may there make an order for the offender to ſurrender himſelf, within forty days after the firſt publication in the London Gazette, to one of the juſtices, &c. above mentioned, according as the offence was committed, in England or Scotland reſpectively. This order is to be publiſhed in the two ſucceſſive Gazettes, and to be ſent to the ſheriff of the county where the offence was committed, who is to cauſe it to be proclaimed within fourteen days, in the market-place of two market-towns of the county near where the offence was committed, on the market days, between the hours of ten in the morning and two in the afternoon, and a copy to be fixed in ſome public place of the ſaid towns. The offender, upon his ſurrender, is to be committed to gaol without bail or mainprize, that he may be forth coming to anſwer the charge; if he does not ſurrender, or eſcapes after ſurrender, he is to be deemed convicted and attainted of felony without benefit of clergy, in England, or convicted of a capital crime in Scotland, and execution may be awarded accordingly. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 2. 26. *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

If any perſon, ordered to ſurrender as above, ſhould be taken and ſecured before the time appointed for his ſurrender, no further proceedings are to be had upon the order made in council, but he is to be brought to trial by the ordinary courſe of law. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 4. 26. *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

Perſons knowingly harbouring, receiving, concealing, aiding, abetting, or ſuccouring any offender as above, after the time appointed for his ſurrender (and profecuted within one year after the offence) are to be tranſported as felons for ſeven years; and returning into Great Britain or Ireland before the expiration thereof, to ſuffer as perſons attainted of felony, without benefit of clergy. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 3. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

But his majeſty's court of King's Bench, or any of the judges thereof, or the court of juſticiary in Scotland, or any of the judges thereof, may bail any perſon committed for felony upon this act, and not convicted or attainted thereof, in ſuch manner as they may by law in other caſes of felony. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 12. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

Offences made felony by an act relating to the revenue of Cuſtoms or Exciſe, may be tried in any county of England, as if the fact had been committed therein; provided that no attainder for felony upon this act ſhall work corruption of blood, loſs of dower, or forfeiture of lands or tenements. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 5. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

Whoever apprehends or diſcovers any offender in England, advertiſed as above, who has not ſurrendered himſelf within forty days, and cauſes him to be brought before a juſtice of the King's Bench, or a juſtice of the peace for London or Middleſex, is to be paid five hundred pounds for every offender (within one month after execution is awarded) by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms or Exciſe reſpectively, who are to divide the reward among the perſons concerned, in ſuch proportions as they think reaſonable;

able; and if the diſcoverer is any ſuch offender (againſt whom no ſuch order of council has been made) he is, beſides his ſhare of reward, to be diſcharged from his offence, and all former like offences, for which no proſecution has been commenced. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 10. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

Perſons loſing a limb or an eye, or otherwiſe grievouſly maimed or wounded, in apprehending, or endeavouring to apprehend, or making purſuit after ſuch offenders, to be paid fifty pounds, beſides any other reward they are entitled to, as apprehenders by this act: and if ſuch perſons are killed, their exeeutors or adminiſtrators (laying proof thereof before the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms or Exciſe) to be paid one hundred pounds. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 10. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

Any offender in England, before ſuch order in counell is made, diſcovering his accomplices, and cauſing them to be apprehended, ſo as two at leaſt be convicted, is to be paid fifty pounds for eaeh, beſides being diſcharged of his own offence, and all former offences of the like nature, for whieh no proſeeution has been commenced. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 11. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

All which rewards are to be paid by the receiver-general of the Cuſtoms, or caſhier of Exciſe reſpectively, upon an order from the commiſſioners, and to be allowed of in their accounts as money paid to his majeſty. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 10, 11. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

If any officer of the revenue, or other perſon employed in ſeizing, conveying, or ſecuring any wool, or other goods forfeited; or in endeavouring to apprehend any offender againſt this act, ſhall be beat, wounded, maimed, or killed, by any offender againſt this act; or the goods reſcued by perſons ſo armed as aforeſaid (unleſs the offender is apprehended and convicted within ſix calendar months after the fact) the rape, or lath, or hundred where the fact was committed in England, is to make ſatisfaction not exceeding forty pounds, for the damages by beating, wounding, or maiming, and not exeeeding two hundred pounds for damages by loſs of the goods, and to pay to the executors or adminiſtrators for each perſon killed one hundred pounds, to be levied upon the inhabitants by a proportionable tax; and actions to be proſeeuted in the ſame manner as directed by 8 Geo. II. cap. 16. with reſpect to damages reeovered upon hundreds in eaſes of robbery. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 6. 8. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

No perſon to recover ſueh damage, unleſs he cauſe notice to be given of the offence within four days to two or more of the inhabitants of ſome town, village, or hamlet near the plaee; and unleſs within eight days after he declares upon oath, before a juſtiee of the peace of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, whether he knows any perſon coneerned, and is bound by reeognizanee to proſeeute ſueh as he knows; and unleſs he alſo gives ſuch notiee, and enters into ſueh recognizanee, as is required by 8 Geo. II. cap. 16. of perſons robbed, and unleſs the action is commeneed within a year. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 7. 9. 26. *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

GOODS *outwards*, may not be laden, or put off from any key or wharf, into any veſſel, lighter, or boat (except fiſh taken by Britiſh, ſea coal, ſtone, and beſtial) in order to be exported, but at lawful hours, and at ſuch open plaees, keys, or wharfs, as ſhall be appointed by his majeſty's commiſſion out of the eourt of Exchequer, without ſpeeial ſufferanee and leave from the officers of the Cuſtoms; upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and one hundred pounds by the maſter. 1 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 2. 3. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. 7. 14.

The lawful hours for exportation, the ſame as for importation; for whieh *ſee* GOODS *inwards*.

Exported, in whoſe name to be entered. *See* GOODS *inwards*.

Liable to duties, ſhipped or put into any boat or veſſel, with intent to be exported, before the ſaid duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered or agreed for in the cuſtom-houſe, are forfeited. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4. 6. *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 2. 12 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 14.

Liable to duties outwards, or prohibited to be exported, ſhipped without a warrant, or without the preſenee of a proper officer of the Cuſtoms, are forfeited, or the value. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 18.

Liable to duties, ſhipped ſeeretly, and before payment thereof, eſeaping the diſcovery of the officers, and exported to parts beyond the ſeas; the owner to forfeit double the value of ſuch goods, aecording to the Book of Rates, exeept for eoals. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 9.

Prohibited or uncuſtomed, except jewels, may be brought on ſhore, from any ſhip, by the officers of the cuſtoms. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 4.

Wharfingers, or their ſervants, ſhipping off, or ſuffering to be water-born at or from their wharfs, &c. any goods or merchandizes prohibited or uncuſtomed, without the preſence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours (exeept the port of Hull) or goods paſſing by certificate, waſte-cocket, or otherwiſe, without the preſence of, or notice given to, one or more officers, are to forfeit one hundred pounds. 1 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 2. 3. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

Taken in from the ſhore into any bark, hoy, lighter, &c. in order to be carried on board any ſhip outward bound, without a warrant, and the preſence of one or more officers, ſuch bark, &c. is forfeited. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

Porters, carmen, &c. aſſiſting in the unlawful ſhipping of goods, ſubject to the ſame penalties as for the illegal landing. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

Being the property of any merchant born denizen, taken by enemies or pirates, or periſhed at ſea, upon due proof before the Treaſury, or chief baron of the Exchequer, and certificate thereof to the collector of the port, goods of the like value in cuſtom may be ſhipped off duty free. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 5.

Foreign, having paid all duties inwards, and having been kept in the merchants hands in regard of bad ſales, after one year is elapſed, may be exported, without payment of any ſubſidy outwards.

Prohibited to be worn here, and foreign goods, ſhipped for exportation, and afterwards unſhipped or relanded, unleſs in diſtreſs, or in the preſenee of an officer, are forfeited; and the maſter permitting the ſame, forfeits the value thereof; and the perſons to whoſe hands they ſhall come, knowing of the relanding, are to forfeit double the value, unleſs they make diſcovery to the officers of the Cuſtoms within ſix days. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 6. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

Whereon there is a drawback, bounty, or premium, or goods prohibited to be uſed here, or pepper, after entry, and before or after ſhipping, the officers of the Cuſtoms may open, and ſtrictly examine any bale, truſs, cheſt, or other paekage, to ſee if they are right entered. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 17.

If found to be right entered, the ſame muſt be repacked at the officer's charge, which the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms are to allow, if they think it reaſonable. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 17.

But if found to be leſs in quantity or value, than expreſſed in the exporter's indorſement upon his entry, or entered under a wrong denomination, whereby the king would have been defrauded, are forfeited, with the benefit of the drawback or bounty, and the value thereof. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 17.

Any perſon who puts, or cauſes to be put on board any veſſel or boat, not bound directly to ſome port in Great-Britain or Ireland, or in ſome other of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, any tools or utenſils commonly uſed in, or proper for the preparing, working up, or finiſhing the woollen or ſilk manufactures, forfeits the tools, &c. and two hundred pounds, to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information in any court of record at Weſtminſter, court of ſeſſions in Scotland, or in any other of the four courts at Dublin. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 3.

Any maſter of a veſſel or boat knowingly permitting them to be put on board, forfeits one hundred pounds, to be recovered in the ſame manner; and if the veſſel belongs to his majeſty, the captain to forfeit one hundred pounds, and his employment, and to be incapable of ſerving the erown. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 5.

Such tools, &c. may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, or officer of the revenue in Ireland; and after condemnation, publickly ſold to the beſt bidder. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4.

Any

Any officer of the Cuſtoms in Great-Britain, or revenue in Ireland, ſuffering any entry outwards to be taken, or ſigning any cocket, warrant, or ſufferance for ſhipping, or exporting thereof, or permitting it to be done, forfeits a hundred pounds, and his office, and is incapable of ſerving his majeſty. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 6.

GOODS *coaſtwiſe inwards.* Foreign goods imported into, and entered at any port of Great-Britain, afterwards carried to any other port, muſt be accompanied with a certificate under the cuſtomer's ſeal, mentioning the natural colour, length, and value, if they are meaſurable goods; or the natural weight, content, or value, if they are goods uſed to be weighed or valued; which certificate muſt be delivered to the cuſtomer, that he may examine whether the goods agree therewith.

Diſcharged or unpacked before the certificate be delivered, and without the preſence of an officer, ſuch goods, or their value, are forfeited. 3 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 18. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

No goods coming into any one port of Great-Britain from any other, may be unſhipped before the coaſt-cocket, tranſire, let-paſs, or certificate be delivered to the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller, and their warrant or ſufferance granted for the landing, upon forfeiture of the value for the goods by the maſter, knowing and conſenting thereto. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 8. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 18. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Foreign, taken in at ſea, or out of any ſhip or veſſel, by any coaſter, in order to be landed, or put on board any other veſſel, within the limits of a port, without payment of duty, are forfeited, with treble the value by the maſter of both veſſels, unleſs in caſe of neceſſity. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 3. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

Foreign, taken on board any coaſting veſſel in parts beyond the ſeas, or out of any ſhip at ſea, or in any port of this kingdom, other than the port from whence certified, are forfeited, with double the value, and the maſter of ſuch veſſel is to forfeit the value of the goods. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 8.

Offence diſcovered to any officer of the Cuſtoms, by any perſon (except the owner or claimer of the goods) ſuch perſon is to have half of the officer's or proſecutor's ſhare of what ſhall be recovered, the charges of proſecution being firſt deducted: the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms are to cauſe ſuch charges to be equally paid by the crown and the proſecutor. Perſons aiding the owner or claimer, diſcovering their offence, are to be acquitted. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 29.

Any officer, upon producing his warrant or deputation, may go on board any coaſting-veſſel, within the limits of any port, and rummage for prohibited and unaccuſtomed goods, and remain on board during the veſſel's ſtay in the port.

Any perſon obſtructing or moleſting the officer in ſo doing, ſhall forfeit a hundred pounds. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſect.* 9.

GOODS *coaſtwiſe outwards*, may not be laden and carried from one port or creek of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey, to any other port or creek of the ſame, in any ſhip or veſſel, whereof any ſtranger born (unleſs ſuch as be denizens, or naturalized) are owners, part owners, or maſters, and whereof at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners are not Britiſh, upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods. 5 *Eliz.* *c.* 5. *ſ.* 8. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

Shipped, or put on board any ſhip to be carried forth to the open ſea, from any one port, member, or creek in Great-Britain, to be landed at any other place of this realm, without a ſufferance firſt obtained from the officers of the Cuſtoms, are forfeited. 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 4. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

And before the departure of the ſhip out of port, the maſter muſt take out a cocket, and become bound to his majeſty with good ſecurity in the value of the goods, for the delivery thereof in ſome port within Great-Britain, and to return a certificate within ſix months, under the hands and ſeals of the officers of the port of diſcharge, upon forfeiture of the bond and ſecurity. 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7 *ſ.* 4. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7.

The ſubſtance of ſuch certificates muſt be indorſed on the back of the bonds, and ſigned to by the officers tranſmitting them into the Exchequer, upon penalty of treble damages, and coſts of ſuit. 1 *Ann.* *c.* 26. *ſ.* 3.

Or if a ſhip be laden with coals only, and the maſter pays the cuſtom, or over-ſea duty in any port of Great-Britain, the cuſtomer and comptroller of ſuch port are to grant a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers of the loading port, will diſcharge the coaſt-bond in like manner, as if the coals had been landed in Great-Britain. 9 *Ann.* *c.* 28. *ſ.* 6. *See* SHIPS.

GOUNONG-API. *See* BANDA *Iſles.*

GRACE, or *days of grace*. *See* BILLS *of Exchange.*

GRAIN, comprizes all ſorts of corn, and the ſeeds of divers plants. *See* CORN.

GRAIN, a ſmall weight whereby ſeveral ſubſtances are eſtimated. It is taken from the weight of a grain of wheat, gathered out of the ear and well dried. Twenty-four *grains* make a penny-weight, and twenty penny-weights an ounce. This is troy-weight, and is uſed in weighing gold, ſilver, jewels, bread, and liquors. The French *grain* is to the Engliſh as 158 to 134½, and to that of Holland as 158 to 179.

The *grain* uſed by the apothecaries is the ſame with the goldſmiths: twenty *grains* make a ſcruple; three ſcruples a drachm; eight drachms an ounce.

The carat, whereby the fineſt gold, diamonds, and precious ſtones are eſtimated, is alſo divided into four *grains.*

GRANATUS, the *garnet*, a gem of a high red colour, thus denominated from its reſemblance to the kernel of a pomegranate.

The *garnet* is, when perfect, a very beautiful gem, little inferior to the ruby; but this is a ſtate it is very ſeldom ſeen in, being of all gems the moſt ſubject to flaws, faults, and blemiſhes, and in its different ſpecimens of all the different degrees of colour from the deepeſt blood-red to fleſh colour.

It is in hardneſs much inferior to the reſt of the gems in general, but it ſomewhat exceeds cryſtal in this quality. It is very various in ſize, a prodigious number of *garnets* being found that are not much larger than pins heads, and from this ſize to that of a pea, or even of a horſe-bean, are not uncommon; but larger than theſe are rare, though we have inſtances of *garnets* up to an inch in diameter. It is never found in a columnar form, its moſt uſual figure being that of a ſmall roundiſh pebble, or irregularly angular.

Our jewellers diſtinguiſh *garnets* into three kinds. What they ſimply call the *garnet*, is of a deep red, with a faint caſt of blue; a ſecond kind, is of thoſe *garnets* which have a very ſtrong, but leſs deep red, approaching to the cinnabarine colour, with very little blue in it; they call it the *ſerain garnet*; and finally, when it is of the ſame ſort of tinge with the rock ruby, but only paler, it is called the *almandine.*

The *garnet* is found in the Eaſt-Indies and in ſome parts of Europe, particularly in Sileſia and Bohemia; but there is a great difference between the ſtones produced in thoſe two parts of the world, ſo that the terms Oriental and Occidental *garnets* ſignify a very eſſential difference in beauty and value, when properly applied. The Oriental ones are found in the earth of mountains, and in beds of rivers; the European kind are generally bedded in ſtone.

It is remarkable that the *garnet* will not be diveſted of its colour by fire, though almoſt all the other gems eaſily part with theirs by the ſame means. If expoſed to the focus of a large burning glaſs, it by degrees melts into a ſort of ſlag, which has a metalline appearance, and ſhews ſome particles of iron among it, by being attracted by the magnet.

GRANITE, is a very hard rough kind of marble, that will not take a thorough poliſh, ſo denominated, as being ſprinkled over with a great many little ſtains that reſemble grains of ſand.

There are three kinds of it; that of Egypt with greeniſh ſpots on a dirty white ground, chiefly uſed in their obeliſks and catacombs, ſome of which are above forty feet high. 2. The *granite* of Italy is ſofter in the quarry than that of Egypt. 3. The *granite* of Dauphiny, which is only a very hard ſort of flint. There is likewiſe a green ſort of *granite*, which is a ſpecies of ſerpentine, variegated with white and green ſpecks.

GRANSON, ſeated on the borders of the lake of Neufchatel, in Switzerland, at a league from Yverden, and under the dominion of Berne and Fribourg, is the ſtaple of ſalt from Franche-Compté for Switzerland, in whoſe neighbourhood is a good paper fabric at a place called *La Mothe*.

GRATIAS, are allowances made by the king of Spain, and the farms of the cuſtoms, by way of abatement of the duties on importation of merchandizes into Spain, in conſideration of the ſeveral alterations of the coin in that country, which had raiſed our duties, contrary to treaties, without the allowance of thoſe *gratias*. *See* SPAIN.

GRASIERS, to be compelled to ſell at reaſonable prices. 25 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 1. *See* CATTLE.

GREECE. Modern Greece, in its preſent ſtate, is divided into Macedonia, Albania, Epirus, Theſſaly, and Achaia. The ſtate of its trade is beſt known from that of TURKEY *in Europe*, which *ſee*; ſo that we ſhall only here throw together ſome reflexions on the manner of its being now circumſtanced.

With regard to the trade of Greece on the ſhore of the Egean and Ionian Seas, it may be obſerved, that, were it a barren inhoſpitable ſoil and climate, that had neither production or people, or the people ignorant of traffic, we might eaſily account for the trifling trade carried on here, in compariſon to what was heretofore.

Here is a rich ſoil, a delicate climate, excellent havens and ports, well fortified harbours, populous cities, and, in ſome places, a well peopled country, and yet little trade. The reaſon given for this, is the ill government of the Turks, who, being averſe from the improvement of uſeful arts, diſcourage commerce, leave nature to her rude ſelf, and yet oppreſs the people in the pittance they acquire by unexcited induſtry. Whence it is that the famed Arcadian plains, the flowery meads of the ancients, lie deſolate, without flocks of ſheep, herds of kine; without corn, or wine, or oil in any quantity, ſuitable to the extent of the land, though able to produce all in great plenty. The Morea, in ancient times, maintained innumerable people, and could furniſh and ſupply competent quantities of cattle, corn, oil, wine, ſilk, flax, wool, wax, honey, figs, almonds, pomegranates, lemons, citrons, and every thing requiſite to ſeed and employ two millions of people; but for want of trade, it is now ſcarce able to ſupply its own ſea-coaſt towns, or fupport its own government; the people being few, poor, diſcouraged, and ſcarce able to raiſe corn and grapes for their food, oil for their lights, and a little fruit for their ordinary ſpending. They buy their wines from their iſlands, while their own vines periſh, or the grapes rot on the ground ungathered. The landowners call themſelves gentlemen, value themſelves on their alliances with ancient families, and lord it over the poor peaſants with inſufferable inſolence, but meanly cringe to the meaneſt Turk, who treats them with the baſtinado; ſo that all is tyranny and miſery, and how ſhould there be any trade?

GREENLAND, GROENLAND, *or* SPITZBERGEN, as the Dutch call it, is undiſcovered on the north; on the weſt it has the northern ocean; on the ſouth the ſame, between it and the Muſcovite Lapland, and the northernmoſt part of Norway, over-againſt which it lies; on the eaſt it has an undiſcovered country, to which it is joined by an iſthmus, which is by ſome called Eaſt, or New *Greenland*.

*Spitzbergen* lies neareſt to the pole of any country yet examined by ſeamen; that is, from ſeventy-ſix to eighty-two degrees north latitude, and perhaps much farther for aught we know.

There are no towns or villages in this whole country, or rather it is not inhabited by the human ſpecies in any way certainly known. Such of the mountains as are expoſed to the warm air and ſun-beams, are covered with heath and moſs; and in the cliffs of theſe rocks there are infinite numbers of fowls, that reſt there all the year. The dung of theſe birds, with the moſs waſhed down by the melted ſnow, makes a mould, in ſome places near the ſhore, where is produced a kind of lettuce, ſcurvy-graſs, exceeding mild and pleaſant, ſnake-weed, mouſe-ear, heart's-eaſe, ſtrawberries, houſeleek, wall-pepper, and ſome plants unknown to us.

The ſea is obſerved not to be ſo ſalt here as in other places, and to change its colour with the ſky. The air is ſo cold, that there is almoſt a continual froſt, which is ſtrongeſt in April and May. South or Weſt winds bring ſnow or rain, and moderate the cold. In June, July, and Auguſt, the weather is uſually calm, and in the two laſt months, eſpecially in July, the ſun ſhines ſo hot as to melt the tar between the ſeams of a ſhip, if the wind cannot come at it.

This country abounds with a kind of white bear, whereof the largeſt are water-bears, as living upon what they can get at ſea. Their ſkins make very comfortable cloathing for ſuch as travel in winter, and are dreſſed in *Spitzbergen* by treading them in hot ſaw duſt. There is a fine kind of deer in this country, and the coaſt abounds with ſeal, ſea dogs, and horſes. The land fowl are few, but water fowl are in great plenty.

The fiſh on this coaſt require the moſt notice, the taking them being the ſole motive that brings ſhips into theſe ſeas, where the whale-fiſhing is carried on with great profit. *See* WHALE-FISHERY.

The trade to *Greenland* free ro all Britiſh ſubjects, 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 4 and 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 17. *ſ.* 8. 1 *Ann. c.* 16. *ſ.* 1.

Ships employed in the catching of whales, belonging to Great-Britain, whereof the maſter is a Britiſh man, an inhabitant thereof, may, during ſuch voyage, be navigated with at leaſt one third of the mariners Britiſh, and yet pay no other duty for the oil or fins, than if navigated with three fourths Britiſh. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 4 and 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 17. *ſ.* 27. 1 *Ann. c.* 16. *ſ.* 1.

Such ſhips not to enjoy the benefit of theſe acts, unleſs they be victualled in, and proceed from Great-Britain; to be atteſted by the collector of the port from whence they ſailed, 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 4 and 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 17. *ſ.* 28. 1 *Ann. c.* 16. *ſ.* 1.

Harponeers, and Greenland ſailors not be impreſſed. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 5.—For other particulars, *ſee* BLUBBER, and for the bounty and regulations on *Greenland ſhips*, *ſee* BOUNTY.

GREENWICH-*Hoſpital*. For the ſupport and maintenance thereof, ſix-pence *per menſem* muſt be deducted out of the wages of every ſeaman ſerving on board his majeſty's ſhips, or any ſhip belonging to the ſubjects of Great-Britain, Ireland, Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, and the Britiſh plantations in *America*; and every perſon employed in boats upon the coaſts of the aforeſaid places; in taking fiſh, which are brought freſh on ſhore, and in boats which trade from place to place, or in any open boats upon the coaſts, except on board hoys, ſmacks, or other veſſels belonging to London, and employed within the North-Foreland, in bringing corn, fiſh, or proviſions to London. 7, 8, and 9 *W.* III. *c.* 21, 23. 2 and 10 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 17. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

This duty to be paid by the maſter, &c. before the ſhip or veſſel may be cleared inwards by the officers of the Cuſtoms, upon forfeiture of two-pence by every cuſtomer, collector, &c. who ſhall clear any ſhip, grant any warrant, cocket, tranſire, return, or diſcharge, or ſuffer ſuch ſhip or veſſel to go out of port, till certificate be produced of the payment of the duty, and that ſuch maſter is not more than thirty days in arrear. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 7.

Shares of prize-money not claimed, given to the hoſpital. 6 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 11. 10 *Ann. c.* 17. *ſ.* 9. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 11, 16.

Regulations for ſecuring prize-money belonging to the hoſpital. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24.

Seamen wounded in defence of merchant ſhips may be admitted into *Greenwich Hoſpital*. 10 *Ann. c.* 17. *ſ.* 20. *See* SHIPS.

GRIMELIN, a ſmall ſilver coin, made and current at Tripoli in Barbary, in value a little more than four ſols tournois.

GROAT, an Engliſh money of account, equal to four-pence. Other nations beſides have their *groots* or *gros*. In the time of the Saxons our biggeſt ſilver money was a penny, which continued ſo till 1351, when Edward III. coined *groats*; and thus matters ſtood, till Henry VIII. in 1504 firſt coined ſhillings.

GROCER. This buſineſs requires no other educatinn than any other buying and ſelling trade; the boy ought to be briſk and active, write a good hand, and underſtand common arithmetic: he ought alſo to have a ſum ſufficient

cient to enable him, when out of his time, to ſet up for himſelf, becauſe there are very few journeymen in this buſineſs. This tradeſman deals in tea, ſugar, coffee, chocolate, raiſins, currants, prunes, figs, &c. He buys the goods from the importer, and his profits ariſe from his buying and ſelling prices. The *grocer* takes from twenty to one hundred pounds with an apprentice; the few journeymen in trade have fifteen or twenty pounds a year, and their board, and a young man ought to have at leaſt two hundred pounds to enable him to ſet up maſter.

By 37 *Edw.* III. 5. *grocers* were merchants that engroſſed all merchandize vendible; but now it is a particular and well-known trade, incorporated into a company, which is one of the twelve, and have a very handſome hall, from them ſtiled *Grocer's-Hall.*

*Grocery-Wares*, ſuch as raiſins, figs, prunes, and currants, in what ſhips to be imported, and in what caſes to be deemed aliens goods. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 8, 9.

No *grocery* to be imported from the Netherlands or Germany. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 23.

What *grocery-wares* imported ſhall pay ten pounds for every one hundred pounds value. 2 *W.* and *M. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 12, 13.

Raiſins imported, to pay but five pounds, and currants fifty ſhillings for every one hundred pounds value. 4 and 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 5. *ſ.* 100.

Currants imported in Engliſh or Venetian ſhipping, how exempt from paying of the ſubſidy granted by 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 3. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 21.

Every hundred weight of raiſins imported pays five ſhillings. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 6.

Importers of raiſins, what time to have for payment of duties, and what allowance for prompt payment. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 12.

Landing raiſins without entry, or unſhipping with a deſign to land them before payment of duties, what to forfeit. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 14, 17.

Duties, in what caſes to be repaid on exportation, and how to be levied. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 15, 16. *See* ALLOWANCES.

GROGRAM, a ſort of ſilk ſtuff, being a coarſer and thicker taffety than ordinary.

GRONINGEN, one of the Seven United Provinces, abounds with good paſtures, and large herds of ſmall and great cattle. The capital, of the ſame name, is ſituated on the conflux of the rivers Hunnes, or Schutſen, and Aa, which encompaſſing the eaſt and north parts of the city, form an harbour capable of receiving a great number of veſſels, by which means this city enjoys a pretty good trade. *Delfzyl*, at the mouth of the river Ems, in this province, has a very good harbour, which for ſituation, and other advantages, exceeds that of Embden.

GROSS *Weight*, the weight of goods with their droſs, as alſo of the caſk, bag, &c. in which they are contained; out of which weight allowance is made called tare and tret. *See* ALLOWANCE.

GROSS, alſo denotes a quantity containing twelve dozen.

GROUNDAGE, is a tribute paid for the ground on which a ſhip ſtands in a port. *Cowell. edit.* 1727.

GUADALOUPE, with *Marigalante*, and *Deſeada*, are iſlands in America, belonging to the crown of France, which were taken and added to the Engliſh ſettlements by commodore Moore and general Barrington, after an obſtinate defence, in the year 1759. The produce of theſe iſlands is ſo conſiderable, that *Guadaloupe* alone is ſaid to furniſh annually, in ſugar only, forty thouſand hogſheads, excluſive of coffee, cotton, &c.

GUAIACUM, called alſo *lignum vitæ*, is a medicinal wood, extremely hard and ſolid, of a denſe compact texure, aud remarkably heavy; it conſiſts of two parts, a central matter or heart, as it is called in trees, and an exterior one or blea; the central part is extremely hard and ponderous, and is of a greeniſh black colour, or elſe it is variegated with a pale whitiſh colour, a duſky green, and a browniſh with the black: the external part is yellowiſh, or the colour of box-wood; this is covered when we ſee the fragments of the branches of the tree intire, with a thin but very firm and ſtrong bark, of a woody texture, but ſeeming compoſed of a multitude of thin plates or laminæ, laid over one another; it is ſomewhat reſinous, and is externally of a mixed greyiſh and greeniſh black colour, or variegated with ſpots of a duſky greeniſh and livid black; within, it is of a pale colour. The wood is of a fragrant ſmell and of an aromatic and pungent but ſomewhat biteriſh taſte, but not diſagreeable; the bark is of a more acrid taſte, and more diſagreeable to the palate.

*Guaiacum* is attenuant and aperient: it promotes a diſcharge by ſweat and urine, and at the ſame time ſtrengthens the ſtomach and the other viſcera. It is an excellent medicine in obſtructions of the liver and ſpleen, in jaundices, dropſies, and many other chronic caſes. It gives great relief in rheumatiſms, and even in the gout. It has at one time been famous for curing the venereal diſeaſe. We received the accounts of its virtues in that way from warmer climates, where perſpiration is eaſily excited to a very great degree; and in theſe places nothing is more certain, than that it ſtill cures that terrible diſeaſe ſingly. With us we find it inſufficient, and indeed, the ſhorter methods by mercurials, render the uſe of any thing of this kind leſs neceſſary than it might be before the bringing thoſe powerful remedies into uſe.

The bark is a more powerful attenuant than the wood, but is leſs proper to people of a feveriſh diſpoſition. Neither of them are given much in ſubſtance, the uſual way being in decoctions with ſaſſafras, and other medicines of the ſame intention.

Beſides the wood and the bark of *guaiacum*, we have a reſin of it kept under the improper name of *gum guaiacum* in the ſhops. This is a ſolid, but very friable ſubſtance, much reſembling common reſin, except in colour, in which it is of a duſky greeniſh hue, and ſometimes tho' leſs frequently, of a reddiſh. It is very acrid and pungent to the taſte, and when burnt, ſmells not unpleaſantly, but much like *guaiacum* wood. This is given in the ſame caſes with the wood, and the famous *balſamum polychreſtum* is made of it.

GUARDIAN *of the Cinque Ports*, is a principal magiſtrate that hath the juriſdiction of thoſe havens in the eaſt part of England, which are commonly called the *Cinque ports*, that is, the *five ports* or havens. He has all the juriſdiction the lord high admiral of England has in places not exempt; and the reaſon why one magiſtrate was aſſigned to ſo few havens is, becauſe in reſpect to their ſituation, they anciently required a more vigilant care than other havens, being nearer and more obvious to enemies, by the narrowneſs of the ſea in thoſe parts. Camden in his *Brit. pag.* 238, ſays, that the Romans, after they had ſettled themſelves and their empire here in England, appointed a magiſtrate or governor over thoſe eaſtern parts, whom they called *Comitem littoris Saxonici per Britanniam*, having another that bore the ſame title on the oppoſite part of the ſea, whoſe office was to fortify and furniſh the ſea-coaſts with munition againſt the incurſions and robberies of the Barbarians; and farther ſignifies his opinion that our warden of the *Cinque Ports* was firſt erected among us, in imitation of that Roman polity.

GUATIMALA, *ſee* PORTO CAVALLO.

GUAYAQUIL, lies in the province of Quito, and its products are gold, precious ſtones, cacao, green hides, tallow, ſarſaparilla, woollen ſtuffs of the country make, ſaltpetre, brimſtone, and wood, worked up in the ſhip yards of this place. It alſo produces cacao in ſuch plenty, that there is hardly a year in which thirty thouſand bales of eighty-one pounds each, are not ſhipped off, and ſometimes the quantity is doubled. The goods imported here from Lima are wine, oil, ſpice, and other European commodities.

GUERNSEY, *Jerſey*, *Alderney*, and *Sark*. Proviſions relating to the exportation of wool from Southampton to thoſe iſlands. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 12, 13, 14. 1 *W.* and *M. ſeſſ.* 1. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 14.

Sprits brought from thence charged with the exciſe. 2 *W.* and *M. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 12. 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 34.

Goods of their own growth may be imported duty free. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 5.

Salt imported from thence to pay as foreign. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 11.

Their veſſels how made liable to the payment of ſixpence a month to Greenwich hoſpital. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.



GUESTE,

GUESTE, a long meaſure uſed in ſome parts of the Mogul's dominions, being about one one-fifth of the Dutch aune.

GUEZE, a long meaſure of Perſia, for meaſuring ſtuffs, linens, &c. Of this meaſure there are two ſorts in that kingdom, viz. the royal *gueze*, called alſo *gueze* monkelſers, and the *gueze* racourcie, called ſimply *gueze*; this laſt being only two-thirds of the other. The *gueze* monkelſer contains two feet ten inches and eleven lines of Paris, or four-fifths of that aune, ſo that five *guezes* make four aunes.

In India is alſo uſed a long meaſure, called *gueze*, which is near ſix lines ſhorter than that of Perſia, or about one-ſeventieth of an aune leſs, though as the difference is ſo ſmall it is ſeldom regarded.

GUIENNE. This rich province of France furniſhes trade with large quantities of wine and brandies, vinegar, prunes, roſin, cheſnuts, oil, iron, and copper, wrought and unwrought, a great deal of paper, and a middling quantity of hemp. There are in the neighbourhood of Perigueux, thirty-nine forges for cannon, and other large works of iron, beſides many others near Dax, and ſeveral hammers for copper at Bergerac, Orteix, and Nerac. On the ſide of Oleron are four paper mills, and in the neighbourhood of Bergerac, and Caſtel-Jalous, ſeven others. A large quantity of hemp is cultivated at the two Tonneins, and in ſome other places along the Garonne and the Lot; but all the fabrics are but trifling, when compared with the quantities of wine and brandy, the ſtaple commodities of theſe parts; inſomuch that in all this province not above ſeventy-five thouſand pounds weight of wool is ſhorn, and it is with theſe, and a few from Poitou, that all their wollen goods are made, viz. at Bourdeaux, Bazas, Mont-de-Maſan, and Nay, thick blankets; at Touſſac, coarſe cloths; at Ponts, ſome eſtaminas; at Baniers, the ſtuffs called cardillats; at Pau and Marmande, hats; at Cadillac, Nerac, and Villeneuve d'Agenois, ſtockings; and at Reolle, thread, fringe, and tickens.

GUINEA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

GUINEA, an Engliſh gold coin. At firſt it was only of twenty ſhillings value; after that it roſe to twenty-one ſhillings and ſix-pence; but is now current at twenty-one ſhillings. It is ſo called from *Guinea* in Africa, becauſe the gold of which the firſt *guineas* were ſtruck was brought from thence. A pound of gold is divided into forty-four parts and a half, each of which is equivalent to a *guinea*.

*Guineas* and *half-guineas*, may be imported. 8 *Will.* III. *cap.* 1.

GUIOMERE. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

GUIPOSCOA. *See* SPAIN.

GULPH, *or* GULF, in geography, an arm of the ſea that runs up within the land. A *gulph* is leſs than a ſea, but larger than a bay.

GUM, a vegetable juice, properly that of the bark, exuding from certain plants, and hardening into a viſcid tranſparent maſs, both being occaſioned by the heat of the ſun. *Gums*, in general, are more viſcid and leſs friable than reſins, and are diſſoluble in any aqueous menſtruum; whereas reſins are more ſulphureous, and require a ſpiritous or oily diſſolvent.

*Gums* are different according to the different trees, &c. they exude from; and the moſt valuable kinds of *gums* are, *gum arabic*, *gum lac*, *gum ſenega*, and *gum adragant* or *tragacanth*, which *ſee* under their reſpective *articles*.

GUM *Reſin*, a hardened juice of an intermediate nature between a *gum* and a *reſin*, being diſſoluble in aqueous and oleaginous menſtruums. Of this kind are *maſtic*, *camphire*, *ſtorax*, &c.

GUN, may be divided into great and ſmall; great *guns* in general, called cannon, conſtitute ordnance, or artillery, ſuch as cannon-royal, demi-cannon, culverins, demi-culverins, ſakers, minions, falcons, &c.

Small *guns* comprize muſkets, muſketoons, carabines, blunderbuſſes, fowling-pieces, &c.

Piſtols and mortars are excepted out of the general denomination of *guns*.

GUN-ENGRAVER. The boy intended for this buſineſs ought to learn to draw, though his knowledge of that art may be much leſs extenſive than in the copper-plate engraver. Thoſe of this buſineſs are employed by the gun-ſmiths to engrave the locks, and part of the barrels of guns and piſtols. They take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice, and a journeyman may earn twenty ſhillings a week.

GUN-INLAYER. This, as well as the former, is a pretty ingenious buſineſs, and the youth who would excel in it ſhould likewiſe learn to draw. The *gun-inlayer* ornaments the ſtocks of guns, blunderbuſſes, piſtols, &c. with inlayed work of ſilver, mother of pearl, &c. The maſters take ten or twenty pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may get about three ſhillings a day.

GUN-SMITH. This is an ingenious buſineſs, and therefore a dull ſtupid boy ought not to be put apprentice to it. The *gun-ſmith* has his gun and piſtol barrels founded for him; beſpeaks his ſtocks of the gun-ſtock maker; makes locks for them, and mounts them. The company of *gun-ſmiths* of London conſiſt of very few members; but they have moſt of them the honeſt pride of ſuffering none but the beſt work to go out of their hands; they are therefore very cautious in the choice of their barrels; ſhew great ſkill in the tempering their ſprings; in forming their joints to make their work ſet cloſe, and in giving beauty to their work by filing and poliſhing. This care occaſions the guns made in the city to become dearer than thoſe made out of the liberties. They take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice, and pay fifteen or twenty ſhillings a week to their journeymen.

GUN-STOCK MAKER. Thoſe of this buſineſs make ſtocks for all the ſeveral kinds of guns, blunderbuſſes, and piſtols. They take from five to fifteen pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, will be able to earn fifteen ſhillings a week.

GUNPOWDER, a compoſition made of ſaltpetre, ſulphur, and charcoal incorporated and granulated, which readily takes fire and expands with incredible force. The modern military art, fortification, &c. intirely depend on *gunpowder*.

No maſter of a ſhip outward-bound ſhall receive on board (except for his majeſty's uſe) any *gunpowder*, before his ſhip is at or below Blackwall.

Every maſter of a ſhip coming into the river Thames, ſhall land all his *gunpowder* before his ſhip arrives at Blackwall, or within twenty-four hours after.

Under the penalty of forfeiting five pounds for every fifty pounds weight thereof, to the uſe of the poor of the corporation of the Trinity-houſe. 5 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 20. *ſect.* 2, 3, 6.

For the bounty and regulations on Britiſh-made *gunpowder*, ſee BOUNTY.

Security given for the exportation of *gunpowder* to be diſcharged in the manner following, viz.

(If entered for, or landed in Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or any of his majeſty's colonies or plantations abroad) by a certificate of its being there landed, under the hand of the officer of the Cuſtoms there, or, for want of ſuch officer, of the governor or deputy governor of the place.

(If exported for any other foreign port or place) by a certificate under the hand of the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants.

By proof that it was taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas.

(If exported for Africa) by oath of the maſter, mate, purſer, or perſon having charge of the ſhip, that it was delivered and ſold upon the coaſt of Africa, together with the oath of the exporter (if living) that the goods have, to the beſt of his knowledge, been ſo diſpoſed of. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 1, 2.

Exported (for which the allowance has been made) and relanded in Great-Britain (except by licence of one of the principal officers of the port, or in caſe of diſtreſs to ſave it from periſhing, which is forthwith to be made known to one of the ſaid officers) the *gunpowder* (over and above the penalty of the bond) and treble the value thereof, is forfeited. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 3.

*Gunpowder*, &c. ſhipped after prohibition, forfeited. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 2.

Allowance on exportation of *gunpowder* continued to 29th of September, 1771. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 11. *See* AMMUNITION.

GUPPAS, weights uſed in ſome towns in the ſtrcights of Malacca, particularly at Queda. Four *guppas* make one guantas; ſixteen guantas, one hali, or nali; and fifteen halis the bahar of four hundred and fifty pounds weight marc.

GUZ. *See* Couit.

GUZURATE. Of all the kingdoms which compoſe Indoſtan, there are none that have more conſiderable ports, or where a greater trade is carried on, than this of *Guſurate*, called alſo by ſome the kingdom of Cambaye, from one of its moſt important cities, diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the Indian Cairo. This territory is almoſt totally maritime, forming a peninſula, that ſtretches out between the gulphs of India and Cambaye, containing more than an hundred twenty leagues of coaſt.

It is in this extent that Cambaye and Surate are ſituated; the two cities (eſpecially the laſt) the moſt celebrated in India, for the trade which the Europeans carry on there, or that the native merchants maintain from Java and Sumatra to the Levant, Aden, Mocha, and Mecca, on the Red-Sea, and to Bender-Abaſſi in the Perſian gulph, in cotton cloth, counterpanes, carpets, embroidered hangings, rock cryſtal, granates, hyacinths, amethiſts, turquoiſes, choice drugs, medicinal herbs, dying woods, perfumes, excellent indigo, (cultivated and made at Amadabat, the capital of the kingdom, and at Sirches) camphire, tobacco, brimſtone, turbith galanga, nard, lapis lazuli, aſſa fœtida, borax, ſcamony, benzoin, pepper, cummin, ginger, mirabolans, ſilks of their manufacturing, corn, ſalt, oil, and butter.

Their returns from Aden, are gold and ſilver coin, coral, ambergreaſe, miſſeit, (a drug for dying and colouring) and the beſt opium of all the Eaſt. From Perſia they extract brocades, and other ſilk ſtuffs, velvets, camblets, pearls, almonds, raiſins, nuts, dates, and particularly roſe-water, of which they are very fond, and which they tranſport to many parts of India.

The Europeans, and other nations, furniſh this and the other territories of the Great Mogul, with pewter, vermillion, all ſorts of cloth, ivory, ſandal wood, pepper, cardamoms, cloves, porcelane, China ſtuffs, gold and ſilver veſſels; and there are ſeen in their ports and principal cities, not only Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Portugueze, but alſo Jews, Turks, Perſians, Arabians, and merchants of all the cities in India, except Chineſe and Japoneſe. The cities of note for trade in this kingdom, are *Amadabath*, *Brochia*, *Biſantagar*, and *Pettan*, which *ſee*.

GYPSUM, in natural hiſtory, plaiſter ſtone, which, when calcined and wrought up with water, makes parget or plaiſter of Paris.

There are ſeveral diſtinct ſpecies of *gypſum* found in the ſeveral parts of the world, differing in hardneſs, and in fineneſs, or coarſeneſs of their ſtructure; but the deſcriptions authors have left us of the ſpecies they recommend, ſhew very plainly that they underſtand by that word the white glittering, hard kind, which reſembles fine ſugar, and which is uſually known under the name of plaiſter of Paris ſtone.

It is a very pure and beautiful foſſil, much approaching to the nature of the fibrous talcs; but that its particles are not arranged into *ſtriæ* or filaments, but formed only into ſmall granules. It is found in looſe maſſes of a very irregular ſhape and ſize, in general from ſix inches to two or three feet in diameter, with four, ſix, or eight inches thickneſs. The ſubſtance of thoſe maſſes is perfectly rude and irregular; but, when broken, the ſubſtance they conſiſt of is found very much to reſemble marble in its appearance. It is very bright and gloſſy, and of a cloſe, firm, and compact texture, though viſibly of a large, coarſe grain; its natural colour is a pure and very bright white; but it is ſometimes accidentally tinged with brown, or reddiſh. When nicely obſerved, the granules or particles which compoſe the maſs are found to be flatted, and in ſome places reſemble ſmall ſpangles of the white talc. It is very heavy, but not hard; a ſmall piece of it may even be crumbled between the fingers into a coarſe white powder; it breaks equally eaſy in all directions, and, when held up againſt the light in not too thick pieces, is tolerably pellucid. It is indiſſoluble in all the known menſtruums, aud, if put into the fire, it very freely and readily calcines into a good plaiſter of Paris.

It is dug in many parts of France, but particularly near Mont Martre, where there have long been pits of it that have furniſhed vaſt quantities.

Its great uſe is in burning to plaiſter; but we find it recorded in the works of ſome medicinal writers as an aſtringent and ſtyptic, given in its crude ſtate: when calcined, the ancients eſteemed it a a poiſon; but this was without reaſon. It is frequently ſold in powder, after calcination, by our druggiſts, under the name of Engliſh talc, burnt and powdered for cleaning ſilver lace.

# H.



H, The eighth letter of the Engliſh alphabet, and ſixth conſonant. Among the ancients it denoted two hundred, and when a daſh was added at top, $\overline{H}$ ſignified two hundred thouſand.

HABERDASHER *of hats*. This trade requires no more ingenuity nor learning than any other retail trade. The boy, during his apprenticeſhip, ought however not only to learn to diſtinguiſh the various ſpecies of hats, from the fineſt beaver, to the coarſeſt felt, and to know the buying and ſelling prices of each; but to learn ſo much of the manufacture of hats, as to know when they are well or ill made, of what materials they are compoſed, and whether the workmanſhip be anſwerable to the price. As to the reſt of his buſineſs, bruſhing, curing, lining, lacing, and looping, theſe are ſo eaſily learned, that it would not be worth while to ſpend ſeven years in acquiring them. Thoſe of this buſineſs take with an apprentice, from twenty to fifty pounds; there are but few journeymen ſhopmen, and they have fifteen or twenty pounds a year, and it will take one or two hundred pounds to ſet up maſter, with only an indifferent ſtock.

HABERDASHER *of ſmall-wares*. The boy deſigned for this trade ought to have a genteel perſon, joined to a great ſprightlineſs, activity, and complaiſance; he ſhould write a good running-hand, be well verſed in accompts, and have an extenſive and ready memory; for thoſe of this buſineſs deal in an immenſe number of little articles, as pins, needles, threads, tapes, ribbons, &c. They take from fifty to two or three hundred pounds with an apprentice, and allow a journeyman twenty or thirty pounds a year beſides his board: but it will require five hundred or a thouſand pounds to ſet up ſhop in a genteel way.

HADDINGTON contains *Eaſt Lothian*, which, like the other part of *Lothian*, is a fine country; the chief towns are *Dunbar* and *Haddington*, of which the former had once a large herring-fiſhery, where they cured them in the ſame manner as at Yarmouth, though not with the ſame perfection for their preſervation, ſo that this buſineſs is now come to decay; as has been the fate of a conſiderable woollen manufacture that once flouriſhed at *Haddington*, when, before the union, Engliſh cloth was prohibited in Scotland; but when that was once concluded, the clothiers, from Worceſter, Glouceſter, Wilts, Somerſet, and Devonſhire, poured in their goods ſo faſt, and under-ſold the Scots ſo much, as reduced them to a neceſſity of quitting their fabrics, for the greateſt part; and at this place to content themſelves with ſpinning, dying, and weaving af another kind.

HÆMATITES, in natural hiſtory, the *blood-ſtone*, a kind of mineral ſo called, on account of its reſembling curdled blood, or from its quality of ſtopping blood.

We are to diſtinguiſh carefully between two very different ſpecies of foſſils, called by the common Engliſh name *blood-ſtone*; the one is a ſemi-pellucid gem, of a green colour, ſpotted with red, and is properly called the heliotrope; the other is a mere ore of iron, and a very rich one. The laſt of theſe is the ſubſtance to be deſcribed in this place.

It is a very ponderous foſſil, ſometimes of a paler, ſometimes of a deeper red, and not unfrequently bluiſh; it is ſometimes found in large irregular maſſes, but more frequently in flat pieces, with botryoide ſurfaces, or in the fragments of ſuch, which, as theſe maſſes naturally break at the jointings of the protuberances that form the ſurface, are uſually rounded at the end, and of a ſomewhat conic and pyramidal figure. Theſe maſſes are of a naturally ſmooth and gloſſy ſurface, and when broken, are found to be compoſed of a number of cruſts laid evenly under one another, and of a regularly ſtriated texture. As theſe cruſts are gradually ſmaller and ſmaller within the maſs, and the ſtriæ all converge towards a center at the baſe of each of them, it is not wonderful that they ſhould naturally ſeparate on breaking into pieces of a pyramidal or conic figure.

This kind of iron ore is very various in its degree of purity and hardneſs, as well as in its figure. The fineſt maſſes of all are thoſe whoſe ſurface terminates in bubbles or round protuberances; the coarſeſt pieces have nothing of this ſtructure, but are compoſed of larger ſtriæ, and eaſily ſplit longitudinally according to them: theſe pieces are what the ancients called by a diſtinct name, *ſchiſtus*. There is alſo yet a more impure kind, which is ſcarcely at all either botryoide on the ſurface, or ſtriated, but yet is truly of the ſame kind with the reſt, and is not inferior to them in virtue. The *hæmatites* of all theſe three kinds is found in England, and in great abundance alſo in the German mines, where maſſes of it are ſometimes met with quite black and of an elegant poliſh; and others covered with golden armature, as high and elegant as if of abſolute leaf gold, laid on in the common way of gilding.

Blood-ſtone is to be choſen for medicinal uſe the higheſt coloured and moſt like cinnabar that can be had, and ſuch as is heavieſt and formed with the fineſt ſtriæ. It is accounted aſtringent and deſiccative. It is given in powder, from ten grains to twenty-five, for a doſe in hæmorrhages, and is uſed in diſtemperatures of the eyes.

HAIR, a ſort of tegument for the greateſt part of animals. It is found on all parts of the human body, except the ſoles of the feet and palms of the hands.

Since the mode of perukes has obtained, *hair* makes a very conſiderable article in commerce. That of the growth of the northern countries is much preferred to that of the more ſouthern ones. The merit of good *hair* conſiſts in its being well fed, and neither too coarſe nor too ſlender; the bigneſs rendering it leſs ſuſceptible of an artificial curl, and diſpoſing it rather to frizzle; and the ſmallneſs making its curl of too ſhort duration. It ſhould be about twenty-five inches long; and as it falls ſhort of this, it decreaſes in value.

*Hair* is ſold from five ſhillings to five pounds an ounce, according to its quality. The grey is the moſt valued; next to that the white, &c.

The ſcarcity of white and grey *hair* put the dealers in that commodity upon artificial methods of rendering *hair* of theſe colours. They ſpread the *hair* to bleach on the graſs, after waſhing it firſt in a lixivious water: they alſo dye *hair* with biſmuth. Both which artifices are detected by boiling and drying it. *See* BLEACHING.

HAIR-CUTTER. This buſineſs requires almoſt no education; but a complaiſant inſinuating behaviour is abſolutely neceſſary. Some *hair-cutters* keep ſhop, while others only wait on gentlemen and ladies at their houſes. Some of the laſt have only ſix-pence or a ſhilling for cutting and curling a perſon's hair, while others have a crown, and others again half a guinea. But, to the diſhonour of our nation, theſe extravagant prices are hardly ever given to any but Frenchmen. The *hair-cutters* who keep ſhop, and have from one ſhilling to two ſhillings and ſix-pence for cutting hair, take about ten pounds with an apprentice, and give their journeymen nearly the ſame wages as the barbers, who alſo ſometimes follow this buſineſs.

HAIR-MERCHANT. Thoſe of this trade import human hair, goats hair, horſe hair, &c. from abroad, and buy hair of thoſe who travel over England and Scotland to procure it. He ſorts it into parcels, according to its colour and goodneſs; employs hair-pickers to pick the black from the white, and dead from the live hair; and hands to mix it into proper ſhades or colours. He alſo dyes thoſe that are of an improper colour, and bleaches ſuch as are not quite white: he curls by rolling it upon pipes, and baking it in the oven. There are *hair-merchants* who only deal wholeſale, and ſell as they buy; but moſt of them prepare their hair in the manner here mentioned, and ſell it either curled or uncurled to the barbers. They take with an apprentice from ten to twenty pounds. Some *hair-merchants* ſet up with no more than a hundred pounds, while others employ in trade upwards of two thouſand.

HAKE, a ſort of fiſh dried and ſalted, called commonly *poor john*, in the weſtern parts of England. The proverb obtains in Kent, *as dry as a hake*.

HALBERSTADT, a principality in Germany, bounded on the north by Brunſwic Wolfembuttle, has a good ſoil, yields plenty of corn, and the foreſts ſtore of veniſon. Its principal town, of the ſame name, was heretofore an imperial city; but its trade is now inconſiderable, by reaſon of the ſmallneſs of the river.

HALF-PENNY, an Engliſh copper coin, the value of which is denoted by its name.

HALI. *See* GUPPAS.

HALLAGE, is a fee due for cloths brought for ſale to *Blackwall-hall* in London. Alſo the toll due to the lord of a fair or market, for ſuch commodities as are vended in the common *hall* of the place.

HALLIFAX. *See* NOVA SCOTIA.

HAMBURGH. *See* BALTIC, BANK, *and* COIN.

HAMPSHIRE is very abundant in ſheep, which furniſh wool for its many fabrics of ſhalloons, kerſies, and other ſtuffs; its products are iron, corn, and timber, and it is more particularly noted for the excellence of its honey and bacon.

HAND'S BREADTH, a meaſure of three inches.

HANDFUL, *or ſimply* HAND, a meaſure of four inches by the ſtandard, according to *ſtat.* 33 of *Hen.* VIII.

The *hand* among jockeys is four fingers breadth, being the fiſt clenched, whereby the height of a horſe is meaſured. A horſe for war ſhould be ſixteen or eighteen hands high.

HANOVER is a part of thoſe German dominions that belong immediately to his Britannic majeſty, as elector of Brunſwic, Lunenburg, or *Hanover*. His revenues are computed to amount to four hundred thouſand pounds *per ann.* and he is able to raiſe thirty thouſand men in all his territories, which, beſides *Hanover*, conſiſt of the duchies of Lunenburg and Zell, Bremen and Verden, and the duchy of Lawenberg; moſt part of which lie between the rivers Weſer and Elbe, and extend near two hundred miles in length, from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, and are from a hundred and fifty to fifty in breadth; but then within theſe limits are the territories of ſeveral other princes and ſtates, as the biſhopric of Hildeſheim, the duchy of Brunſwic Proper, Wolfembuttle-Blackenburg, the territories of the city of Bremen, and of ſeveral other imperial cities. Theſe dominions ſeem very well ſituated for a foreign trade, lying upon the German Sea and the two great rivers of the Elbe and the Weſer: however, trade does not flouriſh here; either they have but few ſtaple commodities, or men of ſubſtance do not apply themſelves to foreign traffic. The country is pretty much over-run with wood, and the ſoil is not fruitful where it is not. Excepting timber, cattle, hogs, and ſome minerals, viz. a little ſilver, copper, lead, iron, vitriol, brimſtone, quickſilver, and copperas, with mum, beer, and bacon, we do not find that they have much elſe to trade with. *See* BRUNSWIC.

HANSE, HANS, *or* HANSEATIC *towns*, certain free towns of Germany and the North in ſtrict alliance with each other, under laws and magiſtrates of their own appointing, for the better carrying on of commerce, and for their mutual ſecurity and aſſiſtance.

The word is obſolete High Dutch or Teutonic, ſignifying confederacy or alliance. Some derive it from the German *am ſee*, that is, on the ſea; by reaſon the firſt of them were all ſituate on the ſea-coaſt.

This celebrated aſſociation is commonly ſuppoſed to have commenced at Bremen on the Weſer, in 1164; according to others, in 1260, immediately after the pyracies and incurſions of the Danes, Normans, &c. Others, in 920. But, be its origin when it will, it was confirmed and reeſtabliſhed in 1270.

At firſt it only conſiſted of towns ſituate on or near the Baltic Sea; but its reputation increaſing, there was ſcarce any trading city in Europe but deſired to be admitted into this confederacy.

Under Henry III. of England, the *Hanſe* conſiſted of ſixty-two cities, to which were afterwards added four more. France furniſhed to the confederacy Rouen, St. Malo, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Marſeilles; Spain, Barcelona, Seville, and Cadiz; England, London; Portugal, Liſbon; the Low Countries, Antwerp, Dort, Amſterdam, Bruges, Rotterdam, Oſtend, and Dunkirk; Italy and Sicily, Meſſina, Leghorn, and Naples.

The *Hanſe* was divided into four claſſes, the head of which were Lubec, Cologne, Brunſwic, and Pruſſia, or Dantzick; and Lubec the head of the whole. Theſe four towns were called mother-towns, as thoſe afterwards added were called daughters.

Beſides this, they had four principal factories or ſtaples, at London, called *guildhalda Teutonicorum*, or the ſtillyard; at Bruges, afterwards removed to Antwerp; at Novogrod, and Berg, or Berghen. But the firſt and principal was that of Lubec, which ſtill remains the head of the aſſociation.

The government of the *Hanſe* was at firſt ariſtocratical; then it came under the ſole direction of the grand maſter of the Teutonic Order; and at length divers princes and noblemen made intereſt for it.

This alliance was in its moſt flouriſhing ſtate about the end of the fourteenth century, and beginning of the fifteenth: they were then in a condition to proclaim war againſt kings; witneſs the wars they carried on againſt Waldemar, king of Denmark, about the year 1348, and againſt Eric in 1428: in this laſt, the *Hanſe* fleet conſiſted of forty ſhips, containing an army of about twelve thouſand regular troops beſides the ſeamen.

But the ſeveral princes, whoſe cities compoſed the aſſociation, began to think it policy to ſet ſome bounds to a power which might in time prove formidable to themſelves: the means were ſhort and eaſy; each withdrew the merchants of his country from the aſſociation, which in a little time, from the great number of cities it had comprized, found itſelf ſunk to thoſe few that conſtituted the original confederacy; which henceforth was denominated the *Teutonic Hanſe*; and theſe are ſtill ſo conſiderable in point of commerce, that they are admitted to make treaties with crowned heads.

Their diviſions greatly contributed to their fall; add to this, that the eſtabliſhment of the republic and commerce of Holland had no ſmall ſhare therein.

There are now ſcarce any other towns in Germany but Lubec, Hamburgh, Bremen, Roſtock, Brunſwic, acd Cologn, that are *Hanſeatic*, and that have deputies at the aſſemblies held on the common exigencies thereof.

The conſiderable trade which the Dutch carry on with the *Hanſe* contributes not a little towards maintaining ſome of them in their ancient reputation; and it is principally to their alliance with that republic that they owe the preſervation of their liberties, the ſuccours ſome of them received from the Dutch having ſaved them more than once from the enterprizes of their neighbours.

HARBOURS and *Havens*. The penalty of doing nuſance to harbours. 34 and 35 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9.

Penalty of throwing ballaſt, &c. out of ſhips in harbour, &c. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22.

Ships ſtranded in harbours, &c. to be removed by the juſtices. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 3.

For the repair of Arundel port. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12.

For repairing Bridport harbour. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11.

For the repair of Burlington pier. 8 and 9 *W.* III. *c.* 29. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 10. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10.

Nuſances from the tin-works to the harbours in Devonſhire and Cornwall prohibited. 23 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 10. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 23.

A duty on ſhips for the repair of Dover harbour. 25 *Eliz. c.* 6. 31 *Eliz. c.* 13. 35 *Eliz. c.* 7. *ſ.* 28. 44 *Eliz. c.* 9. *ſ.* 35. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 32. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 27. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 5. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 7. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. 11 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

For repairing the harbour of Ellenfoot. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 37.

For repairing the pier of Ilfordcombe. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19.

For improving the harbour of Leith. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8.

For the repair of Lime harbour. 35 *Eliz. c.* 7. *ſ.* 29.

For making a baſon at Liverpoole. 8 *Ann. c.* 12. 11 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32.

For repairing the piers of Margate. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 3.

For recovering the harbour of Minehead. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 9 10 *Ann. c.* 24. 11 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8.

For repairing New Havcn in Suſſex. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17.

For pulling down piles and fiſhgarths in the Ouze and Humber. 23 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18.

Parton harbour in Cumberland. 4 *Ann. c.* 18. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 16. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13.

For preſerving the harbour of Catwater near Plymouth. 8 *Ann. c.* 8.

Improving the harbour of Poole, and aſcertaining the harbour-duties there. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10.

For enlarging Ramſgate harbour, and repairing Sandwich. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 40.

For the laying of ballaſt at Rye and Winchelſea. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 30.

For repair of the harbour of Rye. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 9. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. 11 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

For the repair of Scarborough pier. 37 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 44.

Wears and engines in the haven of Southampton may be pulled down. 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 5. 14 and 15 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13.

For repair of Southwold harbour. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 58.

For improving Sunderland harbour. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 6. 20 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18.

For the harbour of Watchett. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14.

For preſerving Weymouth harbour. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22.

Far the repair of Whitby harbour. 1 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 19. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 16. 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 39.

For improving the harbour of Whitehaven. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14.

For repairing Yarmouth haven. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. 29 *Car.* II. *c.* 10. 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 16. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 11. 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 5. 1 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 7. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 10. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 40. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *See* PORTS.

HARDENING, the act of communicating a greater degree of hardneſs to a body than it had before.

Steel and iron are hardened and tempered divers ways, as by the hammer, quenching it, when hot, in cold water, caſe-hardening, &c.

To harden and temper Engliſh, Flemiſh, and Swediſh ſteel, they beat it pretty high, then ſuddenly quench it in water to make it very hard: Spaniſh and Venice ſteel need only a blood-red heat, and then be quenched. Sometimes they rub ground indigo and ſallad-oil upon it with a woollen rag, while it is heating, and let it cool of itſelf.

If the ſteel be too brittle for an edge, ſpring, &c. bring it down thus: Take a piece of grindſtone or whetſtone, and rub hard the work on it to take the black ſcurff off, and brighten it; thus let it heat in the fire, and it will gradually change colour, coming firſt to a light goldiſh colour, then to a darker goldiſh colour, and at laſt to a blue colour: chuſe which of theſe the work requires, and quench it ſuddenly in water.

HAMMER-*Hardening* is generally uſed in iron and ſteel plates for ſaws, ſprings, rules, &c.

CASE-*Hardening* is a leſſer degree of ſteel-making, and performed by baking razors, files, knife-blades, &c. in a kind of oven, and laying over them ſtrata of powdered charcoal, hoofs, horns, &c. ſo as to exclude the air; and thus by baking to give a coat of ſteel to thoſe inſtruments ſome depth below their ſurface.

Others cover the iron or ſteel all over with a compoſition of an equal quantity of powdered horn, bay-ſalt, and ſtale urine, or white-wine vinegar, well mixt together, and then wrap it up in loam or plate-iron, and bring the whole in the fire to a blood-red heat, and no higher, and, laſtly, take it out and quench it.

HARDS of flax or hemp, the coarſer parts ſeparated in dreſſing from the tear or fine ſtuff.

HARDWARE-*Man.* The tradeſmen thus named are dealers in Sheffield and Birmingham hardwares, at which places many thouſand artiſts are employed in different branches, as in making knives, razors, ſciſſars, toys, &c. in iron, ſteel, braſs, &c. Some of theſe keep ſhops, and deal in the retail way; while others, who moſtly keep warehouſes, export vaſt quantities of cutlery wares to Sweden and Germany, and both cutlery-wares and inſtruments of huſbandry and agriculture to all our plantations. It is not eaſy to conceive the numerous articles that paſs through the hands of theſe wholeſale dealers; and therefore a boy deſirous of ſerving an apprenticeſhip to this buſineſs, ſhould be of a lively active diſpoſition, and have a good memory; he ought to write a ſwift-running hand, and to underſtand arithmetic and book-keeping.

The retail ſhop-keepers take from twenty to forty pounds with an apprentice, and the wholeſale dealers bave from forty to two hundred pounds; the latter give from twenty to forty pounds a year to a journeyman brought up to the buſineſs in London. In the retail-way, a perſon may ſet up maſter with about two hundred pounds; but in the wholeſale-way, it will require from two thouſand pounds to more than five times that ſum. Some of this trade in London deal for above thirty thouſand pounds a year.

HARPINEER, or *Harponeer*, a fiſherman who throws the harping-iron at a whale, ſturgeon, &c. in order to catch them. This harping-iron is a large javelin of forged iron, five or ſix feet long, with a ſharp triangular point, barbed like that of an arrow, and faſtened to a line. *See* WHALE-FISHERY.

HARTS-HORN, in pharmacy, a drug that comes into uſe as many ways and under as many forms as any one in the whole *Materia Medica*. What we keep in the ſhops under this name, are the whole horns of the common male-deer, as ſeparated from the head, and without farther preparation. As this creature's horns fall off every year, and new ones are produced in their place, it is principally theſe fallen horns that are brought into the ſhops.

The medical writers tells us, that the medicinal *harts-horn* ſhould be that of the true hart or ſtag, known by the name of the red deer, the *elaphus* of the Greeks; but at prefent we uſe only thoſe of the common deer of our parks: the difference in all probability, as to their virtues, is very immaterial. The chemical analyſis of *harts-horn* is ſufficiently known; it yields a water highly impregnated with a volatile ſalt, which is called ſpirit of *harts-horn*, with a fetid oil, and volatile ſalt by the common diſtillation in a retort on an open fire. The remainder in the bottom of the retort, after the diſtillation is finiſhed, is black,

black, but on calcining in an open fire it becomes white and friable, and is what we keep in the ſhops under the name of burnt *harts-horn*. Beſides theſe preparations, we uſe the ſhavings of the horns, which on long boiling in water become a jelly. This jelly is nutritive and ſtrengthening; it is ſometimes given in diarrheas, but a decoction of the burnt *harts-horn* in water is more frequently uſed for this purpoſe, and is what is called *harts-horn* drink. The ſalt of *harts-horn* is a great ſudorific, and is given in fevers of many kinds with great ſucceſs; the ſpirit has the ſame and all the other virtues of volatile alkalis, and is uſed to bring people out of faintings by its pungency, holding it under the noſe, and at the ſame time pouring down ſome drops of it in water.

HARTS-HORN-RASPER. Thoſe of this buſineſs raſp harts-horns, ſaſſafras, logwood, &c. into very thin ſhavings, which they ſell to the druggiſts and apothecaries. They alſo make and ſell harts-horn-drops; ſome of them keep them; it is a good buſineſs, requires little education, but is hard and laborious. They take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice, give but low wages to journeymen, and the buſineſs may be ſet up with one hundred pounds.

HASAER MENARIE, a ſilver coin current in Perſia, worth ten mamoudis.

HAT, a covering for the head, chiefly made of hair, wool, &c. worked, fulled, and faſhioned to the figure of the head, and worn by the men throughout the weſtern part of Europe.

*Hats* and *Caps* ſhall be fulled by hand, and not in a mill. 22 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 5.

The price of them limited. 4 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 9. 3 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. 21 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9. 1 *Mar. ſt.* 2. *c.* 11.

Hatters may buy middle wool yarn. 1 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 4.

Regulations of the trade of making hats, dornecks, and coverlets in Norfolk. 5 and 6 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 24.

Engroſſing hats, &c. prohibited. 1 *Mar. ſt.* 2. *c.* 11.

Directions for the making hats and caps. 3 and 4 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 5. 8 *Eliz. c.* 2.

None to make hats who have not been apprentices. 8 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 2.

Directions for the true making of hats and felts. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 17.

How many apprentices a hatter may take. 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 3.

No aliens to be hatters. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 4.

Hats and caps may be exported, duty free. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 1.

No hats or felts to be exported from the plantations. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22.

Hatters in the plantations to have but two apprentices, and not to employ negroes. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 7 and 8. *See* MANUFACTURES.

*Canada*, and all its *Dependencies*, being ceded to the crown of Great-Britain by the definitive treaty of 1763, we ſhall, in time, very probably be able to get into, and retain in Britiſh hands, the whole furr and peltry trade of Canada; and this, added to that of Hudſon's Bay, and what other branches thereof we may naturally be preſumed to derive from our other new acquiſitions on the continent of America, eſpecially, if we ſhall be able effectually to attach the Indians to our intereſt, will enable us to obtain great plenty of materials for the manufacture of *hats* of the beſt quality: and if we can be able to make them of a price ſuitable to the abilities of our foreign cuſtomers to buy them, we can never want a vent of that article; and may, at a reaſonable rate, ſupply our home conſumption with a very good commodity.

HATBAND-MAKER. The hatband-maker, who is alſo called lining-cutter, ſells all the materials for the hatters, from the wool or fur of which hats are made, to the twiſt that goes round the crown and loops them. There are but few in this way; but their dealings are very large. Their apprentices and journeymen are pretty much on a footing with thoſe of the wholeſale linen-draper or haberdaſher; and it requires as large a fortune to ſet them up.

HATTER or HAT-MAKER. The hatters, or hat-makers, are thoſe who work the wool, hair, or fur, into a proper ſubſtance for a hat: this is called felt. It is very ſlaviſh work; the men being continually ſtooping over the ſteam of a hot kettle; and requires ſtrong lads, who are taken apprentice with ten or fifteen pounds, and frequently with nothing: but when out of their time, they may get, as journeymen, fifteen or eighteen ſhillings a week, or ſet up in this branch with one hundred pounds.

HATTER or HAT-FINISHER. This buſineſs requires no great ſtrength; and is not near ſo fatiguing as the above. The finiſher dyes, trims, ſtiffens, and irons the hats; and from him they go to the haberdaſher, who is alſo called a hatter. (See *Haberdaſher of Hats.*) The finiſher takes apprentices on much the ſame terms as the hat-maker; who, when out of their time, will be able to get as much by being journeymen; and may likewiſe ſet up with one hundred pounds.

HAT-SHOP. Theſe ſhops have greatly multiplied of late years, ſince the univerſal uſe of women's hats. They at firſt only dealt in thoſe imported from Leghorn, and ſtraw and chip made at Dunſtable; but now they deal largely in all kinds of hats worn by women and girls, beavers excepted, which are ſtill ſold by the men's hatter, or haberdaſher of hats. It is at preſent a very pretty buſineſs, and employs many hands; but as it depends intirely on that mutable thing faſhion, it may ſoon be of little value. They take few apprentices, for any handy young woman may learn it in half a year's application; and theſe they can turn away when buſineſs is ſlack, which it is generally two or three of the winter months. A young woman, who has ſerved her time to a milliner, child's-coat ſhop, haberdaſher, or to any trade, where ſhe has been uſed to her needle, may ſupply the place of a journey-woman to one of thoſe ſhops; and I believe the wages given is pretty much the ſame with the above trades. There are ſome who get a tolerable maintenance, by taking the hats home to make. The ſhops give but a very low price for the work: but by conſtant uſe they finiſh them with ſurprizing rapidity, making ſeveral dozen a week.

HAVEN. *See* HARBOUR and PORT.

HAWKERS, thoſe deceitful fellows that go from place to place, buying and ſelling brafs, pewter, and other merchandize, that ought to be uttered in open market: the appellation ſeemeth to ariſe from their uncertainty, like thoſe that with *hawks* ſeek their game where they can find it; you may read the word, 25 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 6. and 33. *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4. We now call thoſe *hawkers* that go up and down the ſtreets crying *news books*, and ſelling by retail; and thoſe who ſell them by wholeſale from the preſs are called mercuries. *Cowell. edit.* 1727.

*Hawkers* of unſtamped news-papers to be ſent to the houſe of correction. 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 5.

*Hawkers* and *Pedlars*. *Stat.* 9. *Will.* III. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 1. There ſhall be paid to his majeſty by every hawker, pedlar, petty chapman, or other trading perſon, going from town to town, or to other men's houſes, and travelling either on foot, or with horſes or otherwiſe, carrying to ſell any goods, a duty of four pounds for each year; and every perſon ſo travelling with a horſe or other beaſt bearing or drawing hurden, ſhall pay four pounds a year for each horſe or beaſt, over and above the other four pounds.

*Sect.* 2. Every pedlar, &c. ſo travelling, upon receiving his licence ſhall pay unto ſuch perſons as the lords commiſſioners of his majeſty's treaſury ſhall appoint to be commiſſioners for licenſing hawkers, pedlars, and petty chapmen, not exceeding three, or any perſon deputed by them, one moiety of the duty, and give ſecurity by bond, with one ſurety to be taken in his majeſty's name, for the payment of the other moiety at the end of ſix calendar months, unleſs the party ſhall chooſe to pay down the other moiety; in which caſe he ſhall be allowed two ſhillings in the pound for prompt payment.

*Sect.* 3. If any ſuch hawker, &c. be found trading without licence, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit twelve pounds, one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh; and if any perſon ſo trading, upon demand made by any juſtice of peace, mayor, conſtable, or other officer of the peace, of any town corporate or borough where he ſhall ſo trade, ſhall refuſe to produce his licence, he ſhall forfeit five pounds to the churchwardens of the pariſh to the uſe of the poor, and for nonpayment ſhall ſuffer as a vagrant, and be committed to the houſe of correction.

*Sect.* 4. The commiſſioners, or any two of them, are required upon the terms aforeſaid to grant a licence to every hawker, &c. for which licence there ſhall be taken only one ſhilling; unleſs ſuch hawker, &c. ſhall travel with horſe or other beaſt, and in that caſe there ſhall be paid two ſhillings over and above the duties; and the commiſſioners ſhall keep a diſtinct account of the duties, and pay the money into his majeſty's Exchequer upon Wedneſday in every week (unleſs a holy day) and then on the day after; and upon neglect of the ſame ſhall incur the penalties as other the officers of the Exchequer.

*Sect.* 5. If any perſon ſhall forge any licence, or travel with ſuch forged licence, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit fifty pounds, one moiety to the king, and the other moiety to him that ſhall ſue for the ſame, to be recovered in any of his majeſty's courts at Weſtminſter; and ſhall be ſubject to ſuch other penalties as for forgery.

*Sect.* 6. Any perſon ſued for putting in execution this act, may plead the general iſſue, Not guilty; and if the plaintiff be nonſuited, &c. ſuch defendant ſhall have treble coſts.

*Sect.* 7. If any conſtable or other officer ſhall neglect to be aſſiſting in the execution of this act, being required, and being thereof convicted by the oath of one witneſs before any juſtice of the peace, he ſhall forfeit forty ſhillings, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods by warrant of ſuch juſtice; the one moiety to the poor of the pariſh, and the other moiety to the informer.

*Sect.* 8. It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to ſeize any ſuch hawker, &c. till he produce a licence; or if he be found trading without a licence, for ſuch time as he may give notice to the conſtable or ſome pariſh officer to carry ſuch perſon before a juſtice of peace, which juſtice is required, either upon confeſſion of the party, or proof by witneſs, that the perſon had ſo traded, and no ſuch licence ſhall be produced before the juſtice, by warrant to cauſe the ſaid twelve pounds to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods.

*Sect.* 9. This act ſhall not prohibit any perſon from ſelling acts of parliament, forms of prayer, proclamations, Gazettes, licenſed almanacks, or other printed papers licenſed, or any fiſh, fruits, or victuals, nor to hinder any makers of goods within the kingdom, or their children, apprentices, agents, or ſervants, from carrying or ſelling the goods of their own making; nor any tinkers, coopers, glaſiers, plumbers, harneſs-menders, or other perſons uſually trading in mending kettles, tubs, houſhold goods, or harneſs, from going about and carrying materials for mending the ſame.

*Sect.* 10. There ſhall be kept in his majeſty's Exchequer, in the office of the auditor of receipts, one book, in which all monies paid by virtue of this act ſhall be entered.

*Sect.* 11. If any officer in the Exchequer ſhall miſapply any of the monies, ſuch officer ſhall forfeit his office, and be incapable of any place of truſt, and ſhall pay the treble value of any ſums ſo miſapplied to the perſons grieved, their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, who will ſue for the ſame in any of his majeſty's courts at Weſtminſter, wherein no eſſoin, &c. privilege of parliament, or other privilege ſhall be allowed.

*Sect.* 12. Nothing herein ſhall hinder any perſon from ſelling goods in any public mart, market, or fair.

*Sect.* 14. It ſhall be lawful for the commiſſioners of his majeſty's treaſury, out of the monies raiſed by this act, to pay to the commiſſioners, their clerks, or other perſons, ſuch ſums of money as they may deſerve for their ſervice.

*Sect.* 15. This act ſhall not extend to give power for the licenſing of any hawker, &c. to ſell any wares in any city, borough, town corporate, or market town, otherwiſe than might have been done before.

Theſe duties are made perpetual, and made part of the aggregate fund. 3 *Ann. c.* 4. 7 *Ann. c.* 7. and 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12.

*Stat.* 3 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 4. Every perſon who being actually trading as a hawker, &c. ſhall not upon demand have his licence ready, ſhall forfeit as if he had traded without a licence; and in caſe any perſon ſhall lend his licence, the perſon lending, and the perſon trading under colour of the ſame, ſhall either of them forfeit forty pounds; one moiety to the queen, and the other moiety to him that ſhall ſue for the ſame in any of her majeſty's courts of record.

*Sect.* 14. Perſons trading in the woollen or linen manufactures of this kingdom, and ſelling the ſame by wholeſale, ſhall not be deemed hawkers, pedlars, or petty chapmen, within any act; but ſuch perſons, and thoſe immediately employed under them, may carry abroad and ſell the ſaid manufactures. *See* BONE-LACE.

*Stat.* 4 *Geo.* I. *c.* 6. No maker or wholeſale trader in Engliſh bone-lace, ſhall be deemed hawker, pedlar, or petty chapman.

HAY and *Hay-Market.* Regulations concerning the hay-market at Weſtminſter. 2 *W.* and *M. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 8. Proviſions for preventing fraud in the ſale of hay and ſtraw there. 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 40.

HELIOTROPIUM, in natural hiſtory, a very beautiful ſpecies of jaſper, long known, not only as a gem, but for its virtues in medicine, for which it has been celebrraed, we will not ſay with how much juſtice; from the days of Pliny down to our times.

It is found in round and irregular maſſes of various ſhapes and ſizes, though the greater part of them are between one and three inches in diameter, and very few much larger. They are perfectly indeterminate in their form, and more reſemble our common flints than any other ſtone, except their not having the like white coat. The colour of the *heliotrope* is a fine and ſtrong green, ſometimes pure and ſimple, but more frequently with an admixture of blue in it. It is moderately tranſparent in thin pieces, and is always veined, clouded, and ſpotted with blood-red. This is its moſt obvious character, and it is from this that it has obtained, among our jewellers, the name of the blood-ſtone. It is very hard, but when broken, it ſhews a ſurface, much like that of the common flints, and is capable of a very high poliſh. It as readily gives fire as a common flint, on being ſtruck againſt a ſteel; it will not at all effervеſce with acids, nor is ſoluble in any hitherto known menſtruum; in the fire it loſes its beautiful green colour intirely, and burns to a duſky grey, only that its red variegations retain their natural colour, though with the ſame loſs of their brightneſs. As ſingular as this obſervation may appear at firſt ſight, it is eaſily reconcileable to reaſon; the red parts of this ſtone, it is to be obſerved, are, in the thinneſt plates of it, much more opaque than the green, and have a duller appearance in whatever light they are viewed, when the ſtone is freſh broken, and the ſurface has not been rendered more equal and uniform by art in the poliſhing; the green part is therefore coloured by ſome light metalline particles, probably of the copper kind, as the tranſparent gems are, but the red owes its colour to an admixture of a red earth; from this it naturally follows, that the red muſt be the opaque, the green the tranſparent part, and that the green colour muſt be driven off by fire, as the colours of all the pellucid gems may be; but that the red, which is owing to ſo fixed a principle as earth, muſt reſiſt the fire.

The *heliotrope* is common in Egypt, Africa, and in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt-Indies. The ancients were perfectly acquainted with it, and had a way of making a kind of ſpeculums of it, which they ſometimes kept unpoliſhed, and uſed for looking at the ſun, particularly in eclipſes. They called it the *heliotrope*, or changer of the effects of the ſun, becauſe that ſun may be looked at in a veſſel of water, and in general may not be viewed by the eye from a reflecting ſpeculum; but on the contrary theſe ſpeculums give but its image ſo dull and dead, that it might be viewed ſafely in them in eclipſes; but if plunged into water, that fluid giving it a temporary poliſh, as it does to all other ſtones, it then returned the image of the ſun as bright as any other reflector, and it no longer could be viewed in it. This is the plain account of the properties attributed by the ancients to this ſtone, and uſually ſo much miſunderſtood by the moderns.

As to its virtues in medicine, it is reported to be of great effect as an aſtringent, either worn externally, or taken in powder. It has been an opinion pretty univerſally received, that it will prevent and ſtop hæmorrhages, if only worn as an amulet; but this is a ſpecies of credulity very happily laughed out of the world at preſent.

HELLE-

HELLEBORE, in botany, a medicinal plant which the ancients reputed as a ſpecific for the cure of melancholy and madneſs, &c. There are two ſorts of it, *white* and *black*.

*White Hellebore* is a root naturally covered with a vaſt quantity of fibres. It is of an oblong and ſomewhat tuberous figure, and its general ſize is an inch or two in length, and about three-fourths of an inch in diameter. Its ſurface is extremely rough and uneven, being deeply furrowed, and often covered towards the top with ſcaly or flaky membranes. It is of a moderately firm and compact texture, not very heavy, nor extremely hard. It cuts tolerably eaſy with a knife, and leaves a ſmooth but not very gloſſy ſurface. Its colour on the outſide is a deep duſky brown, but, when broken, it appears of a whitiſh hue; its fibres are moderately thick and very numerous, and of a paler colour than the reſt of the root. It has very little ſmell, but has an acrid, bitteriſh, ſubaſtringent, and extremely nauſeous taſte.

*White Hellebore* is to be choſen in large and fair roots, plump, full, and not too much wrinkled on the ſurface, not too eaſily broken, and not appearing duſty when broken, for theſe are marks of decay. It ſhould be cleared from the fibres before it is uſed, as they have much leſs virtue than the body of the root.

An infuſion of *white hellebore* root in water makes the colour of the deep blue paper much brighter than before on dipping into it, and has exactly the ſame effect upon it that lime-water has. *White hellebore* given in powder or infuſion, is a very rough vomit, and at preſent is never adminiſtered as ſuch; the ancients uſed it in this intention, and only when deſperate diſeaſes required ſo violent a remedy. It is a powerful ſternutatory, and is ſometimes uſed as ſuch in ſoporoſe diſeaſes; but the principal uſe of it at preſent is externally, in unguents for the itch, among the common people.

*Black Hellebore* is a root conſiſting principally of long and tolerably thick fibres. It is compoſed of a tuberous button or head, which is ſeldom much larger than a ſmall walnut, often not ſo big as a nutmeg; this is of a duſky black colour and of a wrinkled ſurface. From this there iſſue a multitude of fibres or filaments, which are two, three, or more inches long, of a roundiſh figure, but uſually ſomewhat twiſted in the drying; of a tolerably ſmooth ſurface, and of a black colour; but within it is white, and about the thickneſs of a pack-thread. The whole root is light, and of a lax texture, eaſily cut and powdered when not damp. When freſh it has a pungent and acrid ſmell, and a very diſagreeable taſte; in which there is a mixture of bitter, acrid and mawkiſh, which gives an inclination to vomit, even as ſoon almoſt as it is taken into the mouth.

*Black Hellebore* is a purge, but not an eaſy one. It is ſometimes given in ſubſtance from ten grains to twenty; in which doſe, unleſs the root be decayed, it operates very briſkly; it is ſometimes alſo given as a purge in infuſion. In tincture it is principally preſcribed as an alterative for attenuating the humours; it has been always famous in maniac caſes, and is ſtill given in them, though rather as an alterative than purge.

The ancients, who knew nothing of many of our ſtronger purges, might be glad of this, diſagreeable and rough as it was; but there ſeems reaſon to diſregard it in this intention at preſent, as we have ſo many more elegible medicines, the chemical preparations of antimony and mercury having been found ſo much more certain, and ſo well to anſwer all its purpoſes: ſo that at preſent, we only uſe it as an alterative, and the only preparation of it, kept in the ſhops, is a tincture, which, in the late London Diſpenſatory, is ordered to be made by infuſing four ounces of the root with two ſcruples of cochineal in a quart of proof ſpirit, till it has obtained a ſtrong tincture from it in a ſand-heat. The doſe of this is from fifteen to fifty drops. It is given in hyſteric caſes, and in all diſeaſes ariſing from obſtructions of the viſcera.

HEMP, in botany, a very uſeful plant for making cordage and all things of that kind.

The ſtalks of *hemp* grow to be five or ſix feet high, angular, and covered with a ſtrong tough bark; and cloathed with many digitated leaves, each compoſed of five, ſix, or ſeven parts, long and narrow, ſharp-pointed and ſerrated about the edges, the middlemoſt being longeſt, ſet together upon one foot-ſtalk; they are green above and hoary underneath, and rough in handling. The flowers grow towards the top of the ſtalk, in that they call the male in bunches, ſmall, and ſtaminous, which periſh without bringing any ſeed, that being produced by the female only without any previous flowers.

The ſeed, which is the only part uſed in phyſic, is ſaid to be a good medicine in coughs, but its greateſt virtues are againſt the jaundice. They are alſo good againſt heat of urine, and are recommended by ſome in gonorrheas.

However excuſable we might be before the laſt war, for not ſupplying ourſelves from our North American colonies with *hemp*, which has coſt this nation ſuch large outgoings to Ruſſia for that purpoſe, it is to be hoped we ſhall now be no longer neglectful of a matter ſo apparently intereſting to the kingdom; otherwiſe, to what end have we made thoſe conqueſts, and to what end have ſuch extenſive territories been ceded to the crown of Great-Britain? We can no longer complain for want of variety of climates, wherein this article may be plentifully produced, and that of the beſt qualities, and to the beſt advantage, as well of thoſe engaged in it, as the kingdom in general. As our whole mercantile, as well as royal maritime power, depends on ſupplying ourſelves at a reaſonable expence with cordage, we ſhould never longer diſregard a matter ſo manifeſtly lucrative to the kingdom, out of complaiſance to a nation we are not ſufficiently obligated to, as to throw away near a million a year, for what we can have in our own territories.

Every perſon occupying ſixty acres, to ſow one rood with hemp or flax. 24 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4. 5 *Eliz. c.* 5. *ſ.* 29.

Shall not be watered in any running ſtream or common pond. 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 17. 6 *Geo.* III.

Foreigners uſing the trade of dreſſing flax, &c. to enjoy the privileges of ſubjects, taking the oaths, &c. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 3, 4.

Duties on hemp-ſeed, and yarn of flax or hemp imported. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 31, 32. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

The tithe of hemp and flax aſcertained. 3 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 3. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 16.

Flax or hemp may be imported from Ireland duty free. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 30. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 8.

Penalty on workmen imbezzling hemp. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18.

Bounty on the importation of hemp from the plantations. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 10.

Hemp water rotted, &c. from the plantations, free from duties. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12.

Undreſſed flax may be imported duty free. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27.

Medium of the duties on rough flax, &c. for ſeven years, to be an annual charge on the aggregate fund. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 6.

No drawback on the re-exportation of unwrought hemp to the plantations. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 7.

Againſt frauds in manufactures of hemp, flax, &c. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27.

Bounty on the importation of hemp and rough flax from America. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 26.

HERAT. *See* CHORASAN.

HEREFORDSHIRE. *Leominſter*, or *Lempſter* in this county, is noted for its wools, as *Kyneton* is for its fabric of narrow cloths. The products of this county conſiſt of corn, wool, ſalmon, and cyder, of which latter great quantities are conſumed both at home and abroad.

HERMODACTYL, is a drug brought to us from Egypt and Syria, where the people eat it, in order to make themſelves fat. The plant which produces the *hermodactyl* is a ſpecies of *colchicum*, or *meadow ſaffron*, very different from ours indeed, and probably not yet well deſcribed by any author.

*Hermodactyls*, examined by a chemical analyſis, yield a large quantity of an acid, and no ſmall portion of a urinous phlegm, a little oil, a large quantity of earth, and a very ſmall quantity of fixed alcali ſalt.

The dried roots, as we have them in the ſhops, are a gentle purge, and have the credit of being peculiarly good in rheumatic diſorders; but at preſent are but little uſed.

An

An *oxymel* of the *colchicum*, or *meadow ſaffron*, is recommended by Dr. Storke of Vienna, as a ſovereign remedy for the dropſy.

HERRING. Under the article FISHERY, we have given a pretty ample account of the *white herring* branch; wherefore we ſhall here only take notice of the ſeveral additions and alterations which have been made by 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. in regard to the bounty on ſhips built for, and employed in the Britiſh *white herring fiſhery*.

| | Bounty. |
|---|---|
| The bounty of one pound ten ſhillings *per* ton, granted by 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24. is repealed, and in lieu thereof is granted, for every ton burden | 2 10 0 |

The ſaid bounty of two pound ten ſhillings *per* ton is to be paid for the ſame term of years, and in ſuch manner, and by ſuch perſons, and out of ſuch monies, as is directed by the acts of 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24. and 28 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. in regard to the former bounty of one pound ten ſhillings *per* ton.

But ſuch nets as ſhall be found to be beſt adapted to the ſaid fiſheries may be uſed, in lieu of thoſe directed by 23 *Geo.* II. provided that each veſſel do carry the like quantity of netting in the whole; and that the certificate required to be given by the officer appointed to examine the buſſes, and ſo much of the oath of the owners, maſter, &c. in regard to the nets, are varied and made conformable to ſuch alterations.

This bounty is not to be paid till it ſhall appear to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, that the duty of ſix-pence *per* man *per* month to Greenwich-hoſpital for ſuch veſſels hath been fully paid and diſcharged.

The ſociety of the free Britiſh fiſhery may, after the Shetland and Yarmouth fiſheries are over in every year, and till the commencement of the next fiſhing ſeaſon, uſe and employ in any other buſineſs ſuch of their veſſels, and no others, as ſhall have been really, and *bona fide*, employed in, and for, the whole time of the ſaid two fiſheries then laſt preceding.

HERTFORDSHIRE, *or* HART. The principal, and indeed almoſt the only product of this county, is different ſorts of corn, of which great quantities are ground here into meal, or made into malt, and ſo ſent to ſupply London markets; manufactures it has none; and what the dairy affords of butter is brought to town freſh, and ſalt butter purchaſed on cheaper terms in its room, as is practiſed in all the counties circumjacent to London.

HESSE, a landgravate in Germany, lying on the north ſide of the river Mayne. The whole country is bounded on the north by Weſtphalia; on the weſt, by the duchy of Berg, and electorate of Triers; on the ſouth, by the electorate of Mentz, and Franconia; and on the eaſt, by the duchy of Weimar, and Thuringen.

The air is cold, but healthful, the water wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful, producing much corn, and, towards the banks of the Rhine and Lohn, grapes. Here are alſo large foreſts, with ſtore of deer, and other game; and mountains, in which are ſome mines of copper and lead.

The chief commodity of this country is wool, the vallies abounding with ſheep, which have the fineſt in Germany. It uſed to be bought by the Engliſh merchants, and made into cloth here, or in their factories abroad.

*Caſſel*, one of its principal towns, ſeated in a rich pleaſant plain on the river Fuld, is a place of good trade for wool, and other merchandizes. It is obſerved, as a reproach to the inhabitants, that, for want of induſtry, they ſuffer other nations to run away with the profit of manufacturing their wool. The ſtreets of this city are ſpacious and full of ſhops, and here are ſeveral fine markets, with good proviſions of all ſorts. *Smalcald*, fifty miles ſouth-eaſt of *Caſſel*, has a good trade for iron ware, many mines of the neighbourhood furniſhing the inhabitants with plenty of that metal, which they work and ſend abroad to foreign parts. They alſo make and temper ſteel, from whence a village near it is called *Stahlberg*. *Giſſen* is a fair town; its trade is dreſſing and ſelling of cloth. *Friedburg* is a rich and imperial city; it has four annual fairs, one of which is held on the firſt Sunday after Trinity, in remembrance of the dedication of their church on that day, which at firſt brought only pedlars thither with toys, but came at laſt to a ſubſtantial trade. *Waldeck* is a ſmall city, the capital of a principality about twenty miles in extent, which is reckoned one of the moſt conſiderable and wealthieſt in the empire, for its bigneſs, and fertility in corn, wine, and paſture, beſides mines of coal, iron, copper, lead, quickſilver, &c.

HIAS. *See* KILY.

HIDES, a duty on hides, ſkins, &c. by 9 *Ann. c.* 11. *ſ.* 1. was granted from 24 June, 1711, for thirty-two years. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. continued for ever.

This duty is, over and above all former duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid in ready money, without diſcount, upon the entry, and before the landing of the following goods imported: and is to be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered, and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form, as directed for the cuſtoms.

| | The duty. l. s. d. |
|---|---|
| *Hides.*—Buffalo, elk, loſhee, or any other hides dreſſed in oil, the pound | 0 0 4 |
| Ruſſia hides, the pound | 0 0 2 |
| All other tanned hides, not ſpecially charged, the pound | 0 0 1½ |
| Of horſes, mares, and geldings, dreſſed in alum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the hide | 0 1 0 |
| Steers, cows, or any other hides, of what kind ſoever (except horſes, mares, and geldings) dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the hide | 0 2 0 |
| *Skins.*—Calve-ſkins tanned, the pound | 0 0 1½ |
| dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the pound | 0 0 1½ |
| Commonly called cordivants, the dozen | 0 4 0 |
| Deer-ſkins dreſſed in oil or allum, or otherwiſe, perfectly dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 6 |
| Dogs ſkins dreſſed in allum or ſalt, or otherwiſe, the pound | 0 0 0½ |
| Goat-ſkins (not uſually called cordivants) however dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 6 |
| Kids ſkins, dreſſed or undreſſed, or not perfectly dreſſed, the dozen | 0 1 0 |
| Kids ſkins dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the pound | 0 0 1½ |
| Lamb-ſkins dreſſed in oil, the dozen | 0 1 0 |
| tanned, the dozen | 0 0 9 |
| dreſſed, or tawed otherwiſe, the dz. | 0 1 6 |
| Sheep-ſkins dreſſed in oil, the dozen | 0 0 6 |
| tanned, the dozen | 0 0 9 |
| dreſſed, or tawed otherwiſe, the dz. | 0 0 6 |
| Slink calve-ſkins with the hair on, however dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 1 |
| without the hair on, however dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 0½ |
| All other *hides* and *ſkins*, and *pieces of hides* and *ſkins*, tanned, tawed or dreſſed, and all wares made into manufactures of leather, or any manufacture whereof the moſt valuable part is leather; for every twenty ſhillings of the true and real value or worth to be ſold at the port of importation, to be affirmed upon the oath of the merchant or importer, without any abatement for this or any former duty | 0 3 0 or 15 *per cent.* |
| *Parchment*, the dozen | 0 0 6 |
| *Vellum*, the dozen | 0 1 0 |

Upon due exportation, and upon ſufficient ſecurity given before ſhiping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded or brought on ſhore again in Great-Britain, drawback of this duty muſt be allowed as follows, viz.

| | The drawback. |
|---|---|
| *Hides* and *calve-ſkins* | two-thirds |
| *Sheep* and *lamb-ſkins* tanned, tawed, or dreſſed | two-thirds |
| *The reſt* | nothing. |

*Additional duty on hides, ſkins, &c.*

By 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 1, 2, 7, 32, 46. was granted from the reſpective commencements for thirty-two years.

3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. continued for ever.

This branch is, over and above all former duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid in ready money, without diſcount, upon importation of the following goods:

| | The duty. l. s. d. |
|---|---|
| *Hides*.—Buffalo, elk, loſhee, or any other hides dreſſed in oil, the pound | 0 0 3 |
| Ruſſia hides, the pound | 0 0 1 |
| All other tanned hides, the pound | 0 0 2 |
| Of horſes, mares, and geldings, dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the hide | 0 1 0 |
| All other hides, ſo dreſſed or tawed, the hide | 0 1 6 |
| *Skins*.—Calve-ſkins dreſſed in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the lb. | 0 0 1½ |
| tanned, the pound | 0 0 2 |
| Commonly called cordivants, the dozen | 0 4 0 |
| Deer-ſkins perfectly dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 3 |
| Dogs ſkins however dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 0½ |
| Goat ſkins of all ſorts (except cordivants) however dreſſed, the dozen | 0 4 0 |
| Kids ſkins, dreſſed, or undreſſed, or not perfectly dreſſed, the dozen | 0 0 6 |
| Kids ſkins in allum and ſalt, or meal, or otherwiſe tawed, the pound | 0 0 1½ |
| Lamb-ſkins tanned, the dozen | 0 0 9 |
| dreſſed in oil, the dozen | 0 1 0 |
| otherwiſe dreſſed or tawed, the dz. | 0 0 6 |
| Sheep-ſkins tanned, the dozen | 0 0 9 |
| dreſſed in oil, the dozen | 0 1 6 |
| otherwiſe dreſſed or tawed, the dz. | 0 0 6 |
| Slink-calve ſkins with the hair on, however dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 1 |
| without the hair, however dreſſed, the pound | 0 0 0 ½ |
| All other *hides* and *ſkins*, and *pieces of hides* and *ſkins*, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, and all wares made into manufactures of leather, or any manufacture whereof the moſt valuable part is leather; for every twenty ſhillings of the true and real value or worth to be ſold at the port of importation, to be affirmed upon the oath of the merchant, without any abatement for this or any former duty | 0 3 0 or 15 *per cent.* |
| *Parchment*, the dozen | 0 2 0 |
| *Vellum*, the dozen | 0 3 0 |

Which duties are to be aſcertained, raiſed, levied, recovered, and ſecured, by ſuch ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form, as directed for the former duty.

Upon due exportation, and alſo upon ſufficient ſecurity given before ſhipping, that the goods ſhall not be relanded in Great-Britain, drawback of this duty muſt be allowed as follows, viz.

| | The drawback. |
|---|---|
| *Hides* and *calve-ſkins* | two-thirds. |
| *All the reſt* | nothing. |

After the payment of the duties, hides and ſkins imported are to be marked or ſtamped to denote the ſame. 9 and 10 *Ann. c.* 11, 26. *f.* 6, 4.

Stamps to be provided by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms. 9 and 10 *Ann. c.* 11, 26. *f.* 44, 4.

Counterfeiting ſuch ſtamps, or knowingly ſelling any hides, &c. with ſuch counterfeited ſtamps, felony, 9 and 10 *Ann. c.* 11, 26. *f.* 44, 4.

And calve-ſkins, tanned, &c. in Great-Britain, for drawback, regulations of exportation, &c. *See* CALF, and DRAWBACK.

And wares made thereof to be allowed drawback, though the mark does not appear to the officers; provided oath be made by the exporter that they have been ſtamped. 9 and 10 *Ann. c.* 11, 26. *f.* 41, 5.

Such goods ſhipped off to be exported, and afterwards relanded, are forfeited, with treble their value, 9 and 10 *Ann. c.* 11, 26. *f.* 42, 4.

Hides and ſkins of ox, ſteer, bull, cow, or calf, untanned or raw, may not be exported, upon penalty of five hundred pounds, and diſability to deal in leather for the future: ſuch exportation declared likewiſe a common nuſance. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *f.* 25, 11, 12.

Except for the ſhip's uſe only, and not exceeding ſix hides. 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. *f.* 2.

Exported from any iſland belonging to Great-Britain, except Ireland, to any other place than Great-Britain, penalty double the value. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *f.* 3.

HIERA PICRA, in pharmacy, a compoſition of cinnamon, zedoary, aſarum, the leſſer cardamom ſeeds, ſaffron, and aloes. The new diſpenſatory of the college orders this medicine to be compounded only of ſuccotrine aloes and winter's bark.

HILDESHEIM, a biſhopric in Germany. This country lies between the rivers Leina and Ocker, with Halberſtadt on the north-weſt; and Lunenburg, or Zell, on the north; Grubenhagen, on the ſouth; and is elſewhere ſurrounded by the dominions of the duke of Brunſwic. The city of *Hildeſheim*, which was one of the Hanſe-towns, ſtands on the river Innerſte, fifteen miles ſouth-eaſt from Hanover: its chief trade is in corn.

HINGES. *See* GIRDLES.

HISPANIOLA, more commonly called *St. Domingo*, from the name of its capital, is ſeated between the eighteenth and twentieth degree of north latitude, near the middle of Cuba, Jamaica, and Porto Rico; from which latter it is only ſeparated by a very narrow ſtreight. The principal commodities that the Spaniards trade in from their part, are hides, tallow, ſugar, ginger, cocoa, wax, honey, ſome ambergreaſe, Brazil and Guaiacum woods, which grow here, and that of Campeachy, brought from abroad; with lemons, oranges, and many other fruits, ſold freſh, and of which moſt excellent ſweetmeats are made, both wet and dry: here are alſo ſome gold mines; but ſince the intire deſtruction of the natives, they remain unknown, and the preſent poſſeſſors have no more of this metal than what is found among the gravel of the rivers.

The city of St. Domingo, ſeated in the ſouthern part of the iſle, at the mouth of the river Oſana, is the capital of the Spaniards ſhare in Hiſpaniola, and the ſtaple of all their goods, either native or foreign; the inhabitants of the other towns coming here to furniſh themſelves with thoſe from Europe, and the continent of America, brought here in the ſhips of that nation, at the ſame time leaving theirs for embarkation. The ſalt-ponds of the iſle are almoſt equally divided between the Spaniards and the French, there being many in the northern part where the latter inhabit, and not fewer in the ſouthern where the former have their chief eſtabliſhments: the moſt abundant, and from whence the beſt ſalt is extracted, are thoſe of the bay of Ocoa and Corodou, to the ſouth; and thoſe of Caracol, Limonade, and Monte-Chriſto, to the north-eaſt. Here are alſo found ſome mountains of ſal gemm, but they are neglected, as well as ſome other minerals, which might become, with proper care and application, a conſiderable object of trade.

HODECDA on the Arabian coaſt, is an iſle in the latitude of fourteen degrees, fifty minutes, that has a creek proper for the conſtruction of ſhips, and a ſecure port; theſe advantages draw a tolerable good trade here, particularly in coffee, brought from Zidda, Mocha, and other parts.

HOGSHEAD, a meaſure of wine or oil, containing the fourth part of a tun, or ſixty-three gallons; it is half a pipe or butt.

HOLLAND. Nothing gives a greater or more magnificent idea of this commerce, than the flouriſhing condition it has always ſupported the ſtates in, notwithſtanding the many long and expenſive wars it has for a century paſt been ſo frequently engaged in. Three things more eſpecially ſupport this immenſe trade; the one is the great credit of the bank at Amſterdam, whoſe treaſure is ſuppoſed by ſome to be three thouſand tons of gold (of an hundred thouſand guilders each;) the ſecond thing ſo advantageous to the trade of Holland, is the incredible number of ſhips, continually going out and coming in; and the third, is the ſafety with which this trade is carried on, by the government's protection in time of war, or when any cruizers or pirates make it neceſſary. And though this commerce is ſo vaſtly extenſive, it is kept up by a people, whoſe country contributes hardly any products towards it,

as the Dutch have nothing more of their own than ſome butter, cheeſe, earthen ware, and ſome few other trifles that they can ſpare; very little wheat growing in Holland, and no wine at all; the few ſheep here have a wool coarſe and harſh; the land produces very little flax, or hemp; one of its beſt qualities being its propriety (in ſeveral parts) for fuel, ſo that the inhabitants (for want of other) are reduced to the neceſſity of burning the earth that bears them; but its fat paſtures nouriſh great herds of cattle, producing the prodigious quantity of milk, that ſuffices for the daily want of a people peculiarly fond of a lacteal diet, and for making abundance of butter and cheeſe, of which they eat more than any nation in the world. Their manufactures are many, and very conſiderable, though almoſt all the materials for them are brought from abroad.

The trade carried on neareſt home, and the moſt convenient for the ſafety of the concerned, is that which they maintain with a part of Germany, by means of the rivers running through the country, or on the borders of it; ſuch as the Rhine, and Maeſe, which bathe their ſtates; the Weſer, Ems, and Elbe, not very diſtant from the German Ocean. The traffic of the Rhine, (and with it, that of the Moſelle and Main, which increaſe the former's waters in its courſe) is very conſiderable. Cologne is properly the centre of the commerce carried on here, where the merchandize of Lorraine, and the archbiſhopric of Treves are collected; ſuch as wood, iron bars, cannons, and bullets of the ſame metal. It is likewiſe by the Rhine, that the products of Mentz and Franconia (waſhed by the river Main) are conveyed to, and ſold in the celebrated fairs held twice a year at Francfort or Nuremberg: the Rhine alſo ſerves the Dutch in bringing them the flax, threads, and linens from the duchies of Juliers and Bergue.

The Maeſe facilitates the trade of Holland with Leige on that river, as it does that of Aix-la-Chapelle, not very diſtant; and of which almoſt all the trade is tranſacted in the firſt of theſe two cities. The extracts from Leige are ſerges, ſlates, coal, lead, iron, bullets, and braziery made at Aix-la-Chapelle, &c. The Weſer, which has its ſource in the mountains of Turinge, waters one part of the Lower Germany, and after having paſſed through the country of Heſſe and Brunſwic, falls into the Germanic Ocean. Bremen, ſeated fifteen leagues from its mouth in the peninſula that it forms with the Ems, is the depoſite of all the merchandize of thoſe parts; and it is in this city that the Dutch buy up the carpentry wood, cheeſe, wools, ſeveral metals, and beer, that are brought here from Lower Saxony, Heſſe, Brunſwic, &c. Embden, capital of Eaſt-Frieſland, at the mouth of the Ems, is the ſtaple of all the commerce of that part of Germany which traverſes this river. The city is governed by its magiſtrates, and the Dutch, their allies (or one may ſay their maſters, by the great credit they have there) draw hence all the merchandize of Weſtphalia, and eſpecially of the biſhoprics of Paderborn and Munſter, which conſiſts principally in timber, cloths, wools, and linens; it is alſo from thence that thoſe hams come, ſo generally eſteemed in Europe; Eaſt-Frieſland alſo furniſhes Holland with cattle and horns. In fine, the trade of the Elbe is one of the moſt conſiderable that the Dutch tranſact in the Germanic Sea. This famous river has its ſource in Bohemia, towards the frontiers of Sileſia; from thence traverſing many rich provinces, and amongſt them the ſtates of Saxe, Brandenburgh, and Brunſwic, paſſes to Hamburgh (the city which for its trade has merited the appellation of the Amſterdam of the North) from whence in about twenty leagues it falls into the ſea, ſwelled by all the rivers of Bohemia, Saxe, &c. that it has received during ſo long a courſe.

The Dutch commonly tranſact the buſineſs of Lower Germany at Hamburgh, though they often go up to Harbourgh and Magdebourgh for wine and wood, buying in thoſe parts even intire foreſts, which they fell, and fill large magazines with this commodity, to be in readineſs when they want, or think proper to vend or utter it. The goods that the Dutch carry to Germany by the five rivers afnreſaid, are ſilk and woollen manufactures, mercery, ſpice, drugs, dying woods, ſugar, cheeſe, herrings, copper, and ribbons.

Antwerp, Bruſſels, and Mechlin, furniſh the Dutch with thread and thoſe laces, bearing this latter's name; Ghent and Bruges with linen, hemp, and baſons; Bruſſels and Oudenarde with tapeſtry; and Liſle (capital of French Flanders) with cambrics, laces, and baracans; the returns are made in woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, drugs, ſpices, &c.

The traffic of the North and Baltic is one of the moſt important that the Dutch carry on; in other branches of trade, it ſeems as if they only worked for the other parts of Europe; but in this almoſt all regards themſelves; and it is from thence that they fetch the grain which ſupports them, and the things neceſſary to their navigation, without which neither the ſtate, nor particulars, could ſubſiſt.

Although Sweden, Denmark, and ſome other ſtates, ſeated on the Baltic Sea, are comprehended under the general word North, yet Norway, Archangel, and ſome of the moſt ſeptentrional provinces of Ruſſia and Denmark, merit more particularly this title; and it is with theſe that we ſhall commence the general Northern trade.

Before the year 1553, the trade of Muſcovy was carried on by the way of Narva and Revel, cities of Livonia, at the bottom of the Baltic Sea; but the port of Archangel having been diſcovered by the Engliſh, all the trade of this vaſt empire was transferred thither, being much more convenient than any of the others, eſpecially on account of the paſſage of the Sound, which took away, or at leaſt reſtrained, the freedom of the trade of thoſe two places; and there now ſail annually from the ports of Holland (particularly from Amſterdam) near forty ſhips for Archangel, from two to four hundred tons, always divided in two ſquadrons; the one only of five or ſix ſail, which depart in June, and return in September; and the other, of thirty or thirty-two ſhips, whoſe ſailing is fixed in July, and coming back in the end of October. Theſe two ſquadrons have always a convoy, even in the midſt of the profoundeſt peace; and carry with them ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, linens, caſtors (from Canada) paper, mercery, hardware; cannons and other arms, powder, brimſtone, copper, lead, pewter, brandy, wine, oil, vinegar, ſweetmeats, dried fruit, ſaffron, ſugar, ſpice, pepper, herrings, incenſe, copperas, white lead, indigo; woods for dying the Ruſſia hides; laces, gold and ſilver wire, and of this latter metal in ſpecie.

The trade to Norway employs yearly upwards of three hundred Dutch veſſels from four to five hundred tons, the greateſt part from the villages of Friſe, or thoſe in the neighbourhood of Amſterdam. Berghen, the moſt conſiderable port in the kingdom of Norway, is where the Dutch drive their principal trade, though they carry on ſome with Drontheim, Copperwich, and a few other places, in ſpice, ſalt, Spaniſh wine, vinegar, brandy, cheeſe, rolled tobacco, and ſome cloths. And as timber for ſhip-building is what the Flemings moſtly bring back, they have made ſeveral treaties from time to time with the kings of Denmark concerning wood, &c.

The commodities which the Dutch load in the Baltic being bulky, obliges them to employ a large number of ſhips (a thouſand to twelve hundred) yearly in this trade, which they ſend leſs than half loaden, though they always return with an intire cargo; and as the balance of trade is in their diſfavour, by the produce of the goods ſent being inſufficient to pay for the reloadings, they are always obliged to accompany theſe voyages with a parcel of rix-dollars, to make the deficiency good. The commodities proper for Sweden and Denmark, are ſpice, drugs, Portugal and Spaniſh ſalt (thoſe from France not being in ſo much eſteem here) ſugar, wine, brandy, linen, with ſilk and woollen ſtuffs. For Pomerania, cloth, wine, cheeſe, ſalt, tobacco, ſpice, iron, lead, pewter, and old rixdollars. For Dantzick, a quantity of ſilks of all ſorts and faſhions, a great many cloths; dying woods, ſcraped or ground; madder, large parcels of ſpice, drugs; Italian cremor tartari, ſugar, oil, paper; divers ſorts of wine, brandy, and French ſalt (ſit only for Pruſſia.) In fine, they ſend to Riga, Revel, Narva, and Pernau (cities of Livonia) ſalt, ſpice, ſugar, tobacco, French glaſs, and above all, a quantity of old rix-dollars, with which they pay for goods not only of this province belonging to Sweden, but alſo thoſe that are tranſported here, from Muſcovy, Poland, and Lithuania.

Their

Their whale fiſhery is very advantageous, occaſioning a yearly employ of near two hundred and fifty ſhips, with between four and five thouſand men; but that of the herrings ſo infinitely exceeds it, as almoſt to ſurpaſs the degree of compariſon, above twenty thouſand men, and three thouſand buſſes, find an annual occupation in it; and it is aſſerted, that they take and ſell more than 300,000 tons, one year with another, which at two hundred guilders per ton (as a Dutch author computes them) amounts to ſixty millions, from which muſt be deducted near twenty-three millions, for the charges of outſet, &c. and there remains net profit 37,000,000 of guilders, or about 3,400,000l. ſterling.

Although the Dutch have no great ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, ſince they were obliged to quit the conqueſts they had made on the Portugueſe, they, notwithſtanding, carry on a very conſiderable trade here, which is not a little augmented by the contraband commerce, for which their colony at Curacao adminiſters them frequent opportunities. Surinam, Aprowacq, Berbice, and Boron, ſeated in South-America; Bonnaire, Aruba, and Curacoa, among the Soto-vento, or Leeward Iſlands; and Saba, St. Euſtacia, two of the ſmalleſt Antilles, are the only colonies the Dutch poſſeſs at preſent in the Weſt-Indies.

The four colonies of Terra Firma take their name from four rivers of the province of Guiana, along which they are eſtabliſhed. Sugar, which grows here in abundance, is the principal object of their trade, though they alſo cultivate indigo, tobacco, ginger, and cotton. The merchants of Amſterdam carry on the greateſt part of this trade, and have their warehouſes here always well filled with all ſuch ſorts of goods as the Europeans uſually ſend to America.

Of the Antilles, where the Dutch are eſtabliſhed, neither of them is very conſiderable; St. Euſtacia is the biggeſt, and Saba the ſmalleſt; theſe two are little better than rocks, though the few inhabitants reſiding here have found ſufficient earth diſtributed to raiſe a ſupport, and ſome tobacco for exportation; this is a commodity common to them all.

The Dutch have ſeveral trading companies eſtabliſhed in Holland, ſuch as the Eaſt and Weſt-Indian, that of Surinam, the North, the Levant, the Baltic, and the Nova Zembla and Greenland fiſhing companies, all of conſiderable advantage both to the ſtate and particulars.

Though however rich the trade of theſe are, or whatever elſe is tranſacted by private merchants with the other three parts of the world, it is certain, that *that* which their Eaſt-India company has carried on in all the kingdoms of Aſia, for little more than a century paſt, is of much greater conſequence, and infinitely ſurpaſſes it, both in profit and reputation. *See* FRANCE, SPAIN, PORTUGAL, VENICE, for the trade of *Holland*, with thoſe countries; and as in treating of Great-Britain, we have not been particular concerning its trade with the Dutch, we ſhall here ſubjoin ſome obſervations to illuſtrate it.

Before the war, from Michaelmas 1662, to Michaelmas 1663, our imports from Holland exceeded our exports from thence 386,160l. 4s. and from 1668 to 1669, the ballance in our diſfavour was again 323,636l. 1s. And we do not find any account how matters ſtood between us from 1669 to 1696; but from Chriſtmas 1699, to the ſame time in 1704, the eſtimate of our exports exceeded our imports by 7,618,668l. 2¾d. From which accounts may be obſerved, that in the years 1663 and 1669, our dealings with the ſtates were inconſiderable to what they were after the beginning of the firſt war, and have continued to be ever ſince, as well in number and variety of commodities, as in their value. For in the firſt year above mentioned, our exports thither were confined to only forty-five articles of rated goods; whereas in the laſt year, viz. 1704, they were increaſed to at leaſt 120 or 130; and ſo proportionable in thoſe paying *ad valorem*, without reckoning the out-ports, whoſe cuſtom, Dr. Davenant ſays, bears proportion to thoſe of London, as 1,268,095l. is to 346,081l. which would add to the above account near two millions more for the five years; and the ſaid gentleman ſtill bringing the calculation lower, viz. from 1698 to 1705, remarks, that the exceſs in our ſide has been ſome years a million and a half; but by a medium taken of theſe ſeven years 1,388,102l. 6s. 8½d. *per annum*, which, according to the common notion of theſe things, is ſo much money got clear to the nation. But the doctor diſſents from this too generally received opinion, and ſuppoſes, that nothing can be more fallacious than to conclude, that becauſe a country takes off more of our commodities than we do of theirs, that our dealings with that country are always beneficial to us (though prejudicial to them) and that when this happens, there is a conſtant ſuperlucration on our ſide; but his obſervation is with this reſtriction, that our goods thus exported ſerve for the tranſportation trade to thoſe who take them from us, and not for a ſupport of luxury and voluptuouſneſs. For he grants, as every one muſt, that if they are conſumed where they are firſt carried, they muſt prove dead a loſs to their new proprietors; the Dutch are in the firſt caſe, where our products and manufactures, plantation and Eaſt-India goods, furniſh materials for a great part of their trade with other nations, by which they are ſo far from being ſufferers, that, on the contrary, the more they take from us, the more they enlarge their univerſal traffic, and conſequently increaſe their riches; and, *extra* of theſe reaſons, it would be abſurd to imagine, that if Holland was ſo great a loſer yearly as the balance of trade amounted to, that they either would, or indeed could, continue it, as they have for ſo long done; nay, if they were in any ſhape ſufferers by it, they are too politic a nation to proceed in a bad courſe, as this would be a glaring inſtance of an imprudence which that circumſpect people are never guilty of; the contrary is, therefore, apparent, and their motives for continuing the trade proceed from the advantages they reap by it.

But Sir William Temple's ſentiments on this ſubject are ſo finely expreſſed, in his Obſervations upon the United Provinces, *(page 231. cap. 6. of the fifth edition)* that we cannot paſs them by without tranſcribing: "The vulgar, ſays he, miſtake, that importation of foreign wares, if purchaſed with native commodities, and not with money, does not make a nation poorer, is but what every man that gives himſelf leiſure to think, muſt immediately rectify, by finding out, that upon the end of an account between a nation, and all they deal with abroad, whatever the exportation wants in value to balance that of the importation, muſt of neceſſity be made up with ready money.

"By this we find out the foundation of the riches of Holland, as of their trade, by the circumſtances already rehearſed. For never any country traded ſo much, and conſumed ſo little; they buy infinitely, but it is to ſell again, either upon improvement of the commodity, or at a better market. They are the great maſters of the Indian ſpices, and of the Perſian ſilks; but wear plain woollen, and feed upon their own fiſh and roots. Nay, they ſell the fineſt of their own cloth to France, and buy coarſe out of England for their own wear. They ſend abroad the beſt of their own butter into all parts, and buy the cheapeſt out of Ireland or the North of England, for their own uſe. In fine, they furniſh infinite luxury, which they never practiſe; and traffic in pleaſures, they never taſte."

The principal articles of our exports to Holland are woollens of all ſorts, lead, wrought braſs, and iron, melaſſes, cotton wool, quickſilver, wrought ſilk, butter, morkins, rice, copperas, allum, pimento, tin, tobacco, ſugars, gold and ſilver coin and bullion, drugs, and Eaſt-India goods; beſides which, our ſmaller exports are ſkins, woods, leather, glue, wool, wrought plate, gloves, hats of ſeveral ſorts, watches, earthen-ware, garters, bellows, cheeſe, catlings, lanthorn leaves, rape cakes, haberdaſhery, Scots pearls, pewter, elephants teeth, glaſs, &c. And the principal imports from thence are, linens, ſilks, threads, ſpicery, incles, battery, ſtockfiſh, whale-fins, madder, hemp, flax, Rheniſh wine, ſafflower, paper, bugles, and iron wire. The leſſer imports are ſnuff, wainſcot, Ruſſia matts, ſmalts, argol, ſeeds, packthread, metal prepared, ſteel, ſpaw water, wine, quills, hair of ſeveral ſorts, broken glaſs, ſtone pots, bulruſhes, brickſtones, terras, quernſtones, twiſt, indigo, verdigreaſe, weed aſhes, cinnabar, ſpelter, oker, pencils, geneva, hones, iron plates, &c. all which we ſuffer to be imported and conſumed amongſt us, for the ſame reaſons that we prohibit the merchandize of France, viz. becauſe theſe latter take ſo little

little from us, while the Dutch, by the large extractions they make, pay much more to the rents of our lands, and the labour of our people, than we do to theirs. And it is certain, that the United Provinces are the greateſt of all our foreign markets, and the moſt likely to continue ſo; as the products of their country are not any thing near ſufficient to feed or clothe their inhabitants; ſo that it is not in the power of induſtry or art to free them from a dependence for both on their neighbours, whilſt thoſe princes, who govern a more extended country, may, as moſt of them do, daily improve in growths and manufactures. It is true, France has for ſome years paſt interfered with us in this trade, though perhaps very little to our prejudice; and it may be eſteemed on as good a footing now, as it was when the calculations quoted were made; and muſt remain ſo, at leaſt in general, as many of the principal goods which conſtitute that branch of commerce can only be ſupplied by us, and ſome of them as much demanded for France as they are for Holland.

It may, however, be ſaid, that in the laſt war, as well as the former, the Dutch reaped the full advantages of a neutrality in trade, and encouraged that of our enemies, to our great diſadvantage; whereby their gains became ſo extravagantly great, that they were enabled to lend us *millions upon millions*, to carry on theſe wars; and we are now tributaries to them as our public creditors, for above one fourth part of our whole *public debts* thereby contracted; which, with what we were before indebted to them by the wars of king William and queen Anne, we now pay them near a million a year intereſt money: a prodigious drain from the wealth of this kingdom, which enables them ſtill more and more to ruin our trade and navigation, by extending that of our competitors; for the commodities of France are now become ſo much cheaper than ours, that the Dutch give them the preference, and purchaſe and carry them to all parts of the world; while they expeperience Engliſh commodities to be ſo exceſſively dear, that foreign nations are not able to purchaſe them of the Dutch, who formerly were wont to buy them, and tranſport them to all parts of the commercial globe. So that, till the *tax incumbrances* of this nation are greatly reduced, and the general prices of our commodities are ſo lowered that we ſhall be able to ſell them as cheap as our rivals in trade, neither Holland nor other nations can, or will be capable of dealing with us at all: and what increaſes this national evil daily, is, that while we grow more and more unable to vend our own commodities in foreign countries, foreigners will intrude theirs upon us, becauſe they here find a better market for them than in any other country; for the magnitude of public debts, and in conſequence the increaſe of the circulation of paper credit, adds a higher value to foreign commodities as well as our native. Thus while we are rendered leſs and leſs able to ſell our own wares, traders will deal in foreign, till the nation becomes unable to buy them becauſe they cannot ſell their own. For other particulars concerning the commercial concerns of *Holland*, *ſee* AMSTERDAM, BANK, DUTCH.

HOLLAND, in the linen-drapery, a fine, white, even, cloſe kind of linen cloth, for ſhirts, ſheets, &c. It was originally wrought in the provinces of Holland, whence it took its name; but ſome Iriſh and Scottiſh linens, called alſo *hollands*, have of late years been carried to ſo great a degree of perfection, that they now equal, if not exceed, any imported from abroad in fineneſs.

HOLMSTRAND, a ſmall town in Norway, exports a few deals, balks, and ſpar-wood. It lies in the earldom of Jarlſberg; and on the iſland called *Long Oe*, near to it, is a very good quarry of grey marble.

HOLSTER-CASE MAKER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs need have no extraordinary genius, and only a moderate degree of ſtrength. The work has ſome reſemblance to that of a ſhoe-maker; and is very profitable. The maſters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may earn fifteen or eighteen ſhillings a week; or, if he has about a hundred pounds, may ſet up for himſelf.

HOLSTEIN is very abundant and very agreeable; it is perfectly well ſeated for trade, between two ſeas, and has beſides the advantage to be near the Elbe and Hamburgh, which being a free city, and conſequently rich, is of no ſmall advantage to the territories which the king of Denmark and Duke of Holſtein have in its neighbourhood.

HONEY. We refer our readers to the title BEES, where *honey* has been conſidered; and ſhall here only give a deſcription of a very curious and uſeful *bee-hive*, lately invented by Mr. *Thorſley*, near the *Manſion-houſe*, *London*.

Mr. Thorſley having found, from near ſixty years experience, that the bee-hives invented by him would be productive of much greater profit to the owner of bees, and alſo render that cruel and ungenerous practice of deſtroying theſe animals not only unneceſſary, but pernicious, preſented a bee-hive of his conſtruction to the London Society for the Encouragement of Arts, &c. who readily purchaſed another of his hives filled with honey, &c. that they might be inſpected by the curious, and brought into univerſal uſe. Nor did the ſociety ſtop here. Perſuaded that the invention would prove of the greateſt advantage to this country, they publiſhed a premium of two hundred pounds in order to introduce either Mr. Thorſley's, or ſome other method of a ſimilar kind, whereby much larger quantities of honey and wax might be procured, and, at the ſame time, the lives of theſe laborious and uſeful inſects preſerved.

The bottom part of this bee-hive is an octangular box, made of deal boards, about an inch in thickneſs, the cover of which is externally ſeventeen inches in diameter, but internally only fifteen and a half, and its height ten inches. In the middle of the cover of this octangular box is a hole, which may be opened or ſhut at pleaſure, by means of a ſlider. In one of the pannels is a pane of glaſs, covered with a wooden door. The bee-hole at the bottom of the box is about three and a half inches broad, and half an inch high. Two ſlips of deal, about half an inch ſquare, croſs each other in the centre of the box, and are faſtened to the pannels by means of ſmall ſcrews. To theſe ſlips the bees faſten their combs.

In this octangular box the bees are hived, after ſwarming in the uſual manner, and there ſuffered to continue till they have built their combs, and filled them with honey, which may be known by opening the door, and viewing their works through the glaſs-pane; or by the weight of the hive. When the bee-maſter finds his laborious inſects have filled their habitation, he is to place a common bee-hive of ſtraw, made either flat at the top, or in the common form, on the octangular box; and draw out the ſlider, by which a communication will be opened between the box and the ſtraw-hive; the conſequence of which will be, that thoſe laborious inſects will fill this hive alſo with the product of their labours. When the bee-maſter finds the ſtraw hive is well filled, he may puſh in the ſlider, and take it away, placing another immediately in its room, and then, drawing out the ſlider, theſe indefatigable creatures will then fill the new hive in the ſame manner. By proceeding in this method, Mr. Thorſley aſſured the Society, that he had taken three ſucceſſive hives, filled with honey and wax, from one ſingle hive, during the ſame ſummer; and that, after he had laid his inſects under ſo large a contribution, the food ſtill remaining in the octangular box was abundantly ſufficient for their ſupport during the winter. He added, that, if this method was purſued in every part of the kingdom, inſtead of that cruel method of putting the creatures to death, he was perſuaded, from long experience, that wax would be collected in ſuch plenty, that candles made with it might be ſold as cheap as thoſe of tallow are at preſent.

Mr. Thorſley has alſo added another part to his bee-hive, which cannot fail of affording the higheſt entertainment to a curious and inquiſitive mind. It conſiſts of a glaſs-receiver, eighteen inches in height, eight inches in diameter at the bottom, and in the greateſt part thirteen. This receiver has a hole at the top, about an inch in diameter, through which a ſquare piece of deal is extended to nearly the bottom of the veſſel, having two croſs bars, to which the bees faſten their combs. Into the other end of this ſquare piece is ſcrewed a piece of braſs, which ſerves for a handle to the receiver, or glaſs hive. When the bees have filled their ſtraw hive (which muſt have a hole in the center, covered with a piece of tin) Mr. Thorſley places the glaſs-receiver upon the top of the ſtraw-hive, and draws out the piece of tin.

The bees now finding their habitation enlarged, purſue their labours with ſuch alacrity, that they fill this glaſs-

hive

hive likewiſe with their ſtores. And, as this receptacle is wholly tranſparent, the curious obſerver may entertain himſelf with viewing the whole progreſs of their works. One of the hives, now depoſited at the Society's room in the Strand, is filled with the produce of the labours of thoſe inſects; and the glaſs-hive is ſuppoſed to contain near thirty pounds of honey.

The penalty of corrupting honey, or ſelling it in veſſels wanting meaſure, *Stat.* 23. *Eliz. c.* 8. *ſ.* 4.

HOP, in natural hiſtory, a plant of the reptile kind, whoſe flower is a principal ingredient in beer and other malt liquors.

It creeps like ſnake-weed, unleſs it finds pales or ſhrubs to hang to, or unleſs they who cultivate it, plant poles for the purpoſe. It has a long, flexible, rough, and hairy ſtem; its leaf is indented like that of the vine, and covered with a prickly down like the cucumber. Its flowers are of a pale greeniſh yellow, and grow in cluſters. In this flower is a blackiſh bitter grain, which is the ſeed.

The principal uſe of *hops* is well known to conſiſt in preſerving beer from ſpeedily growing ſour, and that it may keep for a long time. For this purpoſe *hops* are effectual by their bitterneſs. *Hops* boiled in the wort are alſo thought to render the beer the wholſomer and more grateful to the taſte, to communicate to it a diuretic virtue, to purge the blood, and to be good for the jaundice and hypochondriac affections.

By 9 *Ann. c.* 12. *ſ.* 1. was granted a duty on *hops* from 1 June 1711, for four years. By 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 17. continued——to 1 Auguſt 1715.——1——12.—5 ditto for ever.

This branch is, over and above all other duties, cuſtoms, and ſubſidies, to be paid down in ready money upon the importation of all hops, viz.

| | The duty. |
|---|---|
| *Hops*, the pound, avoirdupoiſe weight | o o 3 |

To be aſcertained, ſecured, raiſed, levied, recovered, and anſwered by ſuch rules, ways, means, and methods, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, and in ſuch manner and form, as the other duties on hops imported.

| | |
|---|---|
| Upon exportation | Not drawnback. |

*Hops*, imported unclean, corrupt, or mixed with powder, duſt, droſs, ſand, or ſoil, are forfeited. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2. 3 *Car.* I. *c* 4. *ſ.* 22. 16 *Car.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 2.

Britiſh, exported to Ireland, not to draw back the duty. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 39.

May not be imported into Ireland, except from Great-Britain only on forfeiture of the value, and the ſhip: ſuch importation declared likewiſe a common nuſance. 9 *Ann. c.* 12. *ſ.* 27. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 1. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1.

Carried from Great-Britain to Ireland, the maſter of the ſhip to take with him a duplicate of his content, under the hands and ſeals of the collector and comptroller of the port, in order to be produced, upon oath, to the officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland, before landing, upon forfeiture, and ten ſhillings *per* pound. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 6.

No foreign *hops* to be landed in Great-Britain, before the entry and payment of the duty, or without a warrant from the proper officer; nor any foreign hops, except of Britiſh growth, to be landed in Ireland, upon forfeiture thereof, together with the ſhip or veſſel; and every perſon concerned is to forfeit five ſhillings for every pound weight. —The *hops* are to be burnt within ten days after condemnation. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1.

Any perſon mixing with *hops* any drug or ingredient to alter the colour or ſcent, and being convicted thereof, upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, is to forfeit five pounds for every hundred weight. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2.

What fees payable to cuſtom-houſe officers for hops brought to London. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 26.

No bitter to be uſed in brewing but hops. 9 *Ann. c.* 12. *ſ.* 24.

Planters to give notice of the time of bagging. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 25.

Unlawfully and maliciouſly cutting *hop-binds* is made felony without benefit of clergy. *Stat.* 6 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 37. *ſect.* 6.

HORN, in natural hiſtory, a hard callous ſubſtance that grows on the heads of divers animals.

*Horn* makes a conſiderable article in the manufactures. Bullocks, &c. *horns* ſoftened by the fire, ſerve to make lanthorns, combs, tobacco boxes, knive-hafts, &c.

*Horns*, Britiſh, unwrought, may not be tranſported, or ſold to ſtrangers, upon forfeiture of double their value. 4 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 44. 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 4.

*Horners* wares ſhall be ſearched. 4 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 8. Foreigners ſhall not buy *horns* within twenty-four miles of London. 4 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 8. 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 14.

HORNER. This is an ingenious, though a ſtinking buſineſs; and the lad, who is put apprentice to it, requires more ingenuity than ſtrength. The horns of oxen being, when hot, ſoft and ductile, the *horner* preſſes them into variety of forms, and makes tumblers, ſpoons, ſnuff boxes, ink-horns, &c. and in ſome works he uſes the lathe, and turns the horn when cold. Thoſe of this buſineſs take about five pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn twelve or fourteen ſhillings a week; or, with about fifty pounds, may ſet up maſter.

HORN-BUTTON MAKER. Thoſe who practiſe this art make horn buttons, which can hardly be diſtinguiſhed at a diſtance from thoſe of mohair and horſe-hair, by preſſing them while hot in moulds, and afterwards dying them. They alſo make horn-button-moulds of all ſizes. They require about five pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may earn about twelve ſhillings a week.

HORN-PRESSER. This is an art which requires more ſtrength than ingenuity. The horns of oxen are cut into ſeveral rings about an inch and a half broad, and being held over the fire, theſe rings, when ſoftened by the heat, are cut and pulled open with a pair of pincers. They are then placed between hot iron plates, and preſſed with great force till they are ſpread, and become as thin as the workman would have them: this operation is repeated, in order to make horns for lanthorns, horn-books, &c. by heating freſh irons, and again putting them in the preſs till they become tranſparent, and almoſt as thin as a ſheet of paper. They take about five pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn ten or twelve ſhillings a week.

HORSE, a domeſtic quadruped, very uſeful in agriculture, commerce, war, hunting, &c.

*Horſes* are diſtinguiſhed into divers kinds, with regard to their country, as the Neapolitan, Spaniſh genet, Barb, Dutch, Engliſh, Flanders, &c. with regard to their uſes, as coach horſe, war horſe, running horſe, pack horſe, &c. and laſtly, with regard to their colours, as bay, dun, grey, &c.

*Horſes* tranſporting of, reſtrained. 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 13. 22 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7. 1 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 5.

Owners of parks obliged to keep able breeding mares. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 6.

Northern counties excepted. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 5.

The aſſize of *horſes* allowed to be kept upon commons. 32 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13. Altered to the iſle of Ely, &c. by 8 *Eliz. c.* 8. and Cornwall, 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 12.

How many ſtoned trotting horſes every one ſhould keep. 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5.

Penalty of exporting *horſes* without licence. 1 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 5.

How *horſes* ſhall be tolled, and ordered in fairs. 2 and 3 *Phil.* and *Mar. c.* 7. 31 *Eliz. c.* 12.

The exception of *horſes* to be exported for the owners uſe, in 1 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 5. Repealed, 5 *Eliz. c.* 19.

Size of *horſes* to be paſtured in the fens. 8 *Eliz. c.* 8. *ſ.* 2.

How *horſes* ſhall be ſold in fairs. 31 *Eliz. c.* 12. The owner of a ſtolen *horſe* ſold in a fair may have him again, paying the price within ſix months. 31 *Eliz.* . 12. *ſ.* 4.

*c* Exportation of *horſes* permitted, and the duty on them aſcertained. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 8.

*Horſes* in hackney coaches to be fourteen hands high. 2 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 4.

*Horſes* at races to be entered by the owners. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19.

*Horſe-racing* for plates under fifty pounds, or with

*horſes* carrying ſmall weights, prohibited. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2.

*Horſes* may run for the value of fifty pounds with any weight, and at any place. 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 11. *See* CATTLE, FAIRS, *and* MARKETS.

HORSES *hired.* Action on the caſe lies for abuſing a *horſe hired*, by immoderate riding, &c. And a difference has been made in our law betwixt hiring a horſe and borrowing one to go a journey; for in the firſt caſe, the party may ſet his ſervant, &c. upon the horſe, but not in the ſecond. 1 *Mod.* 210.

HORSES *for the king's ſervice.* None ſhall take the *horſe* of any perſon to ſerve the king, without the owner's conſent, or ſufficient warrant, on pain of impriſonment, &c. *Stat.* 20 *Rich.* II. *c.* 3.

HORSE-BREAD. Inn keepers ſhall not make *horſe-bread.* 13 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 8. 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 25. 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 21. Permitted to bake *horſe-bread.* 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 41.

HORSE-MILLINER. Thoſe of this buſineſs deal in every thing relating to the furniture of horſes which is not generally ſold by the ſaddler; as horſe-cloths, ſaddle-cloths, nets, houſings, &c. There are but few of this trade; but thoſe are moſtly in a large way, and ſerve not only gentlemen, but the ſaddlers. This buſineſs requires no other education than is neceſſary for every ſhop-keeper. They take from twenty to a hundred pounds with an apprentice; give twenty pounds and upwards a year to a journeyman; and have ſeldom leſs than a thouſand pounds ſtock.

HORSE-MINT, in botany, is a plant reſembling the common ſpear-mint in its manner of growth, but it is diſtinguiſhed from it at ſight by its whitiſh colour. It grows to two feet or ſomewhat more in height; the ſtalks are very ſtrong and hard, ſquare, hollow within, and covered with a white down or hoarineſs on their ſurface. The leaves are alſo covered with the ſame kind of hoarineſs with that of the ſtalk, and look of a greyiſh colour.

This plant has been greatly celebrated as a cephalic and uterine; the women in the country often give an infuſion of it, in the manner of tea, to promote the menſes; and the midwives make their patients ſit over a decoction of it to forward delivery: it is kept in the ſhops as an ingredient in ſome of the officinal compoſitions, but, otherwiſe, it is very little uſed.

HOSIER. This, like all other trades that merely conſiſt of buying and ſelling, requires no other learning, but writing a good running-hand and accompts; and the whole myſtery to be learned, during the apprenticeſhip, is to know the buying and ſelling prices, and to obtain ſome judgment of the properties and degrees of the real value of the things in which they deal. The *hoſiers* ſell ſilk, worſted, and cotton ſtockings, night-caps and gloves, linſey, and bays, and alſo ſilk and worſted pieces for waiſt-coats and breeches; which ſome export, and others ſell only retail. They take from fifty to a hundred pounds with an apprentice; give twenty or thirty pounds a year and their board to their journeymen; and cannot well ſet up under five hundred pounds. Thoſe who deal in the wholeſale way frequently employ above five thouſand pounds in trade.

HOT-PRESSER. The boy, who is deſirous of being a *hot-preſſer*, ought to have a ſtrong and healthy conſtitution, capable of bearing heat; but neither learning nor genius are neceſſary. The buſineſs is to render ſmooth, gloſſy, and in even folds, moſt ſorts of woollen goods for ſale, by means of hot-preſſes, made of ſteel plates and ſcrews. The maſter takes from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn twelve or fifteen ſhillings a week; or, if he has a hundred pounds, may ſet up for himſelf.

HOTTENTOTS. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

HOUR-GLASS MAKER. This is a branch which requires very ſlender abilities to become maſter of; he is partly a turner, and buys his glaſs from the glaſs-houſe. There are not many of them; though there are more hour-glaſſes made than is generally imagined, eſpecially for the ſea, there not being a ſhip without ſeveral kinds of them, as hour, half hour, quarter of an hour, and minute glaſſes. The maſters will take an apprentice with five pounds; who, when out of his time, may earn ten or twelve ſhillings a week, or with twenty pounds may ſet up for himſelf.

HOUSE-CARVER. A boy, deſirous of being of this trade, ought to have a natural genius for the art, and to be early taught drawing, to which he ſhould apply at his leiſure hours, as long as his apprenticeſhip laſts. His education may, in other reſpects, be only Engliſh, writing, and arithmetic. Thoſe of this buſineſs take with an apprentice from ten to twenty pounds, and it will require from one hundred to five huudred pounds to ſet up maſter.

HOUSE-PAINTER. A mere *houſe-painter* requires very ſmall abilities; but as they in general paint ſigns and inſcriptions in large letters and various hands, a particular kind of education is abſolutely neceſſary: the boy who is to be put an apprentice to this buſineſs ought therefore to ſpend ſome years in learning to write with great perfection, and particularly the print hand Roman and Italic, which are eaſily acquired; he ought then to learn, not only arithmetic, but ſo much of geometry as is neceſſary to his meaſuring the ſurface of all bodies by the ſquare yard: and, at the ſame time, he ſhould learn drawing, for which he ſhould have ſome degree of genius to prevent his producing ſuch monſtrous figures on ſigns, as are a diſgrace to the art of painting, and which might be finiſhed by a good hand in a better taſte, even at the expence of leſs time and labour, than is employed by the blockhead. After ſuch an education, he will have little more to learn beſides improving himſelf in theſe arts, and in the ſecret of grinding, mixing, and compounding the colours. The maſters take about ten pounds with an apprentice, who ought to conſider before he is bound whether he ſhall have thirty or forty pounds to enable him to ſet up maſter when he is out of his time; for the trade is over-ſtocked with journeymen.

HUDSON'S BAY *Company.* That part of the world, which gave birth to this company, owes its diſcovery, as the Engliſh ſuppoſe, to the diligence of that able mariner, whoſe name it bears, and who reaped no other fruit of his labours to diſcover a north-weſt paſſage, than thus conveying to poſterity a record of his capacity and diligence, in which at laſt he periſhed. The Danes inſiſt on their prior knowledge of this part of America. But not to enter into a detail of the diſpute, nor enlarge on the hiſtorical accounts of it, we ſhall content ourſelves with informing our readers, that though the expectations of an advantageous trade might reaſonably have encouraged its being ſooner engaged in, yet it was the year 1681 before any tolerable progreſs was made in it; and on the ſecond of May an excluſive charter was granted by king Charles II. (in the thirty-ſecond year of his reign) to prince Rupert and his aſſociates, which eſtabliſhed this branch of trade on the ſolid footing it has continued ever ſince; though not without various interruptions by the French, who, jealous of ſuch neighbours to their Canada ſettlements, frequently drove the Engliſh from theirs; and this conteſt, which continued ſeveral years, made them alternatively maſters of the Bay, till it was finally determined by the treaty of Utrecht in our countrymen's favour, who have now ſeveral ſorts and factors ſettled there, notwithſtanding the extreme cold, which is ſo intenſe as to confine them for ſeven or eight months in the year to their houſes; though they have good proviſions in this recluſe life, with the pleaſures of hunting and fiſhing in reverſion, to which in ſummer time the elements of earth, air, and water, contribute in ſuch plenty as would be hardly credited under a leſs authority than that of many eye-witneſſes, who have aſſured us of it; though this country furniſhes nothing for the ſupport of trade but furs of various ſorts, and iſinglaſs, the latter made here by the company's ſervants from the ſkins of fiſhes: but the former are ſo rich, and both ſo plenty, as to have raiſed the value of this company's funds above thoſe of any other.

The commodities they truck with the Indians for their furs, are arms, powder, balls, kettles, hatchets, knives, ſword-blades, awls, fiſh-hooks, ſteels and flints, blue ſerge cloaks, ſhirts, ſtockings, tobacco, coarſe thread for nets, and ditto of divers colours for ſewing, glaſs beads, pins, needles, &c. which, as we before obſerved, procure ſuch returns as have greatly enriched the proprietors of them.

HULKS,

An Accurate Map of Hungary and Transilvania: Drawn from the best Authorities.
Carpathian Mountains
UPPER HUNGARY
LOWER HUNGARY
TRANSILVANIA
GERMANY
SCLAVONIA
TURKY IN EUROPE
Vienna
Presburg
Leopoldstat
Neuheusel
Raab
Stuhlweisenburg
Buda
Pest
Novigrad
Agria
Zolnecky
Zegedin
Colocza
Simontornya
Mohacs
Fünfkirchen
Zigat
Zenten
Illok
Belgrade
Danube R.
Temeswar
Hermanstat
Weissenburg
Clausenberg
Schesburg
Szamosvivar
Zemlin
Abaviwar
Tokay
Zatmar
Karol
Hadrich
Hradish
Kanizsa
Posseg
Graditski
Banjaluka
Belina
Sabatz
Statute Miles 69 to a Degree.
10 20 40 80
18 Longit. E. from London.
G. Rollos sculp.

HULKS, large veſſels that have their gun-decks from a hundred and thirteen to a hundred and fifty feet long, and from thirty-one to forty broad. They will carry from four hundred to a thouſand tons. They chiefly ſerve to ſet maſts into ſhips, &c.

HULL. *See* BEVERLEY-BECK.

HUNDRED, is ten times ten, or the ſquare of ten. The proportion of the profits in commerce is reckoned by the hundred, or ſo much *per cent.*

HUNGARY. This kingdom, ſituate between ſixteen and twenty-three degrees of eaſt longitude from London, and bounded by Auſtria and Moravia on the weſt, abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, as alſo pits of ſalt. No ſoil is ſcarce more fruitful in general. It produces good corn in ſuch plenty, that it is ſix times as cheap as in England. Their grapes are large and luſcious, and their wines, particularly thoſe of Tockay, preferred to any in Europe. They have great plenty of graſs and cattle, of which latter they ſend incredible numbers to Germany, not leſs than eighty thouſand in a year. Among other medicinal plants they have rhubarb. Their breed of buffaloes is very good, which ſerve them in ploughing and huſbandry. Their horſes are ſwift but not large, and therefore more uſed for riding than draught. They have ſuch numbers, that their kings have brought fifty thouſand into the field. Here is abundance of deer, wild fowl, and other game, which every body has the privilege of taking, ſo that they are the common food of the very boors. They have no great foreign commerce, beſides the exportation of their cattle and wines; and no other manufactures of conſequence, beſides thoſe of copper and other hardwares, though the queen of Hungary, at preſent, is greatly encouraging divers capital manufactures, which are likely to prove very proſperous. No country produces ſo many metals as this, tin excepted; and in ſome parts are found even diamonds and other precious ſtones. The peaſants, even as they till the ground, ſometimes find grains of gold. They have likewiſe great plenty of white, red, and black marble, and ſome fine porphyry. This country abounds alſo with ſalubrious hot baths and fountains; and ſome of them are of a vitriolic, petrifying, and other peculiar qualities. Its air is temperate, but in the ſummer the days are exceſſive hot, and the nights as cold. Its many marſhes and lakes render it frequently unwholeſome; and its waters, except thoſe of the Danube, are ſtinking; but they are well ſtocked with fiſh, eſpecially the Tibiſcus, where a thouſand carp have been ſold for a crown, and in ſome places they throw their fiſh to the bogs. This prolific quality of the rivers is aſcribed to the hot exhalations that riſe every where out of the ſulphureous ſoil, eſpecially in the ſouth part.

HUNGARY-WATER, a diſtilled water ſo called from a queen of Hungary, for whoſe uſe it was firſt prepared. It is one of the diſtilled waters of the ſhops, and is directed in the college-diſpenſatory to be made of roſemary flowers infuſed ſome days in rectified ſpirits of wine, and then diſtilled. Its virtues are much the ſame with thoſe of the ſimple it is drawn from.

HUNTINGTONSHIRE affords but little matter to treat of, as it is deſtitute of manufactures, and its products limited to cattle and corn.

HUSBANDRY is the art of improving lands. As we judge it needleſs to ſay any thing in behalf of what is ſo generally allowed, we ſhall only recommend to the public regard the moſt recent improvements that have been made in this important art, which are to be met with in an excellent tract, written by that ingenious gentleman, *Jethro Tull*, Eſq; of Shelborne in Berkſhire: intitled, *Horſe-Hoeing Huſbandry:* or, an Eſſay on the Principles of Vegetation and Tillage, deſigned to introduce a new method of culture, whereby the produce of land will be increaſed, and the uſual expence leſſened.

The decaying of houſes of *huſbandry* prohibited. 4 *H.* VII. *c.* 19. 6 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5. 7 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 1. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 22. 2 and 3 *Phil.* and *Mar. c.* 1, 2. 39 *Eliz. c.* 1.

Woods not to be turned to tillage or paſture. 35 *H.* VIII. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 3.

Land to be re-converted to tillage. 5 and 6 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 5. 5 *Eliz. c.* 2.

Who may be compelled to ſerve in *huſbandry*. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 7.

How huſbandmen ſhall take apprentices. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 25.

The ſtatute of 5 *Eliz. c.* 2. concerning the keeping a quantity of land in tillage, repealed. 35 *Eliz. cap.* 7. *ſect.* 20.

Arable land not to be converted to paſture. 39 *Eliz. c.* 2. But not to extend to Northumberland. 43 *Eliz. c.* 9. *ſ.* 32.

For the carrying ſea ſand for manure in Devonſhire and Cornwall. 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 18. *See* AGRICULTURE.

HUSO, the Danube whale, from which chiefly is the glue, called *ichthyocolla*. Fiſh glue is a ſolid gelatinous ſubſtance, obtained from certain large fiſh. It is brought to us from Muſcovy, folded up in different forms. Such rolls or cakes as are compoſed of white, thin, tranſparent plates, which have no ſmell, and perfectly diſſolve in water, are beſt.

HYACINTH, *or* JACINTH, in natural hiſtory, a precious ſtone ſo called from the reſemblance the ancient *hyacinth* bore to the purple flower named *hyacinth*, or violet.

The *hyacinth* is leſs ſtriking to the eye, than any other of the red gems; but it is not without its beauty in its fineſt ſpecimens, or in its pureſt and brighteſt ſtate of perfection. It has alſo the advantage of being found very ſeldom blemiſhed or faulty, though the difference in its colour, in the different ſpecimens, make a very great difference in their value. It is of various ſizes, from that of a pin's head up to a third of an inch in diameter; there have been found at times much larger than theſe, but they are very rare. It is like common cryſtal, ſometimes found in a columnar, ſometimes in a pebble form; and, in the latter of theſe maſſes, it is ever the harder and brighter; though in the former it ſtrikes the eye at firſt ſight, and ſeems to promiſe much more.

The columns are generally ſomewhat long and ſlender, and are terminated by a ſmall pyramid; and they are always clearer, and their colour much finer towards the top of the column than near the baſe. In the pebble ſtate it is found to be conſiderably harder than cryſtal, though much inferior to the ruby or ſapphire in this quality. Its colour is a dull or deadiſh red with an admixture of yellow in it. The ſeveral ſtones have this mixed colour in all degrees, from very deep to very pale: and in all the variety of tints that a prevalence of the red, or of the yellow in different degrees can give it. The red is not often ſo predominant as wholly to drown the yellow; but we meet with *hyacinths* from thoſe where the tinge of the yellow is barely perceptible to ſuch as leave that the prevailing colour; but theſe are uncommon. It is, upon the whole, ſometimes ſo deeply tinged, as not to appear tranſparent, unleſs held up againſt the light; and we meet with ſome ſtones of it almoſt colourleſs. Its general colour is that mixture of red and yellow, which we expreſs by the word *flame colour*.

Our jewellers allow all theſe ſtones to be *hyacinths*, or *jacinths*, that are of a due hardneſs with the mixed colour; and, as they are of very different beauty and value in their ſeveral degrees and mixtures of colours, they divide them into four kinds; three of which they call *hyacinths*, but the fourth, very improperly, a ruby. 1. When the ſtone is in its moſt perfect ſtate, and of a pure and light flame colour, neither the red nor the yellow prevailing, in this ſtate they call it the *hyacintha la belle*. 2. When it has an over proportion of the red, and that ſeemingly of a duſkier colour than the fine high red in the ſame, and the yellow that appears in a faint degree in it, is not a fine bright and clear, but a duſky browniſh yellow, then they call it the *ſaffron hyacinth*. 3. Such ſtones as are of a dead whitiſh yellow, with a very ſmall proportion of red in them, they call *amber hyacinths*. And, 4. when the ſtone is of a fine deep red, blended with a duſky and very deep yellow, they call it a *rubacelle*. The over proportion of a ſtrong red, in this gem, has made people refer it to a ruby claſs; but its fair and evident admixture of yellow, ſhews that it truly belongs to the *hyacinths*.

The *hyacintha la belle* is found both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies. The Oriental are the harder, but the American are often at leaſt equal to them in colour. The *rubacelle* is found only in the Eaſt Indies, and is generally brought over

over among the rubies, but is of little price; the other two varieties are found in Silesia and Bohemia.

HYDRARGIRUS. *See* MERCURY.

HYPOCISTIS is an inspissated, shining black juice, of a rough, styptic, and fourish taste. It should be chosen free from grit, of a full black colour, and not at all burnt. It greatly resembles the juice of acacia. C. Bauhine terms it the inspissated juice of the *(hypocistis subcisto)* undergrowth or excrescence of the cistus.

HYPOTHECATE, a ship, from the Latin *hypotheca*, a pledge, is to pawn the same for necessaries; and a master may *hypothecate* either ship or goods for relief when in distress at sea; for he represents the traders as well as owners: and in whose hands soever a ship or goods *hypothecated* come, they are liable. 1 *Salk.* 34. 2 *Lit. Abr.* 195.

By the common law, by which properties are to be tried, the master of the ship could not impawn the ship; for he has no property, either general or special; nor is such power given to him by the constituting him master; but the defendant's counsel said, that by the civil law the master may, in case of necessity, and when he has no other means to provide necessaries for her. And Hobart, justice, held clearly, that the admiral law is, that if the ship be in danger at sea, or wants necessaries, so as the voyage may be defeated, the master, in such case of necessity, may impawn for money, &c. to relieve such extremities by employing the money so; for he is trusted with the ship and voyage, and so may reasonably be thought to have the power implicitly given him, rather than see the whole lost. *Hob.* 11, 12. *Bridgman*'s case.

A being in a ship on the sea, B, who was in it, and was reputed an agent and factor, borrows a hundred pounds of A upon bottomage (that is, when the money is paid on the keel of the ship, and the ship obliged to payment of it, and if it be not paid at the time, &c. that he that lends the money shall have the ship;) and it was allowed to be a good and necessary custom by all; and it was agreed, that if the master, factor, purser, or he that is reputed owner of the ship, borrows money in such a manner for the necessaries of a ship, that binds the owner of the ship, although the money be not so employed, and the owner has his remedy against him that he so put in trust. And it is not a good allegation to have a prohibition, to say that the property was not in him that took such bottomage. *Noy* 95. *Scarborow* v. *Lyrius*.

HYSSOP, a medicinal well known herb, of a detergent quality. The plant is not a native of England, but is cultivated in great abundance in our gardens.

The whole plant has an acrid taste and a very strong smell; it is attenuant and discutient. It is greatly recommended in disorders of the lungs, when they are loaded with a foul and thick matter. It also strengthens the stomach and assists digestion; it promotes expectoration by its acrimony, and by its power of attenuating the viscid matter in the lungs, is therefore good in moist asthmas. Its good effects in the stomach are of the same kind, depending on its attenuating and absterging the viscid phlegm lodged there, and impeding in it the discharge of its proper functions. It is also good in diseases of the head. It is best taken in infusion in the manner of tea, not made so strong as to be disagreeable to the palate, and often repeated. A simple water of it is kept in the shops, which retains much of its taste, smell, and virtues; we used also to have a syrup of it, but that has of late been disregarded.

HYTH, a port or little haven to lade or unlade wares at, as *Queen-hith*, *Lamb-hith*, &c. New Book of Entries, fol. 3.

# I.



I Was used as a numeral denoting a hundred. The Greek *iota* and the Hebrew *jod* stand but for ten.

JACK-SMITH. This business requires an ingenious handy lad; but little education is necessary; for the mechanic principles of a *jack* are so few, and so commonly known to the trade, that they perform their work practically, without any regard to the laws of mechanics; yet, if the boy has any taste for that science, he will reap no small advantage from learning it. The most common sorts of *jacks* for roasting meat are those moved by weight, consisting of a double set of wheels, a barrel, round which the rope fastened to the pullies is wound, a perpetual screw, and a fly. Some of them have a multiplying wheel, or a wheel of a larger diameter, upon which, the rope first goes, and then round the barrel of the *jack*: as the barrel is four or five times less than the wheel, the *jack* is proportionably longer in going down, since every five turns of the barrel take off but one turn of the multiplying wheel. The *smoke-jack* is moved by a fan made of tin, placed horizontally in the chimney. This moves a wheel, round which the chain is placed by a pinion; and this fan being carried about by the smoke of the fire, the *jack* goes constantly, and having no weight, is never wound up. The making of *jacks* is a very profitable trade. The masters frequently keep shop, and take about ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when a journeyman, may earn fifteen or eighteen shillings a week; or, if he has fifty pounds, may set up master.

JACOBUS, a gold coin so called from king James I. of England, in whose reign it was struck. Of this coin there are two kinds, the old and new; the former is valued at twenty-five shillings, and weighs six penny-weights ten grains; the latter, also called *carolus*, valued at twenty-three shillings, and weighs five penny-weights twenty grains.

JALAP, is the root of a ſort of *convolvulus* growing in America. It is brought over to us cut into tranſverſe ſlices; which ſhould be choſen dry, dark-coloured, heavy, cloſe, full of reſin, hard, not brittle nor pliable. Mr. Boulduc obtained from twelve ounces of this root, by the means of ſpirit of wine, two ounces of reſin; and from the remainder, by water, four ounces of a very ſolid extract: from another parcel of the ſame root he obtained ſix ounces and a half of extract by applying water at firſt. The remarks of this gentleman in general upon this kind of purgatives, are, that the reſinous parts exhibited apart from the mucilaginous ones occaſion great diſorders, without proving ſufficiently purgative, while, on the other hand, the extract made with water alone purged gently, and was, at the ſame time, diuretic. *Jalap* is eſteemed as an excellent purgative in cold phlegmatic conſtitutions. Several attempts have been made to correct its ſuppoſed virulence. Some have recommended hot aromatic oils for this purpoſe, which, as Mr. Geoffroy rightly obſerves, abate the purgative quality of this drug, and by their heat endanger an inflammation of the bowels. Alcaline ſalts or ſoaps are the beſt correctors of reſinous purgatives; for they prevent the adheſion of the reſin to the coats of the inteſtines, and at the ſame time promote the intended operation. But *jalap*, if judiciouſly timed and cloſed, needs little aſſiſtance of this kind: it may, indeed, be triturated with equal its weight of dry loaf ſugar, and thus be better fitted for common uſe. Hoffman, Simon Paulli, and ſome of the more eminent phyſicians, reſtrain the doſe of this root to twenty-four grains: a ſcruple, if the *jalap* be good, is, as Geoffroy obſerves, a ſufficient doſe for moſt conſtitutions.

JAMAICA. This iſland, ranked with the largeſt in America, is of an oval form, near one hundred and forty miles in length, and about ſixty in breadth. It is ſituated in the Atlantic Ocean, between ſeventeen and eighteen degrees of north latitude, and from ſeventy-ſix to ſeventy-nine of weſtern longitude, about twenty leagues eaſt of Hiſpaniola, and as many ſouth from Cuba. It is very fertile, and produces ſeveral commodities more than any other of our plantations do, as cocoa, pepper, and wild cinnamon; of the firſt, however, there is a much leſs quantity growing, than there was when the Spaniards were maſters of this iſle, proceeding from the ignorance of the Engliſh in its cultivation, it being of a very delicate nature, and requiring great care to ſhade and nurſe it, otherwiſe it continues barren, pines, and dies; and notwithſtanding every precaution is practiſed, that has come to the knowledge of our countrymen, they cannot bring it to fructify as it formerly did. Of piemento there are great quantities, which from its form, and the place of its growth, is called *Jamaica pepper*, and commonly here in England *all-ſpice*; being of a fine high flavour, and deſervedly reckoned the beſt, and moſt temperate of the many aromatic drugs brought to us, principally from the Eaſt-Indies. The bark of the wild cinnamon tree is commonly, though falſely, called *cortex winteranus*, and is ſold here as ſuch; but this latter is a native of the ſtreights of Magellan, from whence it was firſt brought by captain Winter, who accompanied Sir Francis Drake in his voyage round the world. Beſides theſe commodities, there are ſeveral other productions natural to *Jamaica*, as cotton, which grows here in great plenty, and finer than that of the Caribbee Iſlands; tobacco, though cultivated in ſmall quantities, abundance of fuſtic, redwood, logwood, and others, for dying; beſides ſeveral ſorts of woods that are ſweet ſcented. The iſland alſo abounds in medicinal herbs and drugs, as guaiacum, china, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, vanilloes, variety of miſletoe, and ſeveral ſalutary gums and roots. Copper mines have been diſcovered here, and ſamples of the metal from thence have been ſeen very fine and good; but all theſe products muſt give place to the ſugar cane, which has brought ſuch immenſe riches to the inhabitants; and the quantity is not only very great, but the quality ſuperior even to that of St. Kits, which is accounted the beſt in the Leeward Iſlands. It is impoſſible to ſay preciſely, how much may annually be made here, as ſeaſons differ, and ſeveral accidents intervene to make void a certainty; but it is aſſerted by ſome, and not judged by others, to exceed the truth, that a hundred thouſand hogſheads are a medium *communibus annis*. It is likewiſe as difficult to aſcertain the number of the inhabitants; but according to the moſt credible accounts, they are about ſeventy thouſand white people, and a hundred and twenty thouſand negroes, who are all ſupplied with cloaths, furniture, &c. from hence; and beſides theſe benefits ariſing from this colony to the mother country, its advantageous ſituation for trade with the Spaniſh continent, enables it to take off large parcels of goods to carry thither. And we cannot quit the ſubject without mentioning another beneficial commerce, chiefly carried on from this iſland, viz. that of cutting logwood in the bay of Campeachy, to which we have an undoubted right; and this has been ſo clearly proved by many authors, as to put the matter beyond diſpute, notwithſtanding the continued depredations of the Spaniards on this account, to the no ſmall detriment of thoſe who are concerned in this branch of buſineſs, and conſequently to this nation in general, as no leſs than 14935 tons, 3 q. 4 lb. were imported in the years 1713, 1714, 1715, and 1716; and were the cutters properly protected, a ſufficiency might now (our right and privilege of cutting being amply aſcertained by the definitive treaty of 1763) be brought in for our own uſe, and that of our nieghbours, without any expence to the government; and as this is not only clear gain, but occaſions the additional benefit of employing a conſiderable number of ſhips, it challenges a ſuitable regard, as from what is here mentioned, it may be reaſonably concluded, that the profit accruing thereby cannot be put at leſs than a hundred thouſand pounds a year.

By 6 *Geo.* III. it is enacted, that from and after the firſt of November, 1766, liberty is given to import, in any foreign one-decked veſſels, live cattle, and all manner of goods, the produce of any American colony, not under the Britiſh dominion, into the iſland of Dominica; and into the ports of Kingſton, Savannah, La Mar, Montego Bay, and Santa Lucca, in the iſland of *Jamaica*, all manner of goods and commodities likewiſe, except ſugars, coffee, pimento, ginger, melaſſes, and tobacco: but no foreign manufactures may be imported into the ſaid iſlands, on forfeiture of the goods and veſſel.

Copper ore, cotton wool, ginger, fuſtic, or other dying woods, hemp, indigo, melaſſes, beaver-ſkins, or other furs, ſugar, cocoa, coffee, pimento, hides and ſkins, pot and pearl aſhes, raw ſilk, or whale-fins, the produce of the Britiſh plantations, are prohibited to be imported into either of the ſaid iſlands, after the firſt of September, 1766, on forfeiture of the goods and veſſel.

Negroes, imported into the ſaid iſlands in Britiſh ſhips, may be exported again in foreign one-decked veſſels; as may all Britiſh commodities legally imported, except maſts, yards, or bowſprits, pitch, tar, turpentine, and tobacco; and alſo except ſuch iron as ſhall be brought from the Britiſh colonies in America.

Doubts, with reſpect to the legality of ſuch importation, are to cleared up by the oath of the exporter or proprietor of ſuch goods, before the ſame are ſuffered to be ſhipped for exportation.

All wool, cotton wool, indigo, cochineal, fuſtic, and all manner of dying drugs or woods, drugs uſed in medicine, hair, furs, hides, and ſkins, pot and pearl aſhes, whale-fins, and raw ſilk, of the growth and produce of any foreign colony or plantation, ſhall, upon the exportation thereof from either of the ſaid iſlands, be imported directly into Great-Britain, under the regulations eſtabliſhed by acts 12 and 22 and 23 *Car.* II.

No goods are to be exported from Dominica to any part of Europe north of Cape Finiſterre, except to Great-Britain; where they are to be landed under the regulations of act 12 *Car.* II.

Sugar imported into Dominica may be exported from thence, to any foreign parts of Europe ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, under ſuch regulations as ſugar, of the produce of the Britiſh plantations in America, may now be exported from them to ſuch foreign parts.

No veſſel, with goods of the produce of the Weſt-Indies, (live cattle excepted) may proceed from Dominica to any other of the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands, except in caſe of diſtreſs, of which report is to be forthwith made to the Cuſtom-houſe officer; nor may any goods be taken on board there, on forfeiture of the veſſel and goods.

at Jacatra, and plundered their lodge and goods, they afterwards built there the city of Batavia.

The Engliſh, well ſettled, as they thought, at Bantam, which was the reſidence of the ſecond preſident of their company, continued to carry on as conſiderable a trade as the Dutch; but were diſpoſſeſſed of this place alſo by their envious neighbours, under a falſe pretext and feigned authority of the king.

Before the Hollanders became maſters of Bantam, the Javans, who were naturally born for trade, carried on a very conſiderable one themſelves, not only in ſeveral ports of their iſlands, but to the moſt remote places of India; and though this buſineſs is greatly diminiſhed, through the ſucceſsful endeavours of the Dutch, intirely to deſtroy it, yet a part of it ſtill ſubſiſts, by means of the many havens and ports in the iſle, where the company have no eſtabliſhments.

The places of their chief trade, beſides that of the ports in the great and little *Java*, are Sumatra, Siam, Malacca, Borneo, Celebes, Bouton, the Moluccas, Banda, Solor, and Timor; though in regard of the Moluccas, and the other iſles dependent on them, they muſt have leave and take paſſports for going there from the Dutch, who are abſolute maſters of them, and which is always difficultly obtained, and at a conſiderable expence; they alſo trade by ſea to Batavia, and it is here they direct their principal traffic to, as it is the reſort of many nations from all parts of Aſia.

What they deal moſt in is rice, which they go to purchaſe, and then tranſport it elſewhere; they however engage in the diſpoſal of all commodities growing on their iſle, ſuch as pepper, cocoa nuts, oil, ſugar, cardamoms, opium, indigo, birds neſts, horſes, areca, many medicinal drugs, benzoin from Borneo, ginger, copper, gold, &c. in exchange of which they bring back ſeveral ſorts of rich ſilk ſtuffs from Coromandel, Bengal, and more eſpecially the patoles of Surate, cotton cloth, counterpanes, mats, fotas (a ſort of women's dreſs) lacque, tranſparent roſin, tortoiſe-ſhell, pewter, lead, porcelanes, tea, ſandal wood, ivory, European goods, cinnamon, nutmegs, and cloves, which ſpice they are obliged to buy of the Dutch, except they can clandeſtinely procure ſome of the two laſt ſorts from the Moluccas and Banda, to which they are very near neighbours.

The principal trading cities of the iſle, are *Balamboang*, *Panarocan*, *Joartam*, and *Cidaiou*, of which the Dutch have almoſt ruined that trade, to draw it to Japara, where they are maſters, which lies ninety-four leagues from Bantam, from whence they get the greateſt part of their carpentry wood, cattle, rice, and fruit, to ſupply the inhabitants of Batavia, Amboina, Ternate, and Banda, and to whoſe port the Javans, Macaſſarois, and ſeveral other nations, even from the moſt remote parts of Aſia, ſend their ſhips; *Cheribon* on the ſame coaſt, at ſixty-ſeven leagues from Bantam, where the company have a fort, as well as at Japara. There is yet on the coaſt of this great iſle, *Tagal*, *Samarang*, *Rambam*, where the company build their ſloops, and other veſſels, and *Sourabaic* (to all which the Dutch have forts;) in fine, Bantam and Batavia, which are the only two of moſt note for trade, as the Dutch have in a manner here united that of the whole iſle. *See* BANTAM, BATAVIA, &c. in their alphabetical order.

The goodneſs of this iſle is inconceivably great, not having its equal in the world; all things are brought to perfection here with eaſe, and but little trouble; the days and nights are always equal, and the heat, which is temperate, remains continually the ſame, ſo that Fahrenheit's thermometer never varies above four or five degrees; the earth is better, not ſo marſhy, and leſs mountainous, than in its neighbouring iſlands; ſo that the Chineſe are very fond of ſettling here, and ſome come for this purpoſe almoſt every year; they likewiſe render it more valuable by their huſbandry and trade, which the Javaneſe neglect, as they are more propenſe to deceit and cozenage than labour. This richneſs of ſoil makes it ſo populous, that one may ſee the roads ſwarm with people in a ſurprizing manner; the rivers alſo, which are numerous, have their borders thick ſet with villages, and beſides the cities along the ſhore, there are many within land full as large and populous. It is reckoned that Cartaſoura, where the emperor's court is, has upwards of thirty thouſand houſes; and that Mataram, which is the largeſt city of the iſle, has 60,000 at leaſt: in fine, according to what the Dutch, who inhabit the principal places on the coaſt, have been able to diſcover, there are in this iſle forty large cities, and forty-five hundred known villages, beſides others yet undiſcovered by them; and by certain memoirs it has been found, that theſe ſame places, ſome years ago, contained no leſs a number of inhabitants than thirty-two millions, including all ages and ſexes; by which calculation it may be ſeen, that this iſland is three times more populous than France, if the difference of territories be conſidered, as the iſle of *Java* is not altogether equal in bigneſs to the half of that kingdom, which yet does not contain above twenty millions of ſouls. *Memoir, M.S. of Dr. Garcin.*

ICELAND, is an iſland which lies in 65 deg. 44 min. of latitude, and 13 deg. and 30 min. of longitude. The inhabitants, although at preſent Chriſtians, are, notwithſtanding, almoſt as much barbarians, as before this religion was profeſſed among them. They neither buy nor ſell, or know the uſe of money; ſo that all their trade conſiſts in barter, either with ſtrangers, or between one another. This iſle became ſubject to Denmark at the ſame time with Norway, and the *Iceland* company of Denmark owe their charter to Frederick III. who granted them his letters-patent in the ſame year the Northern Aſſociation obtained theirs.

The chief traffic of the *Icelanders* conſiſts in beeves, ſheep, and horſes, and the ſkins of theſe animals, dry or ſalted, dry fiſh, butter, tallow, brimſtone, and the furs of foxes, bears, wolves, &c. Among the ſheep they have a very extraordinary ſort, being large, with eight horns, which the natives are obliged to ſaw off, for fear of their wounding the other cattle, as they are difficult to tame; their wool is thick and fine, which recommends it to a good ſale.

The Danes carry to them in exchange for commodities, tobacco, linens, flour, beer, wines, brandy, iron, cloth, ſome hard-ware, &c. all conveyed to Kirkebar, a large town, or ſmall city in the iſland, where the merchants and factors reſide.

ICHTHYOCOLLA, vulgarly called *iſinglaſs*, a ſubſtance got from a ſpecies of fiſh, common in the Danube, Volga, &c. *See* HUSO.

The method of preparing the *ichthyocolla* is this: they cut off all the fins of the fiſh cloſe to the fleſh, and take out the bladder, ſtomach, and inteſtines; they waſh theſe very clean, then cut them in pieces, and, throwing them into a large quantity of water, they let them ſteep twenty-four hours; and after this they kindle a fire under the veſſel, and keep the liquor juſt boiling till the greater part of the matters are diſſolved; they then ſtir the whole briſkly about, ſtrain it through flannels, and ſet the liquor by to cool.

When cold, there is a large quantity of fat uſually formed upon it, which is carefully ſkimmed off, and the clear liquor, poured off from the groſſer parts which ſubſide, is put over the fire again, and gently evaporated and ſkimmed a-freſh all the time, till, by trials, they find, that, on letting a ſpoonful of it cool, it will harden into a conſiſtence of glue. Great care is taken to keep the fire very gentle, to prevent burning, towards the end of the evaporation: they then pour it out upon a large ſmooth wooden table; and, as it cools, form it into the maſſes we meet with it in, by cutting and rolling it up.

The greateſt quantity of *iſinglaſs* is made in Ruſſia: we have it principally from Holland, the Dutch contracting for moſt of it before it is made.

It is an excellent agglutinant and ſtrengthener, and is often preſcribed in jellies and broths, but rarely enters any compoſitions of the regular medicinal form. The wine-coopers uſe a much greater quantity of it than the apothecaries: it is the moſt efficacious, as well as the moſt ſafe and innocent of all the ingredients they uſe for cleaning their wines. *See* ISINGLASS.

JERKEEN. *See* BOUCHAIR.

JEROSLAW, is a Muſcovite city, on the river *Vologda*, where one of the greateſt trades of all Ruſſia is negociated, principally conſiſting in hides, tallow, linens, and bruſhes.

JERGUE. After a ſhip is unloaded, the ſurveyor, or ſome other officer of the cuſtoms, goes on board, and ſearches

ſearches to ſee if there be no unentered goods concealed. This is called *jerquing* the ſhip.

JERSEY. *See* GUERNSEY.

JERSEYS. Theſe fell under the dominion of the crown at the ſame time that New-York did, and with that compoſed the province of Nova-Belgia, taken from the Dutch, and all were included in the grant made by king Charles II. to his brother the duke of York, who inveſted this part of it, by the name of *Nova-Caneria*, in John, lord Berkley, and Sir George Carteret; and they, or their aſſigns to divide it, with the denomination of *Eaſt* and *Weſt-Jerſey*; the firſt falling to the ſhare of Sir George, as the latter did to his lordſhip; and both being parcelled out into different properties, were unanimouſly reſigned up to her majeſty queen Anne, on the twenty-ſecond of April, 1702, and have been ever ſince governed by royal authority. They have ſeveral well built towns in them, commodiouſly ſituated for trade, as ſhips of two or three hundred tons may come up to the merchants houſes in ſeveral of them. The country yields plenty of all ſorts of grain, with which they ſupply the ſugar iſlands; and they drive, beſides, ſome trade in furs, ſkins, and a little tobacco; they likewiſe ſhip ſome train oil, fiſh, corn, &c. for Portugal, Spain, and the Canaries, though New-York is their principal market, either for ſupplying themſelves with, or diſpoſing of their commodities.

The inhabitants are computed to be about 16,000, which, like all others in our plantations, are clothed from hence, and herein contribute to the advantage of their mother country.

JERUN CHROCHER, a money coined in the dominions of the Grand Seignior, current for half a ducat.

JESSO. This country, called alſo *Yedſo*, *Yeco*, *Jedio*, or *Eſo*, makes only one continent, with ſome of the Japan iſles, altho' there have been both navigators and geographers, who have thought it ſeparated by an arm of the ſea, which the Japaneſe alſo affirm. Its inhabitants and trade were for a long time unknown to the Europeans frequenting the Aſian ſeas; and it is only ſince 1643, that there have been any advices about it, gained by the return of a Dutch ſhip called the *Caſtricum*, that diſcovered it. The natives of the country, which is very mountainous, are moſtly ſavages, both in form and manners, being intirely without religion, and almoſt covered with long hairs, like bears, eſpecially the mountaineers, though the inhabitants of towns are a little more poliſhed, and all equally under the dominion of one prince or governor, who acknowledges the king of Japan for his ſovereign, and pays him yearly a ſort of tribute, which he perſonally preſents, and which conſiſts commonly in ſilver and oſtrich feathers.

The trade which they carry on with the Japaneſe, is not inconſiderable, and theſe were the only people they knew, till the Dutch appeared among them. The commodities which they truck with the Japaneſe, are whales fat, and their tongues ſmoked and dried, furs, ſeveral ſorts of feathers, and other products of their land and game, beſides ſome hemp, which they ſpin, by holding it between their feet, and twiſting it with the palms of their hands. The Japaneſe merchants viſit them once a year, and carry them rice, ſugar, ſilk, cloths, and others of a blue ſtuff called *kangan*; copper, tobacco pipes, and boxes, cups, varniſhed pots, and other ſmall kitchen utenſils, ſilver pendants, and copper ear-rings, hatches, knives; and, in fine, all that they have comes from Japan. Theſe people, notwithſtanding, their natural ſavageneſs and barbarity, are however very ſubtle and intelligent in their trade, wherein they are truly juſt and faithful, without any inclination to theft; in general, they moſtly eſteem iron, and more eſpecially thoſe under the forty-ſixth degree prefer it, in their traffic with ſtrangers, to all other commodities whatſoever.

JET, or *black amber*, in natural hiſtory, a kind of foſſil ſtone. The *gagates*, or *true jet*, is a ſubſtance that has been long known to the world, both as a thing uſeful in medicine, and as a beautiful foſſil for toys and ornaments of ſeveral kinds; yet ſo very imperfectly have people been all this while acquainted with it, that even in England, where the fineſt in the world is produced, it is ſo little known, that it is generally confounded with the common *apelites* or *cannel coal*. The difference, however, between theſe is very plain, both in their nature and origin. The cannel coal forms whole ſtrata in the earth, and thoſe of vaſt thickneſs and extent. The *jet*, on the other hand, is found in detached maſſes, ſeldom of any large ſize, lodged in the ſtrata of clay and other matter. *Jet* has a grain reſembling that of wood, and will ſplit very eaſily and regularly in a horizontal direction, but breaks much more difficultly and more irregularly in any other direction; the cannel coal breaks equally eaſy any way, and has no diſtinguiſhable grain at all. *Jet* is but moderately hard, cannel coal is extremely ſo, not leſs indeed than many ſtones; and, finally, *jet* is much more inflammable, and flames a long time, which cannel coal does not.

*Jet* is a very beautiful foſſil, of a tolerably firm and very even and regular ſtructure, and generally of a ſmooth, ſometimes of a gloſſy ſurface. When broken, it always appears very bright and ſhining; it is of a fine deep black colour, very light, and of a bituminous and ſubaſtringent taſte.

It is found in many parts of the world: the German mines afford large quantities of it; it is alſo frequent on the coaſts of France and Italy, waſhed up by the ſea; we have it in England in great abundance, lodged in ſtrata of ſtone and clay, and often waſhed out of cliffs, and rolled about the ſhores by the waves.

Its thin oil much reſembles that of amber, and might be uſed to the ſame purpoſe; but it will not be amiſs to obſerve here, that *jet* is improperly called *black amber*; for there is a real black amber, eaſily diſtinguiſhable from it by its ſuperior hardneſs in the maſs, and by its readily melting over the fire, which the jet will not do.

JETSAM. *See* FLOTSAM.

JEWELS, gold or ſilver bullion, are permitted exportation, 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. and *jewels* may be imported duty free, 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

JEWELLER. There are none of theſe who keep ſhop, except thoſe who are alſo goldſmiths, toymen, &c. ſome of whom ſell rough diamonds, and other valuable ſtones, and alſo thoſe that are ſet. A perſon who undertakes this buſineſs ought to have a good eye, that he may obſerve the flaws and deceits in jewels, and a nice taſte in theſe valuable trifles; he muſt be a perfect judge of all manner of precious ſtones, and paſtes made in imitation of them, know their value according to their different ſize and water, and the manner of having them cut to the beſt advantage. Theſe particulars may be learnt from carefully ſtudying Mr. Jeffrey's excellent Treatiſe on Jewels. Thoſe of this buſineſs ſend rough diamonds to be cut and poliſhed by the diamond cutter, and all other ſtones for the ſame purpoſe to the lapidary, for which they cauſe them to be ſet by the working jewellers. The principal part of the education of a jeweller, is his being well verſed in accounts. They take no apprentices as jewellers; but ought to have ſeveral thouſand pounds to enable them to deal in theſe valuable articles of trade.

WORKING-JEWELLER. His buſineſs is very extenſive, and divided into ſeveral branches; ſome maſters applying only to one, and others to ſome other branch: but theſe are not ſo diſtinct, but that an ingenious man, who is a perfect maſter of ſome of the moſt difficult branches, may perform all, eſpecially if he has learnt to draw; for this part of education is neceſſary to a jeweller, in order to draw draughts of new patterns, and to form beautiful models of them in ſilver, to enable the ſilver caſter to take the impreſſion and caſt them. *See the article* SILVER CASTER.

The jewellers, it is ſaid, formerly made all their various work from the ſolid gold and ſilver, which they bought from the refiner; and having caſt it into ingots, they beat it to the proper ſize, and filed out the deſign, till the ingenious Mr. Hammar invented the art of making patterns, which have ſince been greatly improved by other artiſts. From theſe patterns the ſilver caſter makes the impreſſion, and bringing home the work, it is repaired and poliſhed by the jeweller; and in ſome works, ſeveral pieces are ſoldered together. He, in ſhort, ſets the ſtones, and completes every part of the work. The working jeweller takes from twelve to fourteen pounds with an apprentice; thoſe who ſet diamonds, and perform the moſt curious works, taking more money than thoſe who ſet only carnelians,

nelians, Briſtol ſtones, cryſtals, &c. The journeymen earn from twelve ſhillings to two pounds a week, according to the quickneſs or goodneſs of the hands, and the works they are capable of performing; and it will require from twenty to a hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

JEWS. Here in England, in former times, the *Jews* and all their goods belonged to the chief lord where they lived; and he had ſuch an abſolute property in them, that he might ſell them; for they had not liberty to remove to another lord, without leave. This appears in *Matt Paris, pag.* 521, 606. where we read that Henry III. ſold the *Jews* to Earl Richard, his brother, for a certain term of years, that *quos rex excoriaverat, comes eviſceraret.* They were diſtinguiſhed from the Chriſtians, both living and dying; for they had proper judges and courts, where their cauſes were decided; and they wore a badge on their outward garments upon the breaſt in the ſhape of a table, and were fined if they went abroad without ſuch badge. They were never buried in the country, but brought up to London, and there buried without the walls. But Hen. I. gave leave that they might be buried without the walls of any other city; and anciently we had a court of the juſtices aſſigned for the government of the *Jews.* See *Inſt. fol.* 254.

*Stat.* 51 *Hen.* III. *ſtat.* 6. *ſ.* 1. called the ſtatute of the pillory, directs, among other things, that the jury therein mentioned ſhall inquire if any buy fleſh of *Jews*, and then ſell it to Chriſtians. In 9 *Edw.* I. a *Jew* had his trial *per medietatem linguæ*, viz. *Judæorum*, and they were ſworn on the Five Books of Moſes, held in their arm (braches) and by the name of the God of Iſrael, who is merciful. *D.* 144. *pl.* 59. *marg.* cites 9 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 13 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 3. *c.* 1. called the Statute of Merchants, is directed to extend to all except *Jews.*

A *Jew* born in England purchaſed land, and martied a *Jeweſs*; he is converted to Chriſtianity, but ſhe is not converted, ſhe ſhall not have dower. *Jenk.* 3. *marg.* cites it as the time of *Edw.* I. and *Parliam. Rol. Rot.* 1.

The marrying a *Jew*, either by a Chriſtian man, or Chriſtian woman, was anciently reckoned felony, and the party offending to be burnt alive. 3 *Inſt.* 89.

A *Jew* brought an action, and the defendant pleaded that the plaintiff is a *Jew*, and that all *Jews* are perpetual enemies *regis & religionis*; judgment *ſi actio.* But *per cur.* a *Jew* may recover as well as a villain, and the plea is but in diſability ſo long as the king ſhall prohibit them to trade; and judgment for the plaintiff. *L. P. R.* 4. cites *Mich.* 36 *Car.* II. *B. R.*

A *Jew* was ordered to ſwear his anſwer upon the *Pentateuch*, and that the plaintiff's clerk ſhould be preſent to ſee him ſworn. *Mich.* 1684. *Vern. R.* 263. *Anon'.*

The *Jews* are here by an implied licence; but on a proclamation of baniſhment, it is like a determination of letters of ſafe-conduct to an alien enemy, that was here by virtue of ſuch letters before, &c. *Arg.* 2 *Show.* 371. in caſe of the *Eaſt-India Company* v. *Sands.*

By 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 30. If any Jewiſh parent, in order to the compelling his proteſtant child to change his religion, ſhall refuſe to allow ſuch child a fitting maintenance, ſuitable to the ability of ſuch parent, and the age and education of ſuch child; upon complaint, it ſhall be lawful for the lord chancellor to make ſuch order for the maintenance of ſuch proteſtant child, as he ſhall think fit.

A *Jew*'s daughter turned proteſtant; the *Jew* died, leaving ſeveral legacies in charities, and his perſonal eſtate to his executor, but nothing to his daughter; ſhe petitioned the lord chief juſtice Parker for a maintenance upon the ſtatute of queen *Anne.* It was objected, that ſhe was forty-five years old, and ſo the care of her education over. Secondly, that ſhe is married, and not now to be called a child, but to be provided for by her huſband. Thirdly, that her parent is dead, and ſo cannot be ſaid to have refuſed, and therefore the power given by the act at an end. But lord chief juſtice Parker ſaid, that he inclined ſtrongly to think this caſe to be within the act for ſeveral reaſons there mentioned by him, and that poſſibly the charities given by the will may be under ſome ſecret truſt for the child if ſhe ſhould turn *Jew*, and therefore directed that the maſter inquire into it. *Wm's Rep.* 524. *Hill.* 1718. *Vincent* v. *Farnandez.*

By *Stat.* 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. Whenever any *Jew* ſhall preſent himſelf to take the oath of abjuration, in purſuance of this act, the words (upon the true faith of a Chriſtian) ſhall be omitted out of the ſaid oath, in adminiſtring it to ſuch perſons; and the taking the ſaid oath by perſons profeſſing the Jewiſh religion, without the ſaid words, in like manner as *Jews* are admitted to give evidence in courts of juſtice, ſhall be deemed a ſufficient taking of the abjuration oath.

Alterations of the abjuration oath in favour of *Jews*, to be naturalized in America. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 3.

Bills in parliament for naturalizing *Jews*, permitted. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. Repealed, 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 1.

The *Jews*, in moſt trading countries where they are eſtabliſhed, act as brokers, money-dealers, &c. particularly in the dominions of the grand ſeignior, and many places of Aſia.

ILFORDCOMBE. By 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. the ſeveral duties following ſhall be paid to Sir *Bouchier Wray*, his heirs and aſſigns, lords of the manor of *Ilfordcombe*, in the county of Devon (the greateſt) part of which acknowledgments were anciently paid to the lords of the manor, viz.

For woollen and bay yarn, and flocks, 2 q. *per* ſtone, each to contain 18 lb. and for every ton of other goods, imported or exported out of the ſaid port, eight-pence.

For every ſhip which ſhall come into the ſaid harbour (the ſame not being their diſcharging port) the keelage following, viz. for every ſhip uſing the coaſting trade, belonging to the ſaid port, ſix-pence; for every ſhip, not belonging to the ſaid port, uſing the coaſting trade, one ſhilling and ſix-pence; for every other ſhip coming from his majeſty's plantations, or bound thither, two ſhillings ſix-pence: the maſter paying the ſaid duty of keelage, ſhall have allowance of the merchant by way of average; for every ſhip that pays keelage, there ſhall be paid by the maſter ſix-pence for each top which ſuch veſſel beareth; and for the keelage of every boat belonging to any other port or place, four-pence.

For the ſupport of the lighthouſe (which light ſhall be ſet up at Michaelmas, and continue till the firſt of March, in every year) there ſhall be paid, during ſuch ſeaſon, by every ſhip belonging to the ſaid port, ſix-pence; and by every other ſhip, one ſhilling.

And for laying up, or leeſing of ſhips in the harbour, and to the fiſhery, there ſhall be paid the duties following, viz. for every ſhip belonging to the harbour, four ſhillings and four-pence; for every other ſhip, ſix ſhillings and eight-pence; for every boat employed in the herring-fiſhery, four ſhillings and four-pence; and for every boat fiſhing for mackarel, for the ſeaſon, four ſhillings and four-pence; and for every barrel of herrings, one penny; and for every horſe-load of goods imported or exported, three-pence.

For the keeping of a taw-boat there ſhall be paid ſuch dutics, and ſuch orders obſerved, as follows: firſt, the owner of ſuch taw-boat ſhall have for going to any ſhip, three ſhares, and the owner of the boat and company ſhall have one third of every pilot ſhip; the owner of ſuch boat to have his part, whether the pilot be ſhipped within the harbour or without, and the keeper of ſuch boat ſhall have one man's ſhare, and no boat ſhall ſerve, but ſuch taw-boat only, which is to attend the place; and, if any other boat ſhall ſerve, the owner of ſuch boat ſhall forfeit ſix ſhillings and eight-pence, unleſs upon extremity of weather, then the owner of the taw-boat ſhall appoint other boats to aſſiſt him; and the owner of ſuch taw-boat ſhall have from every ſuch ſpecial boat, one ſhare, and the keeper of the taw-boat ſhall attend, and keep the boat and warp always in readineſs.

There ſhall be paid by the maſter of every veſſel belonging to *Ilfordcombe*, who ſhall uſe the warp, ſix ſhillings and eight-pence; and by the maſter of every veſſel belonging to any other port, thirteen ſhillings and four-pence.

For keeping weights in the harbour, by the ſaid Sir Bouchier Wray, his heirs and aſſigns, the orders herein after mentioned ſhall be obſerved, viz. no perſon ſhall weigh any goods, bought or ſold there, with any other weights; and if any perſon ſhall weigh with other weights, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit three ſhillings and four-pence; and there ſhall be paid for every ton ſo weighed, two-pence.

There ſhall be paid for every dicker of leather there landed, three-pence; for every hogſhead of tobacco, three-

three-pence; for every weigh of coals or culm, ſix-pence; for every horſe, one-penny; for every bullock, a half-penny; for every ſcore of ſheep, four-pence; for every dozen of earthen-ware, imported or exported, a half-penny; for every meaſe of herrings unſalted, carried out of the port, three-pence; for every ton of ballaſt taken on board in the port, two-pence; for every ton of limeſtones landed in the harbour, one penny; for every ton of groceries, or ſaltery wares, one ſhilling and ſix-pence; for every hundred of barrel-ſtaves, four-pence; for every bundle of hoops, a half-penny; for every pack of bays or ſtuff, three-pence; and for every hundred weight of cheeſe, two-pence; and for the leeſing or laying up of every fiſhing boat as ſhall not pay duty, two ſhillings and two pence.

And for all other goods, not particularly mentioned, imported or exported, ſuch ſums of money ſhall be collected, as duties appertaining to the ſaid key, light-houſe, and warp-houſe, according to ſuch moderate values, as are proportionable to the rates above expreſſed, and as are paid in the adjacent ports.

All money raiſed by the duties, or recovered by forfeitures, ſhall be laid out in repairing and maintaining the piers, key, light-houſe, warp, warp houſe, boats, and harbour of *Ilfordcombe*.

The water-bailiff hath power to go aboard ſhips, and to diſtrain for non-payment, and, after ten days, to ſell the diſtreſs, and ſatisfy the duties, penalties, and coſts.

Nothing in this act ſhall diminiſh any of the ancient rights, which the freemen of Bridgwater have enjoyed, by virtue of a charter granted by king John.

IMBEZZLE, to waſte, ſcatter, and conſume; as if a perſon intruſted with goods, waſte and diminiſh them, we ſay he hath *imbezzled* the goods. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 31. *See* STORES, WOOL.

IMPEDIMENTS *in law.* Perſons under *impediments* are thoſe within age, under coverture, *non compos mentis*, in priſon, beyond ſea, &c. who, by a ſaving in our laws, have time to claim and proſecute their right, after the *impediments* removed, in caſe of fines levied, &c. 1 *R.* III. *c.* 7. 4 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 24.

IMPORTATION, the act of bringing into a kingdom merchandizes from foreign countries. The term is uſed in oppoſition to exportation.

The true intereſt of trading nations depends upon having a vigilant eye over their imports and exports, that their foreign traffic may not drain them of their treaſure, inſtead of enriching them. In conſequence of the extenſive poſſeſſions ceded by the definitive treaty of peace of 1763, to the crown of Great-Britain, it is to be hoped, that we ſhall be able in the moſt effectual manner to leſſen our imports from foreign nations: for certainly North America will now be able to furniſh us with all the timber we have hitherto taken from Norway, and every ſpecies of naval ſtores we have taken from the Eaſt countries. Can we, at preſent, want competent territories, in their variety of climates, to ſupply us amply with hemp and flax in abundance, or pitch and tar, or every ſpecies of timber for ſhip-building? Can we now ſtand in need of indigo or cochineal, or ſilk, or even wine and pot-aſh, from our colonies, if we conſider them in their extent from ſouth to north? Now, all Canada and its dependencies are become Britiſh, we certainly can never have occaſion to import furs or peltry of any kind, except from our own continent plantations.

*Some of the principal laws of England, with regard to the importation of merchandizes.*

If goods imported are conveyed away without entry, and paying cuſtoms, or ſecuring the ſame to be paid, the lord treaſurer, barons of the Exchequer, or chief magiſtrates of the place where the offence was committed, or next adjoining thereunto, may grant a warrant to any perſon, who, with the aſſiſtance of a conſtable, may break open any houſe in the day-time, in caſe of reſiſtance; and may break open doors, cheſts, trunks, or other package, and take thence any prohibited or unaccuſtomed goods, to which all officers are to be aiding and aſſiſting; but no proceeding ſhall be upon this act, unleſs within one month after the offence is committed. And, if falſe information is given, the perſon wrongfully accuſed may recover coſt and damages. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 19. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 5. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 1.

No ſhip, or veſſel arriving from beyond ſea, ſhall be above three days ſailing, from Graveſend to the place of diſcharge, in the river of Thames, unleſs apparently hindered by contrary wind, or other juſt impediment. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 1.

No ſhip, bound for the port of London, ſhall touch or ſtay at any place, adjoining to any ſhore, between Graveſend and Cheſter key; and true entries ſhall be made of all ſuch ſhip's lading, upon oath of the maſter or purſer, for that voyage, to the beſt of their knowledge: alſo, where ſhe took in her lading, of what country built, how manned, who was maſter during the voyage, and who were owners thereof. And in all out-ports, to come directly to the place of unlading, and make true entries as aforeſaid, upon penalty of forfeiture of a hundred pounds. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 1.

After any ſhip is cleared, and the watchmen and tradeſmen diſcharged from their attendance, if there be found on board ſuch ſhip any goods which have been concealed, and not paid duty inward, then the maſter, or other perſon, taking charge of ſuch ſhip, ſhall forfeit a hundred pounds. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. cap.* 1.

Porters, carmen, watermen, &c. aſſiſting in carrying on board, or landing uncuſtomed or prohibited goods, being convicted by the oath of two witneſſes, ſhall, for the firſt offence, be committed to the next gaol, until they find ſecurity for their good behaviour; and for the ſecond offence, to be committed for two months, without bail or mainprize, or until diſcharged by the court of Exchequer, or pay, each perſon, to the ſheriff of the county, five pounds. *Stat.* 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar.*

No merchant denizen ſhall cover a ſtranger's goods; but ſhall by himſelf, or known agent, ſign one of his bills of every entry, with the mark, number, and contents, of every parcel of goods, as are rated to pay by the piece, meaſure, or weight, of ſuch as are rated duty by weight, without which no entry ſhall paſs. And no children of aliens, under twenty-one years, ſhall have entry made in their names, nor be permitted to trade. *Stat.* 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 1.

Merchants, trading into the port of London, ſhall have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any of the lawful keys, between the Tower and London-bridge, ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the tenth of September to the tenth of March; and between ſix o'clock in the morning and ſix in the evening, from the tenth of March to the tenth of September: giving notice thereof to the reſpective officers, appointed to attend the lading and unlading of goods. And ſuch officers as ſhall refuſe, upon due calling, to be preſent, ſhall forfeit five pounds for every default; half to the king, and half to the informer or proſecutor; by the thirteenth article of the Book of Rates, made 12 *Car.* II. *cap.* 4. Received, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. cap.* 1.

No goods (fiſh taken by his majeſty's ſubjects, ſea-coal, ſtone, and beſtial excepted) ſhall be landed or laden on board, but at lawful keys and places (except Hull, 1 *Eliz. c.* 11.) or ſuch other places as his majeſty ſhall appoint, by commiſſions out of the court of Exchequer, upon forfeiture of ſuch goods. *Stat.* 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. Revived, 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 1.

To prevent combination between importers aud ſeizers of goods, unlawfully imported or exported, none ſhall ſeize the ſame but the officers of the Cuſtoms, or ſuch as ſhall be authorized ſo to do, by the lord treaſurer, under-treaſurer, or a ſpecial commiſſion from his majeſty, under the great or privy ſeal, notwithſtanding any law to the contrary. *Stat.* 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11.

If any ſeizer of prohibited or uncuſtomed goods ſhall not make due proſecution thereof, it is lawful for the Cuſtom-houſe officers, or others deputed thereto, to make ſeizure of ſuch goods, and bring his action by way of *devenerunt*; and they ſhall be in law adjudged the firſt true informers and ſeizers, and have the benefit thereof, notwithſtanding any law and ſtatute, &c. to the contrary.

All

All foreign goods permitted to be landed, by bills at ſight, bills at view or ſufferance, ſhall be landed at the moſt convenient keys and wharfs, as the officers of the Cuſtoms ſhall direct; and there, or at the king's ſtorehouſe of the reſpective ports, ſhall be meaſured, weighed, numbered, &c. by the officers appointed, who ſhall perfect the entry, and thereunto ſubſcribe their names; and the next day make their report to the cuſtomer, collector, or comptroller; or, in default thereof, ſhall forfeit a hundred pounds.

No ſort of wine (except Rheniſh) ſpicery, grocery, tobacco, pitch, tar, pot-aſhes, ſalt, roſin, boards, fir, timber, or olive oil, ſhall be imported into England, Wales, or town of Berwick, from the Netherlands, or Germany, upon the penalty of forfeiting ſhip and goods.

Any merchant who ſhall import goods, ſhall have liberty to break bulk in any lawful port or key; the maſter or purſer firſt making oath of the true contents of the ſhip's lading, as by the firſt article of the Book of Rates.

Brandy in any veſſel leſs than ſixty gallons, or in ſhips leſs than fifteen tons burden, is forfeited by 4 and 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5.

After December the firſt, 1696, no one ſhall put on ſhore, in Scotland or Ireland, any merchandize of the growth or product of any of his majeſty's plantations, unleſs the ſame have been firſt landed in England, Wales, or Berwick, and paid the duties wherewith the ſame be chargeable, under penalty of forfeiting ſhip and goods: three fourths to the king, and one fourth to the informer, or him that ſhall ſue for the ſame: except the ſhip being diſabled or driven into any port of Ireland, and unable to proceed on her voyage, her goods may then be put on ſhore under the hands of the principal officers of the Cuſtoms there reſiding, until the goods can be put on board ſome other veſſel or ſhip, to be tranſported to ſome part of England, Wales, or Berwick.

After the firſt of Auguſt, 1696, natives of England or Ireland may import into England, directly from Ireland, any hemp, flax, thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, cuſtom free, the chief officer ſo importing bringing a certificate from the chief officer in Ireland, expreſſing the particulars of the goods, with the names and places of abode of the exporters thence, and of ſuch as have ſworn the ſaid goods to be *bona fide* of the growth and manufacture of that kingdom, and who they are conſigned to in England; and the chief officer of the ſaid veſſel ſhall make oath, that the ſaid goods are the ſame that are on board, by virtue of that certificate.

Wool may be imported from Ireland, to the ports of Whitehaven, Liverpool, Cheſter, Briſtol, Bridgwater, Minehead, Barnſtaple, and Biddeford, and no other. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 28.

*Goods prohibited importation.*

No cloths, made beyond ſea, ſhall be brought into England, Ireland, Wales, or Scotland, upon penalty of forfeiture, and further puniſhment at the king's pleaſure.

No woollen cloths, woollen caps, laces, croſſes, ribbands, fringes of ſilk or thread, thread laces, ſilk twined, ſilk any wife embroidered, or gold laces, ſaddles, ſtirrups, or any harneſs pertaining to ſaddles; ſpurs, boſſes for bridles, hand-irons, grid-irons, no manner of locks, hammers, pincers, fire-tongs, dripping-pans, dice, tennis-balls, purſes, gloves, girdles, harneſſes for girdles of iron, lattin, ſteel, tin or alcamine: nothing that is wrought of any tanned leather; corks, knives, daggers, ſword-blades, bodkins, ſheers, razors, ſciſſars, cheſſmen, playing cards, combs, pattens, pack-needles; no painted wares, forcers, caſkets, rings of copper, or lattin gilt, chafing-diſhes, chafing-balls, hanging candleſticks, curtain-rings, ladles, ſcummers, counterfeit baſons, ewers, hats, bruſhes, wool-cards: nor any of theſe wares or chaffers ſhall be imported, uttered, and ſold within England or Wales, upon penalty of forfeiting half to the king, and half to the informer; excepting wares taken in the ſea by a wreck. 3 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 4.

No girdlers, point-makers, purſers, glovers, joiners, card-makers, wire-mongers, weavers, bottle-makers, or copper-ſmiths, ſhall be imported by merchants or ſtrangers. 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 12.

No great cattle, ſheep, or ſwine, or any beef, pork, or bacon, ſhall be imported into England, or town of Berwick (except for the neceſſary proviſion of the ſhips in which they are imported, and except from the Iſle of Man) nor any ling, cod, or pilchards, freſh or ſalted, dried or bloated; nor any ſalmon, eel, or conger, taken by any foreigners, ſhall be imported, upon penalty of forfeiting the ſame; one half to the poor of the pariſh where the ſame ſhall be found, and half to the ſeizer: but that part relating to bacon is repealed, and there are temporary acts for the importing of cattle and proviſions from Ireland. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 32.

No foreign wool-cards, card-wire or iron-wire for wool-cards, ſhall be imported into England or Wales, under the penalty of forfeiture; one half to the king, and half to the informer. No foreign bone-lace, cut-work, embroidery, fringe, button, or needle-work, ſhall be imported into England or Wales, upon the penalty of forfeiting the goods, and a hundred pounds; one half to the king, and the other to the informer, or profecutor. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 13.

No foreign hair-buttons, or other buttons whatſoever, ſhall be imported into England or Wales, or town of Berwick, under penalty of forfeiting the ſame; one half to the king, and the other to the proſecutor. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 13.

No thrown ſilk of the product or manufacture of Italy, Sicily, Naples, that is to ſay, Italian, coarſer than third; Bolognian, Sicilian, coarſer than ſecond orny, except as in 3 *Ann.* until the 29th of September, 1705, nor thrames, or thrown ſilk, of the production of Turkey, China, Perſia, or the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be imported, under the penalty of forfeiture.

No whale-fins, cut into ſhort lengths, ſhall be imported, under the penalty of forfeiture, and double the value thereof. 9 and 10 *Will.* III.

An additional duty of one ſhilling in the pound is laid on all goods and merchandizes imported, except goods allowed by former acts to be imported duty free, and goods imported by the Eaſt-India company. And a drawback of this duty ſhall be allowed on re-exportation of them within three years, except ſuch goods on which no drawback is allowed by former acts. 21 *Geo.* II.

A drawback of three ſhillings in the hundred weight ſhall be allowed on all ſugars refined and exported.

Any perſon reſiding in his majeſty's dominions may import thrown ſilk of the growth of Italy or Sicily, as ſhall be the produce of the effects of Engliſh merchants trading thither, in Engliſh ſhipping for Leghorn. 1 *Ann. c.* 27. *For further particulars, ſee the* articles CONTRABAND GOODS, &c.

IMPOST, ſignifies the tax received by the prince, for ſuch merchandizes as are brought into any haven within his dominions from foreign nations. It may in ſome ſort be diſtinguiſhed from *cuſtom*, becauſe *cuſtom* is rather that profit the prince makes of wares ſhipped out; yet they are frequently confounded.

INCENSE. *See* OLIBANUM.

INCH, a well known Engliſh meaſure, being equivalent to the length of three barley-corns ſet endwiſe. It is the twelfth part of a foot.

INCH *of candle*, a manner of felling goods among merchants, notice being given in writing upon the Royal-Exchange and elſewhere, when the ſale is to begin. Againſt this time the goods are divided into parcels, called lots, and papers printed that contain the quantities of each, and the conditions of ſale, as that none bid leſs than a certain ſum bidden before. At the time of bidding about an *inch* of wax candle is burning; and the laſt bidder, when the candle goes out, has the lot that was then expoſed to ſale.

INCLE, *unwrought and ſhort ſpinnel.* See LINEN YARN.

INDIA *Coaſts.* That extent of coaſt which runs from the frontiers of Guſurate to Cape Comorin, are called the *India coaſts*, in which are found the kingdoms of Decan, Cuncan, Canara, Malabar (which alone contains eight or ten at leaſt, and among them Cananor, Calicut, Cranganor, Cochin, Porca or Porcati, Calicoulang, and Coulan.) Of all which coaſts the Portugueze were for a long time maſters, it being from hence that they begun their

70 80 90 100 Degrees East from London. 110

30 20 10 0

# An ACCURATE MAP of INDIA By G. Rollos Geog.r

PERSIA

TIBET

CHINA

INDIAN OCEAN

BAY OF BENGAL

MOULTAN

LAHOR

DELLY

AGRA

MALVA

GUZURAT

CANDISH

DECAN

VISAPOUR

GOLCONDA

BISNAGAR

CARNATA

MALABAR

COROMANDEL COAST

MOGULS EMPIRE

BENGAL

ORISSA

PATNA

ASSEM

AVA

PEGU

SIAM

CAMBOGIA

CHINA

LAOS

COCHYN CHINA

TONQUIN

Caubul
Candahar
Irjab
Bankich
Naugracut
Latac
Thonkour
L. Terkiri
Tsiia
Tonker
Pa
Dsant arkeng
Likiang
Yunnan
Yunkiang
Tropic of Cancer
Taiping
Macao
Tieutchen
Cachao
Kehau
Bao
Lit
Rocho R.
Kiungtchu
Yai
Ioyuei
HAYNAN I.
Guabang
Lanchang
Guasai
Cochra
Quambin
C. Touron
Touron
Gam
Cangalla
Manton
Baubon
Periou
Brahang
Striponob
Cambogia
Orientes
Banda
Nhotnehot
Pontiano
Carol
Condor I.
Cecir da terra
Cecir da Mar
Gulph of Siam
Bardia
Bancoca
Siama
Amsterdam
Basoura
Ballambanon
Dimerahoen
Panjang I.
Ligor I.
Junkseilon
Patana
C. Patana
Ridang I.
Capao I.
Trin gan
Pahang I.
Varella I.
Timon I.
Aort.
Natuna Is.
Anambas Is.
I. Spiritu Sancto
C. Romana
Tanjang I.
Malacca
Straits of Malacca
Sumatra
Pera
Perach I.
Solongor
Pinang I.
Achim
Junsalan
Queda
Tavay
Tenasserim
Gr. Andaman I.
Ilt. Andaman Is.
Narcondam I.
Cocos I.
Preparis I.
Carnicobar I.
Nicobar Is.
Sombrero Channel
Juara I.
Penbo I.
Sourg I.
Nacavari I.
Talichan I.
St. Matthew
Lay I.
Carnan
Quedah
Ins. of Martaban
Diamond Am.
Dombassa
Pegu
Meno
Da
Kna
Sirian
Martaban
Sangue clone
Pondelone
Pitchia
Caitiai
Campenpor
Ladoncevan
Ougatain
Caruzema
Louvo
Columpon
Cheraa
Tenasserim
Kuy
Aiuthia
Chiamay
Ariano
Chandara
Tipra
Decca
Malda
Rotas
Raja Rotas
Patna
Morang
Tchoucra
Jesalmere
Asmer
Agra
Amedipour
Fitan
Pitan
Medabo
Narnol
Mesvat
Samba
Moragpour
Bacar
Becaner
Calsory
Jamba
Gor
Goe
Buckor
Bando
Sandur
Halimar
Moultan
Jeng-por
Tatta
Sindi
Sorel
Jesselmere
Dobil
Iata
Birun
Bimal
Bollado
Cutna
Chitor
Amandabad
Cambaye
Jaquete
C. Jaquete
Por
Mangar
Goga
Surat
Brampour
Chapour
Pala
Zafranad
Bassan
Jowisi
Bombay
Daboi
Quely
Tinindruk
Rajapour
Matura
Alpour
Setapour
Goa
Ponda
Triputi
Triplante
Conjaveram
Raolonda
Golconda
Tchelicour
Narsinga
Narsipel
Godavarin
Visapour
Tanjapoli
Tirvelan
Sondy
Bisnagar
Batecalo
Barsalor
Padoua
Mangalor
Churbaniang
Metelur
Tillicherry
Laccadives Is.
Perinrapar
Bacondi
Aquilon
Charles I.
Calicut
Tanor
Grangan
Seuhelipar
Calpeny
Cochim
Ariepau
Madura
Tavaram
Trichinapoly
Ginji
Canava gam
Amelo ur
Chuanyama
Pondicherry
Porto Novo
Tranquebar
Carical
Vengatan
Tanimere
C. Pedro
Jaffanapatan
Tutorin
Calicoulan
Tangapatan
Malica
Kelay
C. Comorin
Calapetin
Ceylan
Candy
Colombo
Pearl Bank
Manaar
Trincamaly
Batecalo
Tricol
Punto Gale
C. Ponder
Quilai
Saura
Marcomoda
Malindo
Mesadon
Adali
Padrabanca
Padipel Atol
Diepour
Maldives
Mulaco Atol
Colmondo Atol
Adumati Atol
Atol Savadival
Equinoctial Line
V Hours East from London.
VI
VII

their diſcoveries and conqueſts in the Eaſt-Indies, as Calicut was the firſt city where they landed, and Cananor the place where they built their firſt fortification, which was followed by others almoſt in every maritime city of thoſe little ſtates; but when their affairs began to fall into decay in the Eaſt, they abandoned and razed that part of them which they deemed indefencible againſt the Dutch, who drove them out of the beſt, and among them Cochin and Cranganor, which theſe latter took in 1661, the Portugueze having been only able to ſave Goa, and a few other obſcure and noteleſs places. The trade of the principal of theſe kingdoms, cities, &c. may be ſeen in their alphabetical order.

INDIA *goods and trade.* A duty upon India linens and ſilks exported. 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 5.

All India goods to be ſold by inch of candle. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 69.

A duty of five *per cent.* upon India goods. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 76.

Additional duties on wrought ſilk, &c. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 80. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 3.

Made perpetual, 7 *Ann. c.* 7. and part of the aggregate fund. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8.

Drawback on exportation. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 3. *ſect.* 5.

Several India goods prohibited to be worn, or to be imported in any other port than London. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11.

Wrought ſilks, &c. to be warehouſed till exported. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 2.

Proof to lie on owner. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *cap.* 10. *ſect.* 4.

No duties but the half ſubſidy. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 10.

The terms muſlins and painted callicoes explained. 12 and 13 *Will.* III. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 14.

Duties on japanned and lacquered goods to be paid *ad valorem.* 12 and 13 *Will.* III. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 15.

Unrated India goods to pay cuſtom as ſold at the ſale. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 6.

Security to be given for importing the goods to Great-Britain, and paying the duties. 6 *Ann. c.* 3.

Bonds for exporting India goods to be delivered up, if no proſecution within three years. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 24.

India goods to be carried to Ireland only from England. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 12.

Printed ſilks, callicoes, &c. not marked forfeited. 5 *Geo.* II. *ſ.* 15.

India goods carried to Ireland, Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or the plantations, not ſhipped in Great-Britain, forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 9.

The time of ſale for unrated India goods, enlarged to three years. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 11.

The 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. ſhall not extend to any goods made up in furniture before the 25th of December, 1722. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11.

Foreign goods may be taken out of warehouſes and refreſhed. 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 8.

Unrated Eaſt-India goods to pay ſubſidy of five *per cent.* 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 2. *See* EAST-INDIA, and GOODS, &c.

INDIAN BERRY, *coculus Indicus*, in botany, a ſmall berry of a roundiſh figure, but with a depreſſion or dent on one ſide; it is of the ſize of a large pea, its ſurface is ſomewhat wrinkled, and is of a ſoft and friable texture, in compariſon of moſt other fruits of this kind. It is light, and of a browniſh colour on the ſurface. We have them from Malabar, and ſome other parts of the Eaſt-Indies. They are little uſed in the ſhops, being eſteemed poiſonous. Fiſhermen have a way of mixing them into paſtes, which, when eaten greedily by the fiſh, make them appear lifeleſs for a time, and float upon the water. *See* the article BEER, *for the ſtatute againſt uſing them in brewing.*

INDIAN LEAF, *malabathrum*, in botany, a large leaf of an oblong figure, conſiderably broad, and of a duſky green or ſomewhat browniſh colour. Its ſmell is aromatic and agreeable, ſomewhat reſembling that of a mixture of cloves and cinnamon: its taſte is ſomewhat acrid and biteriſh, but very aromatic.

The tree which produces the *malabathrum* is large and lofty in its manner of growth, and its flowers and fruit much reſemble the cinnamon tree. Its leaves, when full grown, are ten inches or more in length, and ſix or eight in breadth. It is common in Malabar, principally upon the mountains.

The ancients have ſaid much of the virtue of the *malabathrum*; they call it ſtomachic, ſudorific, and cephalic. Dioſcorides aſcribes to it all the virtues of the Indian ſpikenard, but ſays it poſſeſſes them in a ſuperior degree. At preſent it is utterly diſregarded, and is only kept in the ſhops as an ingredient in the theriaca, mithridate, and ſome other compoſitions.

INDIGO. We have ſpoken ſufficiently, under the article ANIL, of the culture of this plant, and its beſt method of preparation for the purpoſes of dying; ſo that we ſhall only here touch upon the laws that have been enacted for regulating it as a mercantile commodity.

*Indigo* may be imported till 29 September, 1760, and thence to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament, from any place whatſoever, in any ſhip belonging to Great-Britain, or to any kingdom or ſtate in amity with his majeſty. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2, 3. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2. *See* PLANTATIONS; and for the premium and regulations of *indigo* of the Britiſh plantations, *ſee* BOUNTY.

By 3 *Geo.* III. an act to continue and amend two acts made in the twenty-firſt and twenty-eighth years of his late majeſty's reign, for encouraging the making of *indigo* in the Britiſh plantations in America; and for extending the proviſions of an act of the thirteenth of his late majeſty's reign, with reſpect to bringing prize goods into this kingdom, to Spaniſh prize goods ſince the late declaration of war with Spain.

Whereas the law for encouraging the making of *indigo* in the Britiſh plantations in America, has been found to be very uſeful and beneficial to the public, and ſo near expiring, that it is fit it ſhould be continued; it is therefore enacted, that the two above ſpecified acts are hereby further continued, from the expiration thereof, until the 25th day of March, 1770, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

Provided always, and be it enacted, that from and after the time limited by the ſaid act, of the twenty-eighth year of his late majeſty's reign, no more than four-pence on the pound ſhall be paid and allowed as a bounty on *indigo* imported from his majeſty's colonies, under the regulations and reſtrictions mentioned in the ſaid act of the twenty-firſt year of George II. and that no part of the ſaid bounty of four-pence on the pound ſhall be repaid upon the exportation of ſuch *indigo*.

Provided alſo, and be it enacted, that in caſe any doubt or diſpute ſhall ariſe between the ſurveyors or officers of the Cuſtoms, and the owners or importers of *indigo* imported into any of the out-ports of Great-Britain, as to the quality of the ſame, it ſhall and may be lawful for the collector of his majeſty's Cuſtoms in any ſuch out-ports, to call two or more dyers, dry-ſalters, brokers, or others, well ſkilled in that commodity, who ſhall declare upon oath, if required, their opinion as to the quality of the ſame; and, according to the beſt of their judgment, determine whether the ſaid *indigo* is or is not intitled to the premium granted by the above-recited act.

Provided nevertheleſs, that if a competent number of perſons, well ſkilled in that commodity, to be approved of by the collector of the Cuſtoms of any out-port where *indigo* is imported, cannot be found in ſuch out-port, then, in ſuch caſe only, where any doubt or diſpute ſhall ariſe as aforeſaid, ſamples of ſuch *indigo*, if imported into any out-port in England, ſhall be taken out and ſent to the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms of London; and if imported into any out-port at Scotland, the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms at Edinburgh, in ſuch manner as the reſpective commiſſioners ſhall direct, in order to be inſpected and adjudged by ſuch perſons, and in ſuch manner as are preſcribed by law for *indigo* imported into the port of London.

INDORSEMENT, is any thing written on the back of a deed, as a condition written on the back of an obligation is commonly called an *indorſement.* Where it is written on the back of an obligation (received ten pounds in part of payment) it may be pleaded. *See* BILLS OF EXCHANGE, PROMISSORY NOTES.

themſelves are made miſcible with watery fluids by the intervention of gum, he mixed ſome of the ſofter printers varniſh, with about half its weight of a thick mucilage of gum arabic, working them well together in a mortar, till they united into a ſmooth uniform maſs: this was beaten with lamp black, and ſome water added by little and little, the rubbing being continued, till this mixture was diluted to a due conſiſtence for writing. It wrote freely, and of a full browniſh-black colour: the characters could not be diſcharged by rubbing, but water waſhed them out, though not near ſo readily as any of the foregoing. Inſtead of the printers varniſh or boiled oil, he mixed raw linſeed oil in the ſame manner with mucilage and lamp black, and on diluting the mixture with water, obtained an *ink* not greatly different from the other.

Though theſe oily mixtures anſwered better than thoſe ſimple gums or glues, it was apprehended that their being diſchargeable by water would render them unfit for the purpoſes intended. The only way of obviating this imperfection appeared to be, by uſing a paper, which ſhould admit the black liquid to ſink a little into its ſubſtance. Accordingly the doctor took ſome of the more ſinking kinds of paper, and common paper made damp, as for printing; and had the ſatisfaction to find, that neither the oily nor the ſimple gummy mixtures ſpread upon them ſo much as might have been expected, and that the characters were as fixed as could be deſired, for they could not be waſhed out, without rubbing off part of the ſubſtance of the paper itſelf.

All theſe *inks* muſt be now and then ſtirred or ſhaken during the time of uſe, to mix up the black powder, which ſettles by degrees to the bottom: thoſe with oil muſt be well ſhaken alſo, though not uſed, once a day, or at leaſt once in three or four days, to keep the oil united with the water and gum; for if once the oil ſeparates, which it is apt to do by ſtanding at reſt for ſome days, it can no longer be mixed with the thin fluid by any agitation. But though this imperfect union of the ingredients renders theſe *inks* leſs fit for general uſe than thoſe commonly employed, the doctor apprehends there are many occaſions, in which theſe kinds of inconveniences will not be thought to counterbalance the advantage of having writings, which we may be aſſured will be as laſting as the paper they are written upon. And, indeed, the inconvenience may be in a great meaſure obviated by uſing cotton in the ink-ſtand, which, imbibing the fluid, prevents the ſeparation of the black powder diffuſed through it.

It has often been remarked, that the *inks* uſed in former times were far more durable than thoſe of later years; many modern records being more decayed than the manuſcripts of much greater antiquity. Camillo Paderni, in his letters from Herculaneum, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for the years 1753 and 1754, ſpeaking of the ancient Roman and Greek volumes diſcovered there, written on the Egyptian papyrus, complains of the paper being ſo much decayed and rotten, that they had been able to unroll only a few pieces; but makes no complaint of the *ink* having any where faded, all the parts that had been unrolled ſeeming, from what he ſays of them, to be legible enough: in one place he mentions expreſsly the characters being of a very black tincture, exceeding that of the coal to which ſome parts of the paper were reduced. This obſervation occurring to the doctor on reviſing the foregoing experiments, he was induced to look into the Greek and Roman writers, who flouriſhed before the deſtruction of that city, to ſee if any account could be found in them of the *ink* they made uſe of.

On this enquiry it plainly appeared, that the ancient *inks*, whoſe great duration we now admire, were no other than ſuch juſt now ſet forth. Pliny and Vitruvius expreſsly mention the preparation of ſoot, or what we now call lamp black, and the compoſition of writing *ink* from lamp black and gum. Dioſcorides is more particular, ſetting down the proportions of the two ingredients, to wit, three ounces of the ſoot to one ounce of gum. It ſeems the mixture was formed into cakes or rolls, which being dried in the ſun, were occaſionally tempered with water, as the cakes of Indian *ink* are among us for painting. It may be obſerved, the Indian *ink* is ſtill the writing as well as the painting *ink* of the Chineſe. The Chineſe writing, indeed, is performed in the ſame manner as painting, with a ſtiff hair pencil fixed in the end of a reed; but the Romans uſed a pen, and the *inks* of this kind are found to anſwer with a pen nearly as well as thoſe now commonly uſed. It might be matter of curioſity at leaſt, and perhaps of utility, for thoſe who have proper opportunities, to inquire more particularly into the preparation of *ink* in different nations and different ages, and the legibility of the manuſcripts of the reſpective periods.

The doctor here obſerves again, that all the *inks* made on this principle, can be diſcharged by waſhing, unleſs the paper admits them to ſink into its ſubſtance. The ancients were not inſenſible of this imperfection, and ſometimes endeavoured to obviate it, according to Pliny, by uſing vinegar, inſtead of water, for tempering the mixture of lamp black and gum. Dr. Lewis tried vinegar, and found it to be of ſome advantage, not as giving any improvement to the cement, but by promoting the linking of the matter into the paper. As this waſhing out of the *ink* may be prevented by uſing a kind of paper eaſy enough to be procured, it is ſcarcely to be conſidered as an imperfection; and, indeed, on other kinds of paper, it is an imperfection only ſo far as it may give occaſion to fraud, for none of theſe *inks* are in danger of being otherwiſe diſcharged than by deſign. The vitriolic *inks* themſelves, and thoſe of printed books and copper plates, are all diſchargeable; nor can it be expected of the ink-maker to render writings ſecure from frauds.

Theſe experiments and reflections on *inks* having thus led our author back to the practice of the ancients, a further improvement occurred to him, that of uniting the ancient and modern *inks* together; or uſing the common vitriolic *ink*, inſtead of water, for tempering the ancient mixture of gum and lamp black. By this method it ſhould ſeem that the writings would have all the durability of thoſe of former times, with all the advantage that reſults from the vitriolic *ink* fixing itſelf in the paper. Even where the common vitriolic mixture is depended on for the *ink*, it may, in many caſes, be improved by a ſmall addition of the ancient compoſition, or of the common Indian *ink*, which anſwers the ſame purpoſe: when the vitriolic *ink* is diluted, and flows ſo pale from the pen, that the fine ſtrokes, on firſt writing, are ſcarcely viſible, the addition of a little Indian *ink* is the readieſt means of giving it the due blackneſs. By this admixture, it may be preſumed alſo, that the vitriolic *ink* will be made more durable, the Indian *ink*, in ſome meaſure, covering it, and defending it from the action of the air. In all caſes where Indian *ink*, or other ſimilar compoſitions, are employed, cotton ſhould be uſed in the ink-ſtand, as already mentioned, to prevent the ſettling of the black powder.

*Indian* INK. This valuable black, for water colours, is brought from China and the Eaſt-Indies, ſometimes in large rolls, more commonly in ſmall quadrangular cakes, generally marked with Chineſe characters. By dipping the end of one of the cakes in a little water, and rubbing it about on the bottom or ſides of the veſſel, a part of its ſubſtance is taken up by the water, which may thus be readily tinged to any ſhade of black or grey, from ſuch as ſhall juſt colour paper, to a full black. The compoſition of this *Indian ink* not having hitherto been revealed, Dr. Lewis made ſome experiments, with a view to diſcover it.

Though the *Indian ink* is readily diffuſed through water, it is not truly diſſolved: when the liquid is ſuffered to ſtand for ſome time, the black matter ſettles to the bottom in a muddy form, leaving the matter on the top colourleſs; in the ſame manner as the common black pigments ſettle from diluted gum-water. The *ink*, kept moiſt, in warm weather, becomes in a few days putrid, like the fluid or ſoft parts of animals; as does likewiſe the clear water, after the black matter has ſettled and been ſeparated from it. The *Indian ink* appears therefore to contain an animal ſubſtance, ſoluble in water, and to conſiſt of a black powder, mixed with ſome animal glue. For the greater certainty in regard to this conglutinating ingredient, the doctor boiled one of the China cakes in ſeveral freſh portions of water, that all its ſoluble parts might be extracted; and, having filtred the liquors through paper, ſet them to evaporate in a ſtone baſon: they ſmelt like glue, and left a very conſiderable quantity of a tenacious ſubſtance, which could not be perceived to differ in any reſpect from common glue.

Being

Being thus convinced of the compoſition of the maſs, the doctor tried to imitate it, by mixing ſome lamp black, which he had prepared himſelf from oil, with as much melted glue as gave it ſufficient tenacity for being formed into cakes. [This lamp black was ſoot from linſeed oil, by hanging a large copper pan over the flame of a lamp, to receive its ſmoke.] The cakes, when dry, anſwered fully as well as the genuine *Indian ink*, in regard both to the colour, and the freedom and ſmoothneſs of working. Ivory black, and other charcoal blacks, levigated to a great degree of fineneſs, which requires no ſmall pains, had the ſame effect with the lamp black; but, in the ſtate in which ivory black is commonly ſold, it proved much too gritty, and ſeparated too haſtily from the water.

Since theſe experiments on the compoſition of *Indian ink* were made, the doctor ſays, in the appendix to his work, that he met with an account, in Du Halde's Hiſtory of China, which ſeems to confirm them. He gives three receipts for the preparation of this commodity, two taken from Chineſe books, and the third communicated by a native to one of the miſſionaries. The colouring material, in all of them, is lamp black; to which is added, in one, a quantity of horſe-cheſnut, burnt till the ſmoke ceaſes: he does not determine, whether the wood, or the fruit of the horſe-cheſnut tree is meant; but adds, from the Chineſe author, that, if uſed in over-proportion, it inclines the black colour to a violet. The conglutinating matter, in one of the preſcriptions, is a thin ſize of neat's leather; in another, a ſolution of gum-tragacanth; and, in the other, a mixture of ſize, with a decoction of certain vegetables, to us unknown. The firſt, viz. lamp black and ſize, which is that from verbal communication, is the very compoſition which the above experiments pointed out. As to gum-tragacanth, it certainly is not the conglutinating ingredient, in any of the ſamples of *Indian ink* that have come under the doctor's examination, the vegetable gum not putrifying with water, as the *Indian ink* does: if gum was really made uſe of, gum tragacanth ſhould ſeem the moſt unfit for the purpoſe, on account of its difficult and imperfect ſolution in water. Vegetable decoctions or infuſions cannot be of any manner of uſe where ſize is employed, unleſs it ſhould be to give a ſcent to the compoſition; in which intention, muſk and other perfumes are ſaid to be frequently mixed with it. Du Halde obſerves, that the Chineſe have *inks* of different goodneſs and price; that the moſt eſſential difference proceeds from the quality of the lamp black; and that the beſt lamp black is the ſoot of oil, which is burnt in lamps for this purpoſe.

*Printing* INK, is made of nut oil, or linſeed oil, turpentine, and lamp black.

INLAND, denotes any thing ſituate in the heart of a country, far from the ſea coaſts. *Inland bills* are ſuch as are payable in the ſame country where they are drawn. *See* BILLS *of Exchange*.

INN-KEEPER is diſtinguiſhed from other traders, in that he cannot be a bankrupt; for though he buys proviſions to be ſpent in his houſe, yet he does not properly ſell them, but utter them at ſuch rates as he thinks reaſonable, and the attendance of his ſervants, furniture of his houſe, &c. are to be conſidered; and the ſtatutes of bankruptcy only mention merchants that uſe to buy and ſell in groſs, or by retail, and ſuch as get their living by buying and ſelling; but the contracts with *inn-keepers* are not for any commodities in ſpecie, but they are contracts for houſe-room, trouble, attendance, lodging and neceſſaries, and therefore cannot come within the deſign of ſuch words, ſince there is no trade carried on by buying and bartering commodities; but where an *inn-keeper* is a chapman alſo, and buys and ſells, he may, on that account, be a bankrupt, though not barely as an *inn-keeper*, and this has been frequently ſeen. 7 *Vin. Abr.* 57.

For the ſecurity and protection of travellers, *inns* are allowed certain privileges, ſuch as that the horſe and goods of a gueſt cannot be diſtrained, &c. 3 *Bulſ.* 270. *Co. Lit.* 47. 2 *Vern.* 129.

The duty of *inn-keepers* extends chiefly to the entertaining and harbouring of travellers, finding them victuals and lodging, and ſecuring the goods and effects of their gueſts; and therefore, if one who keeps a common *inn* refuſes either to receive a traveller as a gueſt into his houſe, or to find him victuals or lodging, upon his tendering him a reaſonable price for the ſame, he is not only liable to render damages for the injury in an action on the caſe, at the ſuit of the party grieved, but alſo may be indicted and fined at the ſuit of the king: for he who takes upon himſelf a public employment, muſt ſerve the public as far as his employment goes; therefore an *inn-keeper* ſhall not only anſwer for his own neglects, but alſo for the neglects of thoſe who act under him, though he ſhould expreſsly caution againſt it. 1 *Salk.* 18.

If an *inn-keeper* ſell corrupt wine or victuals, an action lies againſt him; alſo if his ſervant ſell ſuch corrupt wine or victual, an action on the caſe lies againſt the maſter, though he did not order the ſervant to ſell it to any particular perſon. 1 *Rol. Abr.* 95.

*Inn-keepers* are clearly chargeable for the goods of gueſts ſtolen or loſt out of their *inns*, and this is without any contract or agreement for that purpoſe; for the law makes them liable in reſpect of the reward, as alſo in reſpect of their being places appointed and allowed of by law, for the benefit and ſecurity of travellers: and this duty and burden, enjoined *inn-keepers* by law, they cannot diſcharge themſelves of, under pretence of ſickneſs, want of underſtanding, abſence from their houſes, &c. *Dyer*, 266. *See* ALEHOUSES.

INSOLVENT. *See* the article BANKRUPTCY, where the laws of England, with great variety of caſes adjudged in our courts of law, are briefly ſtated; alſo the laws and regulations of other nations, in relation to bankruptcy.

INSURANCE *or* ASSURANCE, is a contract or agreement, by which one or more particulars (called *inſurers*, *aſſurers*, or *undertakers*) take on them the riſque of the value of the things inſured, in conſideration of a premium paid by the aſſured, and by this means commodiouſly divide the hazard of every adventure, to the great benefit of trade, and the eaſe and advantage of every one concerned therein. Mr. Molloy, in his *Jure Maritimo*, and Mr. Malynes, in his *Lex Mercatoria*, ſay, that Suetonius, in his Life of Claudius Cæſar, conceives that emperor to have been the firſt who brought in this cuſtom of inſurance, though Monſ. Savary, in his *Dictionaire de Commerce*, imputes it to the Jews, in the year 1183; but whoever was the firſt contriver, or original inventor of this uſeful branch of buſineſs, it has, for many ages, been practiſed in this kingdom, and ſuppoſed to have been introduced here, jointly with its twin brother, exchanges, by ſome Italians from Lombardy, who, at the ſame time, came to ſettle at Antwerp, and among us; and this being prior to the building the Royal-Exchange, they uſed to meet in the place where Lombard-ſtreet now is, at a houſe they had (called the Pawn-houſe, or Lombard) for tranſacting buſineſs; and as they were then the ſole negociators in *inſurance*, the policies made by others in after-times had a clauſe inſerted, *that thoſe latter ones ſhould have as much force and effect, as thoſe formerly made in Lombard-ſtreet.*

And as *inſurances* in time grew more general in England, and ſome difficulties aroſe touching the recovery of loſſes, upon actions on *aſſumpſits*; the legiſlature, by an act of parliament, 43 *Eliz. cap.* 12. erected an office for making and regiſtering policies of *inſurance*, and impowered her majeſty, and her ſucceſſors, to grant commiſſions to perſons therein mentioned for determining differences relating thereto, from whoſe ſentence an appeal lay to chancery.

And in purſuance thereof, an office was erected and kept on the weſt ſide of the Royal-Exchange; but this act did not exclude others from making *inſurances*, in whoſe policies was inſerted, *that they ſhould be of as much force as thoſe heretofore made in Lombard-ſtreet, at the Royal-Exchange, or any where elſe:* and there being ſome defect in the aforeſaid act, touching the power of the commiſſioners, its continuance was not of long duration.

But by a new act of parliament, of 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 23. that above mentioned was revived, and large powers were given to the commiſſioners for carrying it into execution; and in conſequence of this laſt act, ſeveral *inſurances* were made, and all diſputes concerning them were determined by the commiſſioners; but as private perſons were not excluded thereby from carrying on this buſineſs as before, and the commiſſioners taking no cognizance of any policies not made in their office, and recovery of loſſes thereon being made eaſy at common law, beſides, there

having been ſome partiality practiſed by the commiſſioners, and an appeal being allowed from their determinations to the court of Chancery, the buſineſs of this court ſoon diminiſhed, and the granting commiſſions was diſcontinued.

After this no public law has been made in England concerning *inſurances*, (except one, 9 *Ann. c.* 6. to prohibit inſuring on marriages, births, chriſtenings and ſervice) but all was tranſacted by private office-keepers, till one was paſſed in the year 1720, 6 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 18. by which his majeſty is enabled to grant two charters, for erecting two corporations for inſuring ſhips and merchandize, and lending money on bottomry, which are now called the Royal-Exchange aſſurance, and the London aſſurance, which corporations are to have perpetual ſucceſſion, ſubject to redemption, or power of revocation, as is here under mentioned; the corporation to have liberty to chuſe their governors, directors, officers, and ſervants, as ſhould be preſcribed in the charters; governors and directors to continue for three years, to have a ſeal, and be capable to purchaſe land, not exceeding 1000 l. *per ann.* and may ſue, and be ſued in their corporate capacity.

Each corporation to pay into the Exchequer 300,000 l. towards diſcharging the debts of the civil government.

Each to raiſe ſuch ſums as his majeſty ſhould direct, not exceeding 1,500,000 l. for paying the 600,000 l. and to enable them to pay loſſes, and lend money on bottomry and government ſecurities, which money is to be raiſed at general courts, by taking ſubſcriptions, or by calls, or otherwiſe, as the general courts ſhall think fit or expedient, and ſtock liable to calls, may be ſold for that purpoſe; and proprietors refuſing calls to pay eight *per cent.* intereſt; may take up money to advance on parliamentary ſecurities; ſtock transferable and deviſable; a perſonal eſtate not to be taxed; governors, directors, &c. may be members of parliament, but not to be bankrupts on account of ſuch ſtock; to have power to make by-laws, as by charters; no other corporation or partnerſhip to inſure ſhips, or lend money on bottomry, or penalty of forfeiting the money aſſured, and the policy to be void; and in caſe of bottomry, the ſecurity to be void, and the contract to be uſurious. None to be governors, &c. or to have ſtock in both corporations. The parliament at any time within thirty years, from the date of the charters, upon three years notice in the London Gazette, fixed up on the Royal-Exchange, and payment of 300,000 l. to each corporation, may then, and not till then, void the ſaid corporations. If after thirty-one years the king ſhall adjudge the continuance of the ſaid corporations to be hurtful, or inconvenient to the public, he may by letters patent void the ſame, without any inquiſition or *ſcire facias*, in which caſes the like power ſhall never be grantable again.

South-Sea, and Eaſt-India companies, may advance money on bottomry to their captains, &c.

The ſaid two corporations, having each paid into the Exchequer 111,250 l. in part of the 300,000 l. and having covenanted to pay 38750 l. farther part thereof in three months, the reſidue of the ſums amounting together together to 300,000 l. ſhall be releaſed, by 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 26.

Some acts, as of 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. and 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. ſince paſſed to regulate certain proceedings at law, where the corporations were parties, giving them power to plead general. And theſe are all the acts relating to *inſurances* in England, till the following one of 19 *Geo.* II. made for the better regulation thereof, and to prohibit them on French effects, viz.

The preamble obſerves, that the making aſſurances, intereſt or no intereſt, or without further proof of intereſt than the policy, hath been productive of many pernicious practices, whereby great numbers of ſhips, with their cargoes, have either been fraudulently loſt and deſtroyed, or taken by the enemy in time of war; and ſuch aſſurances have encouraged the exportation of wool, and the carrying on many other prohibited and clandeſtine trades, which by means of ſuch aſſurances have been concealed, and the parties concerned ſecured from loſs, as well to the diminution of the public revenue, as to the great detriment of fair traders; and by introducing a miſchievous kind of gaming, or wagering, under the pretence of aſſuring the riſque on ſhipping and fair trade, the inſtitution and laudable deſign of making aſſurances hath been perverted; and that which was intended for the encouragement of trade and navigation, has, in many inſtances become hurtful and deſtructive of the ſame. For remedy whereof, it is enacted, that after the firſt of Auguſt, 1746, no aſſurance ſhall be made by any perſon or perſons, bodies corporate, or politic, on veſſels belonging to his majeſty, or his ſubjects, or on any goods, merchandizes, or effects on board the ſame, intereſt or no intereſt, or without further proof of intereſt than the policy, or by way of gaming or wagering, or without benefit of ſalvage to the aſſurer, and that every ſuch aſſurance ſhall be null and void to all intents and purpoſes.

Aſſurance on private ſhips of war, fitted by his majeſty's ſubjects ſolely to cruize againſt his enemies, may be made by, or for the owners, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage to the aſſurer.

Merchandizes or effects from any parts of Europe or America, in the poſſeſſion of the crowns of Spain or Portugal, may be aſſured in ſuch way and manner, as if this act had not been made.

Re-aſſurance ſhall not be made, unleſs the aſſurer ſhall be inſolvent, become a bankrupt, or die, in either of which caſes, ſuch aſſurer, or executors, &c. may re-aſſure to the ſum before aſſured, provided it ſhall be expreſſed in the policy, to be a re-aſſurance.

After the ſaid firſt of Auguſt, all money to be lent on bottomry, or at *reſpondentia*, upon ſhips belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, bound to or from the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be lent only on the ſhip, &c. *See this article at large under the titles* BOTTOMRY and CHARTERPARTY.

In all actions, &c. brought after the firſt of Auguſt, by aſſured, upon any policy of aſſurance, the plaintiff, or attorney, &c. within fifteen days after he ſhall be required ſo to do in writing by the defendant, &c. ſhall declare in writing the ſums he hath aſſured, &c. in the whole, and what ſums he hath borrowed at *reſpondentia*, or bottomry, for the voyage, or any part of the voyage in queſtion.

After the ſaid firſt of Auguſt, any perſon, &c. ſued in an action of debt, or covenant, &c. on policy of aſſurance, may bring the money into court, and if the plaintiff ſhall refuſe to receive the ſame, with coſts to be taxed, in full diſcharge of ſuch action, and ſhall afterwards proceed to trial, and the jury ſhall not aſſeſs him damages exceeding the ſum ſo brought, the plaintiff on every ſuch action ſhall pay to the defendant coſts to be taxed.

This act ſhall not extend to, or be in force againſt perſons reſiding in any parts in Europe, out of his majeſty's dominions, for whoſe account aſſurance ſhall be made before the 29th of September, 1746, nor againſt perſons reſiding in any parts of Turkey, Aſia, Africa, or America, for whom aſſurances ſhall be made before the 29th of March, 1747.

*Inſurance* on ſhip or goods appertaining to the crown and ſubjects of France, or lending them money on bottomry, is prohibited by the act of 21 *Geo.* II. though as it was only temporary, and its duration limited to the war, then carried on, it is now expired, and become void.

This branch of buſineſs at firſt was confined to maritime affairs ſolely, though at preſent it is extended to the inſuring not only ſhipping and merchandizes, but alſo houſes, furniture, lives, liberties, &c. according to the different agreements for that purpoſe. Theſe contracts are called policies, from the Spaniſh word *polica*, and that originally from the Latin *policitatio* or promiſe, and are now made either at the public or private offices; of the former we have only the two before-mentioned in England eſtabliſhed by charter, though of the private ones we have many in this city (and of late years in ſome others, as Briſtol, Exeter, Liverpool, Hull, Newcaſtle, and Glaſgow) where great buſineſs is tranſacted, and, no doubt, on as fair a footing as in any part of the world. Policies, however, having been filled up, in ſuch various terms, and ſuch unexampled expreſſions inſerted, according to the different conceptions, fancies, or exigencies of the inſured, that they have naturally occaſioned many diſputes, and conſequently brought on lately the moſt famous trials that ever employed our courts on this ſubject, of which we ſhall endeavour to give our readers a full detail, by quoting many of the ſeveral caſes tried.

*Inſurances*, as before obſerved, are of various kinds, both in regard of the marine and terrene property; of the firſt, ſome being on ſhips, or parts of ſhips only; others on merchandize ſingly; and others on ſhips and goods jointly; and theſe are again branched out to run either by the month (or for a time ſtipulated) or to one ſingle port, or out and home, with liberty to touch at the different places mentioned in the policy, or for a trading voyage.

Thoſe made on houſes, lives, or liberties, muſt be paid according to the tenor of the agreement, in the full ſum inſured, as theſe ſort of policies admit of no average, and for the firſt (often with their furniture) againſt fire, ſeveral offices are erected in London, with a limitation to this branch only.

*Aſſurances* may likewiſe be made on goods ſent by land, or by hoys, &c. on rivers, and this is often done, more eſpecially on jewels, &c.

They may likewiſe be made on ſhips and goods, loſt or not loſt, which is commonly done when a ſhip hath been long miſſing, and theſe words being inſerted in the policy, obliges the underwriters to pay, although the ſhip was loſt at the time of making ſuch *inſurance*, except the aſſured ſaw the ſhip wrecked, or had then certain knowledge of her being ſo, in which caſe the ſubſcription will not oblige, as this is accounted a meer fraud.

So likewiſe if the aſſured ſhall, on a rotten veſſel, get inſured more than ſhe is worth, with the villainous deſign to deſtroy her, and ſhall afterwards give directions to have his roguiſh intentions put in execution, this fraudulent act will not oblige the inſurers, but expoſe the perpetrators of it to be hanged for their knavery.

Policy of aſſurance to warrant a ſhip for twelve months, the ſhip did not periſh within the time of twelve months, accounted according to the ſolar months of January, February, &c. but within twelve lunar months, of twenty-eight days to the month, and it was reſolved that the policy was not forfeited. Cited in Sir Woollaſton Dixey's caſe, 1 *Leon.* 96.

If a ſhip be inſured from the port of London to Cadiz, and before ſhe breaks ground is burnt, inſurers are not liable; but if the words are *at or from the port of London*, they are liable in ſuch caſe. *Molloy.*

An *inſurance* made in a foreign country, may be ſued in England by the common law, if the aſſurers come here. *Ditto.*

An *inſurance* from London to void for uncertainty, though private inſtructions for the port, yet the blank in the policy will not bind the inſurer, policies being now generally made free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage, many diſputes on theſe heads are avoided. *Ditto.*

An *inſurance* made on prohibited goods not binding, unleſs they were prohibited after the *inſurance* made, as on wool, leather, &c. for ſuch inſurances would tend to deſtroy trade, which is directly to thwart the true intention of all policies. *Ditto.*

Where the words of the policy are, *the ſhip warranted to depart with convoy*, it ſhall be intended ſhe ſhall keep with convoy during the voyage, if poſſible; and if ſhe depart wilfully from the convoy, it is a fraud; but if having departed with convoy, and by ſtreſs of weather ſhe loſes the convoy, and is taken, inſurers are liable. *Jefferies* a *Legendra*, *Carth.* 216. 3 *Lev.* 320. 1 *Show* 323. 2 *Sal.* 443.

If there be thieves on ſhipboard among themſelves, the maſter of the ſhip is to anſwer for that, and not the inſurer, though the words of the policy inſures againſt loſſes by thieves, yet they are to be intended aſſailing thieves. *Lex Mercator.* 151.

*Suppreſſio veri aut allegatio falſi*, is ſufficient to diſcharge the policy; it is a general rule, that the inſured ſhall inform the inſurer of all material circumſtances which have come to his knowledge or information, at the time of making the policy, in order that the contract may be fairly adjuſted; which being a contract upon chance, cannot be done if one party knows more than the other; equality in contracts, by the law merchant, is eſſential.

One having received a letter, that his ſhip ſailed from Carolina, in company with another ſhip, and that the other ſhip loſt ſight of this ſhip in the night, that the captain informed the perſon who wrote the letter, that he was leaky in ſuch a latitude, and that after they loſt ſight of the ſhip, there had been a hard gale for twenty-four hours; and this letter received by the merchant's agent; he made *inſurance* without producing this letter, the ſhip was afterwards taken near the Land's End by a Spaniſh privateer, and carried back into St. Sebaſtian's: this, tho' the ſhip was not loſt by the leak or the ſtorm, was ſufficient to avoid the policy, becauſe if the inſurer had known what the inſured did, at the time of making the inſurance, he would not have done it, or at leaſt not on the ſame terms. *Seamen* a *Fonereau*, before L. C. J. *Lee*, at *Guildhall*, after *Trin.* term, 1742, and verdict by a ſpecial jury for defendant.

A letter being received, that a ſhip ſailed from Jamaica for London, the twenty-fourth of November, after which *inſurance* was made, and the agent told the inſurer, that the ſhip ſailed the latter end of December; this held likewiſe a fraud, and verdict for the defendant. *Roberts* a *Fonereau*, at the ſame ſitting.

Inſurance was made on the William Galley, from Bremen to London, warranted to depart with convoy. She ſet ſail from Bremen, under convoy of a Dutch man of war to the Elbe, where they were joined by two other Dutch men of war, and ſeveral Dutch and Engliſh merchant ſhips, whence they ſailed to the Texel; after a ſtay of nine weeks; they ſet ſail with an Engliſh ſquadron of men of war, and the galley was ſeparated in a ſtorm, and taken by a French privateer, and afterwards re-taken by a Dutch privateer, and paid eighty pounds ſalvage; ruled by Holt, that the voyage ought to be according to uſage, and that their going to the Elbe, though in fact out of the way, was no deviation; for before that time there was no convoy for ſhips directly from Bremen to London, and the plaintiff had a verdict. 2 *Sal.* 445. *Bond* a *Gonſales*, *Feb.* 14. 1704, coram *Holt* C. J. at *Niſi Prius* at *Guildhall.*

Deviation diſcharges a policy from that time only; therefore damage happening before a deviation, may be recovered, notwithſtanding there be afterwards a deviation. 2 *Sal.* 444. *Green* a *Young*, Lord *Raymond*, 840.

A ſhip in her voyage was ſeized by the government, and turned into a fire-ſhip, the queſtion was, whether the inſurers were liable; Holt though it was within the word *detention*, but the cauſe was referred. 2 *Sal.* 444. lord *Raymond*, 840. ſuppoſes the inſurers liable.

Where the policy is againſt reſtraint of princes, that extends not where the inſured ſhall navigate againſt the law of countries, or where there ſhall be a ſeizure for not paying of cuſtom, or the like. 2 *Vern.* 167.

If a man pays money on a policy of *inſurance*, ſuppoſing a loſs where there was none, this ſhall be money received to the uſe of the inſurer, for which he may maintain an action. *Skinner* 411. 1 *Show.* 156. S. P. caſes in King's Bench, 325.

Per Holt at Niſi Prius, the captain of a ſhip may be changed, without notice to the inſurers. Q. For the confidence in the captain might be an encouragement to the inſurers. 2 *Vern.* 716. *Lepypre* a *Farr.*

Goods inſured by agreement, valued at ſix hundred pounds, and the inſured not to be obliged to prove any intereſt, yet the inſured was ordered to diſcover what goods he put on board, that the value of his goods ſaved may be deducted out of the ſix hundred pounds. 2 *Vern.* 716. *Lepypre* a *Farr.*

The policy run, *till the ſhip ſhould have ended, and be diſcharged of her voyage.* Arrival at the port is not a diſcharge till ſhe is unladen. *Skin.* 243.

If goods be inſured as the goods of an ally, when they are the goods of an enemy, it is a fraud, and the *inſurance* not good. *Ditto* 327.

*Inſurance* from London to the Eaſt-Indies, warranted to depart with convoy; declaration ſets forth, that the ſhip went from London to the Downs, and from thence with convoy, which the court held to be ſufficient, *contra* Holt. 2 *Sal.* 443. *Lethieullier's caſe.*

In caſe of deviation, the inſurers are not bound to return the premium, becauſe they have begun to run a riſque.

Damages happening to periſhable goods from their own nature, not to be born by the aſſurer.

One having no intereſt in a ſhip, lent three hundred pounds on a bottomry bond, and inſured four hundred

and fifty pounds on the ſhip, and the bond was recovered, but the policy decreed to be delivered up. 2 *Vern.* 269. *Goddard* a *Garrett.*

And formerly, if one had no intereſt, though the policy run, *intereſt or no intereſt*, the *inſurance* was void; and the reaſon was, becauſe *inſurances* were made for the benefit of trade, and not that perſons not concerned therein, or intereſted in the ſhip, ſhould profit by it; and in this caſe if the ſhip ſurvived the time limited in the bottomry bond, and was loſt within the time limited in the policy, if *inſurance* good, the defendant might be intitled to money on the bond, and policy alſo; but ſince this, *inſurances* have been conſtantly adjudged good, on *intereſt or not intereſt*, till the aforeſaid act of 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 37. prohibited it. Caſes in L. and E. 77, 80.

Upon the credit of one Marwood's ſubſcribing a policy on a life, ſeveral perſons enquiring of Marwood ſubſcribed, who was in combination, and agreed to have part of the money when the life dropt, this being confeſſed in the anſwer, the policy was decreed to be delivered up, and the premium returned the plaintiff, deducting thereout the coſts. Prec. in Chancery 20. *Whittingham* a *Thornborough.*

One lends two hundred and fifty pounds on a bottomry bond, and afterwards inſures on the ſame ſhip, the ſhip is loſt, he ſhall have both the benefit of the *inſurance* and the bond too. 2 *Vern.* 717. *Harman* a *Vanhatton.*

On a ſpecial verdict it was found, that the ſhip was loſt *per fraudem et negligentiam magiſtri*, and fraud was held to be barratry, though mere negligence might not. Mod. caſes in L. and E. 230. *Knight* a *Cambridge.*

*Inſurance*, intereſt or no intereſt, the ſhip was taken by the enemy, and kept for nine days: but before it was carried *infra prendia*, &c. a place of ſafety, it was retaken by an Engliſh man of war. And whether ſuch taking was ſuch a loſs as would entitle the aſſurer to recover, was the queſtion, and the court ſeemed to be of opinion for the defendant;

Firſt, Becauſe they would be never more favourable to an inſurer *non bona fide*, or a wagerer, than to one that inſures *bona fide*, for they held that an inſurer having intereſt, could not recover, the property not being altered by the taking. But no judgment given. Caſes in L. and E. 77. *Aſſievedro* a *Cambridge.* If a ſhip be taken by a privateer, and not brought *infra prendia* of the king, by whoſe ſubject it was taken, it is no lawful prize, and the property is not altered.

A merchant having a doubtful account of his ſhip, inſures without acquainting the inſurers what danger ſhe was in; this held to be fraudulent, and the court relieved againſt that policy. *De Coſta* a *Stander* 2 *Peer Will.*

Where it was found by a ſpecial verdict, that the inſurer had no intereſt in the ſhip, and the court was of opinion that made no difference. 170 *Weaver* a *Fowler.* S. P. decreed in March 1723.

A made a policy, and declared under his hand, on the back, that the *inſurance* was made for and on account of B, and afterwards A brought an action on the policy, and though the declaration of B's intereſt appeared at the trial, Lee, C. J. was of opinion, that A, notwithſtanding, might maintain the action and verdict, *p. Quer.*

A ſhip was taken by a Spaniſh privateer off Viana, ſo near the neutral ſhore as to make a diſpute whether a prize or not, and the ſhip was carried into the neutral port; inſiſted for the defendant, that ſhe was not carried *infra prendia hoſtis*, the property was not changed, and therefore no proof of a total loſs, and verdict for plaintiff. *Aſſievedro* a *Cambridge*, *Carver* a *Glover*, at Guildhall, 28 June 1744. Same caſe as above before *Lee* C. J. *Carter* a *Royal Exch. Aſſur.* June 1744, p. *Lee* C. J.

The proof of an intention to make a deviation will not avoid the policy before a deviation is actually made.

The ſnow, Tryal, William Jefferys, maſter, was taken up by the government of Carolina as a flag of truce, to go to the Havanna, with pretence to bring from thence ſome Palatines, lately taken and carried in there, on board an Engliſh ſhip, the Lydia, captain Abercrombie, and by this occaſion ſeveral Carolina merchants loaded goods aboard her, to a very conſiderable value, and directed their friend, Mr. James Crockatt of London, to get 10,000 l. inſured on them, and, at the ſame time, to inform the underwriters every circumſtance of the voyage, and that the cargo conſiſted of eighty or ninety negroes, and the reſt manufactures of Great-Britain, and Germany, all which was to be regularly cleared out for Providence, where the veſſel was to have liberty to call, in her way down, for a pilot; the aſſured alſo mentioned, the probability, that one maſter of the Spaniſh language might be cloathed with the character of captain of the flag, by the aforeſaid government, and Jefferys only appear as pilot, though this latter was to ſign all bills of loading; and the ſame *inſurance* was ordered from the Havanna to Carolina, as was made to the Havanna. Mr. Crockatt got the 10,000 l. inſured at four private offices, at and from South Carolina, to the Havanna, and at, and from thence back to South-Carolina, with liberty to touch at Providence, outward and homeward bound, upon any kind of goods, laden or to be laden aboard the ſhip called the Trial (a flag of truce ſhip) William Jefferys maſter, beginning the adventure from, and immediately following the loading thereof aboard the ſaid ſhip at South Carolina, and ſo to continue until the ſaid ſhip, with the goods whatſoever, ſhall be arrived at the Havanna, and ſo ſhall farther continue till arrived back at South-Carolina, and the ſame there ſafely landed, and it ſhall be lawful for the ſame ſhip in this voyage to ſtop and ſtay at any ports or places whatſoever, more eſpecially at Providence.

At the foot of ſome of the policies are theſe words, viz. *warranted a flag of truce for the voyage*; and in the others (after deſcribing the voyage) *the ſhip being a flag of truce for the voyage.*

The Tryal ſailed from South Carolina to the iſland of Providence (after the captain had received his credentials from the governor, as commander of a flag of truce ſhip) where ſhe arrived and diſpoſed of part of her cargo, and then ſailed directly towards the Havanna; and being arrived near the entrance of the harbour, was ſeized by a Spaniſh ſhip of war, and carried into the ſaid place, where her loading was condemned and ſold, and the ſhip, officers, ſailors, detained near five months; at the expiration of which time, the governor of the Havanna permitted them to return, with ſome Engliſh that had been made priſoners, but without the Palatines they went to reclaim, and the governor gave the captain a protection to ſcreen him in his return from being moleſted by men of war or privateers.

Mr. Crockatt, on receiving advice of the above-mentioned loſs, demanded it of the inſurers, who, thinking they had reaſon to deny the payment, ſuffered themſelves to be ſued for it; and Mr. Crokatt, to ſupport his demand, offered to produce the invoice, bill of lading, credential letters, and an affidavit under the ſeal of the province of Carolina, atteſting that the goods contained in the invoice were ſhipped, and witneſſes, who were ready to prove *viva voce*, the capture and ſale of the goods at the Havanna, the detention of the mariners, and that the ſhip returned as a flag of truce, with forty-nine Engliſh priſoners to Carolina.

On the other hand, the underwriters, to invalidate the *inſurance*, pretended that this was an illicit trade, that the ſhip was not a flag of truce, or if ſhe was ſo, that the aſſured, by warranting her to be ſo, did in effect engage that the goods ſhould be exempt from ſeizure; that to entitle the plaintiffs to a recovery, it was incumbent on them to ſhew the condemnation, and the reaſons of the confiſcations at the Havanna, and many other arguments were uſed to ſet aſide the policy; but the jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs. *Richard Hill & al.* a. *Adam Spencer*, tried at Guildhall by a ſpecial jury, at the ſitting after Hillary term, 1745.

The Mary, captain Wilſon, was hired at London to carry goods to Dublin, and an *inſurance* was made on ſhip and freight, but in her paſſage ſhe ran aſhore on the ſands, called Artelow Grounds, and was there deſerted by the captain and ſailors, who went aſhore to ſave their lives, ſuppoſing the ſhip irretrievably loſt; but ſome fiſhermen hearing of the wreck the night before, went out after her, and early in the morning ſpied a ſail off Minehead, near Artelow in the county of Wicklow, and about thirty miles from Dublin, lying afloat in about ten or eleven fathom of water, and about a mile and a half from ſhore, which proved to be the aforeſaid ſhip Mary, and on coming up with her in the laſt quarter ebb, they found the

ſhip

ſhip lying to, with her gib ſail hauled to windward, and her mizzen ſail ſet, and on boarding her, found her entirely deſerted, without one perſon therein.

After the fiſhermen had got in, they ſounded the pumps, and found ſo little water in her, that two hands cleared her in an hour's time, after which ſhe leaked but very little; and ſome few hours after, the fiſhermen meeting with a pilot, agreed with him for half a guinea, to carry her into Polebegg (which is a place where ſhips bound for Dublin, that draw much water, are unloaded and diſcharged) where ſhe was delivered to captain Wilſon, who took her in charge, and was afterwards moored, and all her cargo delivered ſafe and undamnified, and the freight accordingly paid for the ſame.

The ſhip was, after her diſcharge, removed from Polebegg to the bank ſide, and there laid on the ground to ſearch if ſhe had received any damage, and it was found that nine or ten feet of her ſheathing was rubbed off, and about the ſame quantity of her falſe keel broke, and the ſhip ſtrained very much, ſo that they were forced to carry her back to Polebegg, and there moor again.

The plaintiff demanded the whole *inſurance*, which was 700l. on a ſuppoſed proof of the ſhip's being rendered unfit for any future ſervice, by her being run aſhore as aforementioned, and the defendant tries to invalidate his claim, by firſt endeavouring to prove, that ſhe could not be of near the value inſured, as ſhe was an old New-England built ſhip, and ſold a little before, to be broke up, for 150l. but the purchaſer reſold her to another, who ſold the moiety thereof to the plaintiff, as he aſſerts, for 400l. the truth of which ſale the defendant ſuſpects, as well upon account of the lowneſs of the firſt purchaſe, as an eraſure, upon which the concern was wrote, and he likewiſe offers ſome reaſons to ſuppoſe that the ſhip was wilfully run aſhore, and not undeſignedly, as the captain aſſerts; and to ſupport theſe allegations, he refers to the manner in which ſhe was found, with little or no damage as aforeſaid, more than what was occaſioned by her lying aground, that the captain had a very bad character, and it was ſuſpected he made large *inſurances*, which induced him wilfully to loſe the ſhip, more eſpecially as the mate had declared, that if the captain would have left him two boys, he would not have quitted the ſhip, and ſeveral other things to the ſaid purpoſe; but theſe not appearing ſo plain to the jury, they found a verdict for the plaintiff. *Huſſey* a. *Hewit*, tried at Guildhall, after Michaelmas term, 1747.

The Weſterwyk's Arms, captain Richard Horner, a Swediſh ſhip and commander, was chartered at Hamburgh, by Mr. Jacob Boſanquet, a merchant there, to ſail for London, and there to take in ſuch goods, as he or his correſpondents ſhould put aboard her, and carry them to ſuch parts of Italy as he ſhould be directed.

A large quantity of goods were loaded aboard her, to the value of 30 or 40,000l. and among the ſhippers, the plaintiff was one, who took this opportunity of ſending his friends, woollens to the import of 1367l. 12s. 7d. conſigned to one Mr. Anthony Damiani, a merchant at Leghorn, for the uſe of ſeveral perſons in Italy, by whoſe orders they were ſhipped, though with the circumſtance, that the property was not to be veſted in them, neither were they to pay for them, till the goods were arrived and delivered according to the bill of loading, and conſequently remained the plaintiff's property, till the aforementioned particulars were complied with, which induced him to get 1000l. inſured on them, and it was mentioned in the policy, that the goods were warranted to be inſerted in the bills of loading for neutral account. This was a cuſtom during the war, in order to ſcreen goods from the enemies ſeizure, and the captains of neutral ſhips would not ſign bills of loading without this inſertion, which was Boehm's motive for filling up his accordingly, and the ſame occurred with the other gentlemen on ſhipping their goods, as the ſaid warranty and declaration were inſerted in all the policies and bills of loading.

This ſhip, in her voyage, was taken by a Spaniſh privateer, and carried into Ceuta, a Spaniſh port on the coaſt of Barbary, where the goods were condemned as lawful prize, as appears by a copy and tranſlation of the ſentence of condemnation, though the ſhip was ſet at liberty, and the captain, after fruitleſsly ſoliciting the releaſe of his cargo at Ceuta, went to Cadiz to reclaim it, where, notwithſtanding he was joined in ſolicitations by the Swediſh conſul, and both aſſerted the honour of the flag, and the neutral property of the merchandize, they could prevail nothing towards altering of the ſentence, which ſtood confirmed, though whilſt this was tranſacting, Mr. Boehm demanded his *inſurance* of the underwriters, who being convinced of the juſtneſs thereof, came to the agreement of paying him fifty pounds *per cent.* and accordingly indorſed the policy in the following manner, viz.

We, whoſe names are hereunto ſubſcribed, do agree to pay unto the aſſured, fifty pounds *per cent.* on our ſeveral ſubſcriptions on this policy, in a month from the date hereof; but in caſe the goods are reſtored in ſafety, and are diſcharged according to the tenour of the policy, the ſaid fifty pounds *per cent.* are to be repaid to us by the aſſured, we engaging to make good any average or damages that may enſue by the detention of the ſaid goods.

*Signed by all the underwriters.*

And afterwards there was likewiſe indorſed the following words, viz. Whereas the within-mentioned ſhip, the Weſterwyk's Arms, captain Horner, from London to Leghorn, was taken by the Spaniards in July, 1746, and forcibly carried into Ceuta, where ſhe has been detained with her cargo ever ſince, and notwithſtanding all the application and endeavours that have been made uſe of by the aſſured and his agents for their releaſe, they have hitherto proved fruitleſs, and without ſucceſs; therefore we, the underwriters on this policy, do agree to pay Mr. Thomas Boehm, the aſſured, the remaining forty-eight *per cent.* in one month from the date hereof, which the ſaid Mr. Thomas Boehm obliges himſelf to refund and pay back again, in caſe his ſaid goods ſhould be hereafter releaſed, and arrive ſafe at Leghorn, according to the tenour of this policy, we engaging ourſelves to make good any average or damage that may enſue in this adventure, and the aſſured promiſes, and obliges himſelf to continue his utmoſt endeavours that his ſaid goods may be reſtored, and diſcharged.

The preſent defendant only ſigned the firſt of theſe agreements, but never paid the money purſuant thereto, though all the reſt of the underwriters ſigned both, and have paid their money long ago.

The plaintiff proved, that the defendant was acquainted when he underwrote the policy, with the reaſons for inſerting the words, that the goods ſhould be warranted to be inſerted in the bills of loading for neutral account; he alſo proved his intereſt, and that the goods were his, till delivered; that all the underwriters on this ſhip have paid their loſſes, to the aforementioned value of between 30 and 40,000l. and that even the defendant himſelf had paid one on her: he alſo proved by a perſon, *viva voce*, who had ſeen the ſhip at Cadiz, aud heard the captain and Swediſh conſul diſcourſe about their ſolicitations for freeing the goods, which joined to the before-mentioned copy of her condemnation, he thought ſufficient proofs of the loſs; but the defendant being of a contrary opinion, and not ſatisfied therewith, ſtood a trial, when the jury found a verdict for the plaintiff. *Boehm* a *Snow*, Michaelmas term, 1748.

The Dartmouth Galley being fitted out as a privateer, ſailed (in company with the Fortune) in October, 1744, on a cruize, and the plaintiffs being concerned therein, got *inſurance* made on their part for one calendar month, of which the defendant underwrote 200l. and the ſaid ſhips, after being out two days, fell in with two French men of war, with whom the Dartmouth engaged, and after a gallant defence, was taken by them, though not till the captain and two more were killed, and ſeveral wounded, when the lieutenant ſeeing the inequality of the combat, ordered the colours to be ſtruck, and ſurrendered, on which the conquerors ordered the Dartmouth's people to hoiſt out their barge, and going as many as could on board the men of war, but the Dartmouth's men finding an opportunity ſailed away, and got off; their enemies purſuing and overtaking them, they were obliged finally to ſubmit, and the men of war ſent a lieutenant, with a ſufficient power, to take poſſeſſion of the Dartmouth, in whoſe cuſtody ſhe continued only about an hour and a half, or two hours; for the lieutenant and his company perceiving ſhe was leaky,

by one of the men of war running foul of her, and ſtarting a plank during the engagement, called to his commanders to ſend a boat for them, as they feared ſinking, which they immediately complied with, and the lieutenant of the Dartmouth, and about ninety of her men were carried into France, and the boatſwain being left on board with about twenty more, (including nine wounded ones) ſearched for, and in a great meaſure ſtopped her leaks, and taking advantage of the French men's fears and the night, in two days after got ſafe again into Dartmouth; and ſoon after her arrival there, was refitted by the owners, and ſailed on another cruize.

After this the ſaid ſhip was kept inſured from month to month, and the defendant underwrote ſeveral ſubſequent policies on her, being always told by the office-keeper, that he was of the firſt policy, and neither he nor the plaintiffs ever pretended to demand any thing of him on account thereof.

In about ſix months after the expiration of the aforeſaid policy, the defendant paid the plaintiffs a loſs on her, having continued to inſure her monthly, from the policy in queſtion, and the plaintiffs when they received it, never ſo much as inſinuated, or pretended they had any right to the firſt *inſurance*; however, the plaintiffs have now claimed it, as the taking of the ſhip, and carrying her men away, intirely overſet the cruize, and ſhe could not be refitted and ſail on another, before the expiration of the month for which ſhe was inſured, and conſequently this proved an intire loſs to the aſſured; but in ſupport of the contrary, it is alledged by the defendant, and confirmed by the opinion of ſeveral very conſiderable merchants, that this could not be counted a total loſs, more eſpecially as it is not on a cruize, the words of the policy being, *to be inſured loſt or not loſt, to any ports or places, for one calendar month*, but no mention at all made of any cruize; on which account the defendant ſuppoſes, there could be no interruption to a thing never guarded againſt; and beſides, the ſhip was ſo far from being a total loſs to the owners on the firſt riſque, that ſhe afterwards met with great ſucceſs by taking a very rich prize.

And if this doctrine offered by the plaintiffs had taken place, with reſpect to *inſurances* made for time, every collier might bring this as a plea, as they are always inſured on thoſe terms, though it was never apprehended, that every little accident which happened within the time, and obliged them to refit, was deemed a total loſs.

*The plaintiffs were nonſuited, becauſe unprepared to ſhew the impoſſibility of her being fitted out again before the expiration of the* inſurance. *Jalabert* and *Nevil* a *Jonathan Collier*, junior, Trinity term, 1749, at Guildhall.

The plaintiff cauſed *inſurance* to be made for himſelf or others, loſt or not loſt, on the good ſhip L'Heureux, captain Beatrix, from Bayonne to Martinico, the adventure beginning at and from Bayonne to Martinico and Cape François in St. Domingo, with liberty to touch and ſtay at any ports or places whatſoever, without prejudice to the *inſurance*, and without other proof of intereſt in caſe of loſs, than the preſent policy, and the French and American livres to be valued eleven-pence each, without further account to be given; and for this the aſſured paid thirty guineas *per cent.* to have twelve guineas *per cent.* returned, in caſe the ſhip ſhould depart with convoy from Bayonne or L'Iſle D'Aix.

The ſaid ſhip ſailed two days after in proſecution of the aforeſaid voyage, and was taken, brought to London, and condemned; on which the aſſured demanded of the defendant his ſubſcription, which he refuſed to pay, for different reaſons, as will be hereafter mentioned.

Several merchants in France, particularly at Bourdeaux and Bayonne, after the commencement of the French war, concluded by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, fitted out a great number of ſhips, under a pretence and appearance of ſending them to the French ſettlements in America, &c. and got them inſured to their full value at Marſeilles, and other places in that country; and as the laws of France prohibit every perſon from making larger *inſurance* than what their intereſt is, they, without diſcovering what they had done in their own country, requeſted ſeveral gentlemen here to get *inſurance* made for them, often to three or four times more than their real intereſt was; and the ſaid ſhips being generally taken or loſt, the underwriters, without ſuſpecting any fraud, paid their ſubſcription, by which means, the French concerned in theſe practices got more than they would have done by any fair adventures.

Theſe ſorts of tranſactions became at laſt ſo notorious in France, that Monſ. the count de Maurepas, director of the marine in that country, about May, 1747, took notice of it, and ſent a letter to a merchant at Nantes, deſiring him to inquire of his correſpondent in England, into the valuations of the ſeveral ſhips and cargoes, mentioned in the letter, (and amongſt them of the Heureux, captain Beatrix before-mentioned) with the amount of the *inſurances* made thereon, declaring in the ſaid letter, that there were great frauds committed by perſons of Bayonne and Bourdeaux, in fitting out ſhips and making large *inſurances* thereon, and then putting thoſe ſhips in the way of being taken by the Engliſh. This gentleman ſent a copy of the above-mentioned letter to Mr. Henry Loubier, a merchant of this city, who generouſly communicated the ſame to ſeveral of the principal underwriters; and they, in conſequence of this advice, choſe a few gentlemen from among themſelves as a committee, to enquire into theſe frauds; and they found that ſeveral gentlemen in England had procured *inſurances* to be made on French ſhips from Bourdeaux and Bayonne to the Weſt-Indies, either upon the terms of intereſt or no intereſt, or without further proof of intereſt than the policy, to the amount of 100,000 l. of which near the half was diſputable loſſes, by there being great reaſon to believe, that theſe *inſurances* were fraudulent, and among others the ſhip in queſtion; upon which a bill in Chancery was filed, and an injunction obtained; but on the plaintiff's ſwearing he knew of no fraud, the injunction was diſſolved.

The committee ſent an anſwer to M. Maurepas's letter, authenticated by a notary public, whereby it appeared, that the ſhip and cargo in diſpute were ſold in England for 788 l. 11s. 3d. viz. the cargo for 388 l. 11s. 3d. and the ſhip for 400 l. and there was inſured on her in England, 2790 l. and at Marſeilles it was found upon inquiry, that 12000 livres had been inſured, which (reckoning a livre at 11 d.) amounts to 550 l.

The preceding circumſtances were offered to the court, in order to diſcharge the defendant from paying the *inſurance*; but it not being in his power to prove them, though he ſuppoſed them matters of fact, and it appearing plainly that the plaintiff had not in the leaſt been guilty of any fraud, and the policy being expreſsly valued, and that in caſe of loſs, the aſſured ſhould not be obliged to prove his intereſt by any other means whatſoever, ſave by the preſent policy (as is mentioned at the beginning of this caſe) and had paid an adequate premium to the riſque, which to the underwriters was rather leſs than would have been on an intereſt to be proved; as in this latter caſe they are liable to averages, which on policies like this in queſtion, of intereſt or no intereſt, they are ſolely anſwerable for a total loſs; and the jury found a verdict for the plaintiff.

The ſame was tried on three other ſhips under the ſame circumſtances (on which large ſums had been inſured) and had the ſame determinations. *Benjamin Mendes De Coſta* a *Pouchon*.

The plaintiff (*Pond* a *King*) being concerned in the Salamander privateer, made *inſurance* on her, as well in his own name, as for and in the name and names of all and every other perſon or perſons, to whom the ſame did, might, or ſhould appertain, in part or in all, loſt or not loſt, at and from the Downs (or elſewhere) to any ports or places whatſoever, for and during the ſpace of three calendar months, to commence from the 21ſt of December, 1744, upon the body, tackle, &c. of the ſaid ſhip; and to continue until the ſaid ſhip, with her tackle, &c. ſhould be arrived at, as above-mentioned, and there had moored at anchor twenty-four hours in good ſafety; and it ſhould be lawful for the ſaid ſhip in that voyage, to proceed and ſail to, and touch and ſtay at, any ports or places whatſoever, without prejudice to that *inſurance*; the ſaid ſhip, &c. for ſo much as concerned the aſſured, was and ſhould be valued at, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage to the aſſurers, touching the adventure, &c. which they, the aſſurers, were contented to bear, and did take upon them in that voyage, &c. and in caſe the ſaid ſhip ſhould not be heard of in twelve months after the expiration of the above-mentioned three months, the aſſurers agreed

agreed to pay the loſs, and the aſſured to repay the ſame, if afterwards the ſaid ſhip ſhall be heard of in ſafety: the defendant underwrote two different hundred pounds at ſeparate times, on the aforeſaid policy, and the ſhip proceeded on her voyage on the 24th of December, as abovementioned, and was taken by the French on the ſecond of February following, after an engagement of more than an hour with a much ſuperior force, and after ſeveral of her men were killed and wounded; and being thus conquered, a hundred and ſeventeen of her men (including the captain and all the officers) moſt of her ſmall-arms, and the commiſſion, were removed into the enemy's ſhip, and carried into France, leaving only ſeventeen Engliſh on board the Salamander (of which five ſoon after died of their wounds) and two French officers, with twenty-four of their men; and the ſaid ſhip was in poſſeſſion of theſe their adverſaries, from four of the clock in the afternoon, of the ſaid ſecond day of February, until five of the clock in the afternoon of the fifth day of the ſame month, during all which time ſhe was abſolutely in the power of the enemy, and was at the laſt-mentioned period retaken by the Hunter privateer, captain Richard Veale, who put thirty of his men and two officers on board her, and kept her cruizing with him for eight days, when the ſaid captain Veale engaged, and took a French ſhip, with which, together with his own ſhip and the Salamander, he endeavoured to gain ſome port in England or Ireland, but the wind and weather not permitting, he carried them all to Liſbon (a neutral port) where he lay a conſiderable time; during which, captain Veale took out of the Salamander two carriage guns, and thirty hundred weight of bread for his ſhip's uſe; and the captain of the Durſley privateer (being in partnerſhip with the Hunter) alſo took out two carriage guns for the uſe of his ſhip; of all which captain Veale made a manifeſto, and ſent to his owners, that they might be accountable for them where they ought.

Captain Veale levied and inſtituted a cauſe or ſuit in the Vice Admiralty Court at Gibraltar, againſt the ſaid ſhip, the Salamander, and on the twenty-ninth of April, 1745, obtained a decree from the judge thereof, that the ſaid ſhip, &c. ſhould be reſtored to her rightful owners, they paying, in lieu of ſalvage, one third part of the full, true, and real value thereof, free and clear from all charges and deductions whatſoever; but as her capture had intirely overſet her voyage before the expiration of the three months, for which ſhe was inſured, the plaintiff demanded the *inſurance* of the defendant, which being denied, he ſued him for the ſame; and on the trial at Guildhall, the jury brought in their verdict *ſpecial*, which occaſioned its being argued before the judges of the King's Bench in Hilary term, 1746, and the diſpute in queſtion ſeemed to turn upon this point, viz. whether a policy, made free of average, can affect the inſurer but by a total loſs. This was ſtrongly urged in favour of the defendant, whoſe council ſuppoſed, that the recapture prevented the total loſs, which would have happened, had the enemy carried her into France; and that he was freed by the policy from payment of the average ordered to be paid in lieu of ſalvage, ſo that conſequently the plaintiff's demand on him was ill founded and unjuſt; but the arguments on the contrary ſide being ſtrong and concluſive, we ſhall tranſcribe the greateſt part of them; and the queſtions now upon the ſpecial verdict are two (one to be conſidered upon the firſt, and the other on the ſecond count in the declaration.)

Firſt, Whether the property of the prize was diveſted by the taking; and,

Secondly, Whether, as it is found that the voyage was totally broke, and the purpoſe thereof defeated by the capture, and no reſtitution made to the owners, there is not a breach of the policy, ſufficient to give the plaintiff a right of action, notwithſtanding the recapture, and tho' the property be not changed, and the inſurance be made free of average.

Firſt, It is found, that the ſhip was taken by enemies as a prize, and that a hundred and ſeventeen men (including the captain and officers) with the greateſt part of the ſmall arms, commiſſions, &c. were carried into France, and only ſeventeen men were left on board, all of which, except three, were wounded, and five of them died ſoon after, ſo that they were not able to navigate the ſhip: but two French officers and twenty-four men were put aboard, and the ſaid ſhip ſo conquered, remained in the poſſeſſion of the enemy from the ſecond to the fifth of February, and during all that time was abſolutely in their power; and that thereby the voyage inſured was totally prevented.

Theſe facts, according to the laws of France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, and other European nations, are ſufficient to diveſt the property of the prize; but according to the opinion of ſome writers, who draw their notions from the rule of the Civil Law, the property of a ſhip taken at ſea, is not diveſted till the prize is brought *infra fines*, or *infra præſidia capientium*.

If the queſtion therefore is to be determined by the preſent law of nations, it is with the plaintiff, for thereby the property of a prize is changed,

By a firm poſſeſſion of twenty-four hours.

But if by the opinion of certain doctors of the Civil Law, it is againſt the plaintiff,

The prize not being brought *infra fines hoſtium*.

It ſeems to be agreed by all the contending writers upon this queſtion, that the legal principle, which veſts the property of a prize, is

Such a taking as enables the captor to retain and defend the poſſeſſion; but their diſpute is concerning what circumſtances is declarative of ſuch ability, and upon this head it is that a variety of difficulties have aroſe.

Van Bynkerſhock, ſpeaking to this, ſays,

"Quando autem ita adepti, videamur poſſeſſionem ut retinere, vel non retinere poſſimus, caſarum varietas definire non permittit."

They all likewiſe agree, that when the *ſpes probabilis recuperandi* is loſt, or the parties may be ſaid *depoſſuiſſe animum recuperandi*, the property becomes the captors.

But they cannot ſettle what ſhall be the evidence thereof, though they confeſs it would be beneficial to the public, and reaſonable in itſelf, to put an end to an infinity of litigation, by reducing the queſtion to a certainty; yet, notwithſtanding ſo neceſſary an end is fully agreed upon, the means leading to it are not: the doctors adhering zealouſly to the rules of the civil law, contend, that the criterion for determining the queſtion, ſhall be a bringing the prize *infra prendia*; the law of nations regarding the general intereſt and convenience of the ſubjects, and to give all poſſible encouragement in the time of war, for the retaking of prizes from the enemy, hath ordained, that a poſſeſſion of twenty-four hours ſhall be ſufficient.

And now it is for the judgment of the court, to which ſide they will pay the difference; that is, whether to the opinion of ſuch doctors as Alber. Gent. Petrinus Bellus, and Van Bynkerſhock, or to the law and conſtant practice uſed in other nations.

If they adhere to the doctors, the queſtion is not finally ſettled amongſt them, for ſome contend, that there muſt be a bringing *intra fines capientium*, others only *infra claſſem*, and ſome into a neutral port, &c. and ſome go ſo far as to ſay, that after a bringing *intra præſidia*, there muſt be a ſailing to a new deſtination.

But by the law of nations, of modern or latter inſtitution, the certainty ſought for is definitive, viz. a poſſeſſion of twenty-four hours; and the authorities to prove the law of nations on this queſtion, are,

1. "Recentiori jure gentium inter Europeos populos introductum videmus ut talia capta cenſeantur, ubi per horas viginti quatuor in poteſtate hoſtium fuerint. *Gro. l. 3. c. 6. ſ. 4.*

2. "L'Coutume vient des antienne loix D'Allemagne et elle a et etablie limitation de l'eſpace de 24 heures qu'elles limitorent non ſans raiſon. *Barb. notes on Grotius. l. 3. c. 6.*

3. "La même choſe ſe pratique en Angleterre, et dans le royaume de Caſtille. Idem.

4. "Sed hodie naves ab hoſte captæ communi inter Chriſtianos, et Europeos populos, ſive jure, ſive conſuetudine poſt liminio—non recipiuntur ſi hoſtis eas non eodem die navali pugna iterum amiſeret, ſed per viginti quatuor horas in poteſtate victoris fuerint tunc enim vere captæ, et proprii juris factæ cenſentur. *Locenius de jure maritimo, &c. l. 2. c. 4. ſ. 14. Zouch de jure fetiali, part 2. ſ. 8. 21.*

5. "Quicquid vero clariſſimi interpretes diſputent de præda prius in præſidia deducenda, quam fiat poſſidentis

aliud

aliud tamen conſuetudine et moribus Europeorum hodie obſervatur ut nimirum præda capientium fiat, et preſertim naves hoſtium de quibus hic ſermo eſt ſi a victore per diem et noctem poſſeſſa fuerint. *Loc. l.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 8.

6. " Si aucun navire de nos ſujets eſt repris ſur nos ennemis apres qu'il aura demeure entre leur mains pendant 24 heures, la priſe en ſera bonne, et ſi elle eſt fait avant les 24 heures, il ſera reſtitue au proprietaire. *Ordon touchant la marine, tit. Prizes, act.* 8.

7. " Simon Greenewegen, an author frequently quoted as an authority by the beſt writers, and who was a celebrated lawyer in the laſt century, and of a family that had for a long courſe of years ſat at the helm of the government, proves, that the law requiring a ſhip to be brought *infra præſidia* is abrogated, and puts it down as ſuch in his treatiſe *De Legibus abrogates, et inuſitatis in Hollandia, vicinique regionibus*, where he diſtinguiſhes what ſhall be ſaid to be prizes by the civil law, and what by the law of nations; to which end, in lib. 49. tit. 15. *de Captivis, &c.* he makes ſeveral diviſions and ſubdiviſions of the ſubject, and has two ſubdiviſions *de novibus*, viz. Firſt, Captæ, quæ dicuntur jure civili; ſecondly, Gentium, and under this head, *Gentium*, quotes the paſſage aforeſaid from Grotius, and adds, that now in Holland a prize may be good, *nulli habito reſpecta temporis, quo navis in hoſtium poteſtate fuerit, dum tamen infra præſidia perducta non fuit. Sim. Grec. de Leg. Abr. p.* 353."

As by the law of other nations, a poſſeſſion of twenty-four hours undoubtedly diveſts the property of a prize, one might conclude, that (as this queſtion has not been judicially determined by this court) it would be reaſonable to put the ſubjects of England upon the ſame footing with thoſe in France, Spain, Holland, Sweden, &c. eſpecially in mercantile contracts, which ought to have the ſame conſtruction in one trading country as another, and more eſpecially as this kind of *inſurance, intereſt or not*, is a branch of trade peculiar to us; but if this will not do, the queſtion upon the ſecond count is to be conſidered, which is,

Whether upon this count, there hath not been a breach of the policy or contract of *inſurance*, ſufficient to give the plaintiff a right of action, upon intereſt or not?

It is found that the prize was fitted out to cruize againſt the king's enemies, that all her men except ſeventeen, as aforeſaid, were taken, and carried into France, and thoſe left, not able to navigate the ſhip, and that the voyage deſcribed in the policy was thereby totally prevented, and that at the time of the verdict, the ſhip remained at Liſbon, not reſtored to the owners.

This ſeems to be a breach, taking the policy either upon the ſoot of

*A contract or a wager.*

Conſidering it as a contract, the agreement is, that the ſhip ſhall not be prevented in the voyage, by any of the perils or riſques in the policy, amongſt which, are all ſurpriſals at ſea, arreſts, reſtraints, and detainments of all kings, princes, and people whatſoever; and here has been a ſurpriſal at ſea, and a detention, whereby the whole voyage inſured was totally broke, as is found by the verdict; and this is a much ſtronger caſe than De Paiba and Ludlow, where the court, for very good reaſons, determined unanimouſly for the plaintiff, as appears by the judgment of lord chief juſtice King, delivered as the opinion of the whole court; whereby it alſo appears, that a total loſs is not neceſſary in all caſes to give the plaintiff a right of action upon a policy, intereſt or not.

The defendant's council inſiſted in his argument, that as the policy was made free of average, nothing could affect the inſurer but a total loſs, becauſe all other loſſes are included within the import of average, by the words of the contract.

This is a miſtake, and appears to be ſo from the words of the policy, which immediately follow, viz. *and without benefit of ſalvage to the inſurer*. If nothing but a loſs of the whole could affect the inſurer, it is not conſiſtent that he ſhould renounce the benefit of ſalvage, for what could he have to do with ſalvage, in caſe he was chargeable, if any thing was ſaved?

This therefore is a conſtruction not warrantable, being abſolutely inconſiſtent with the expreſs words of the policy, which are *free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage to the aſſurer*.

And as ſuch a conſtruction is inconſiſtent, another is to be ſought, which is not ſo repugnant, and which may permit the words before-mentioned to ſtand with more propriety, and this may be done by confining the import of average to a limitation; and the definition of average in the firſt article of the ordinance of *Fontainbleau touchant la marine, titre avaries*, eſtabliſhes ſuch a limitation of the import of this word, as will give it a conſiſtent place, as it ſtands in a policy of *inſurance*; it is by the ſaid *ordon* defined thus;

" Tout depenſe extraordinaire que ſe fera pour les navires, et merchandizes, conjointement ou ſeparement, et tout dommage que leur arrivera depuis leur charge et depart, juſques a leur retour et diſcharge, ſeront reputez avaries. *Ordon.* of 1681, *Tit.* 7. *des Avaries.*"

And it is certain, the true import of the word average, is ſuch damages as happen to the ſhip or cargo during the voyage, as the loſs of anchors, maſts, cables, &c. but that which breaks up the voyage, as in this caſe a capture by enemies, whereby the whole end, purpoſe, and deſign of the cruize, was abſolutely defeated by the actual taking of all the men, arms, proviſions, commiſſion, officers, &c. cannot from the obvious nature, circumſtances, and reaſon of the thing, and the authority of the caſe of De Paiba and Ludlow, be eſteemed barely as an average, to which the inſurer is not liable, but muſt be conſidered as a total breach of the contract of *inſurance* to which he is liable.

If the conſtruction contended for by the defendant, was to prevail, the inſurer would rather be indemnified from, than ſubjected to the perils inſured againſt; for if a taking happens at the beginning of a voyage, inſured from one port to another, or for time only, and the voyage be thereby broke up, or the time elapſed, the recovery of the ſhip will ruin the inſured, and be a general releaſe to the inſurer, who will alſo be thereby indemnified from all the riſques in the policy; whereby, if no ſuch capture had happened, the ſhip might have been loſt, and a capture and detention breaking up the voyage inſured, might put the inſurer in a better condition than if there had been no capture at all, which cannot be the meaning of the parties, being inconſiſtent with the apparent deſign of an *inſurance*.

Beſides, in this caſe, the ſhip inſured is not to this hour, as appears by the verdict reſtored to the owners, neither was it [*Hartley* a *Pringle*, held by lord chancellor that the inſured in caſe might abandon] worth their while to pay ſalvage and charges, and raiſe men to bring her home; and ſuppoſe they had, and ſhe had been taken again by the enemy, the time of *inſurance* was expired, and the inſurer in ſuch caſe would have ſaid he was not liable. Therefore muſt be conſidered as a total breach of the policy, and not as a bare average.

1ſt, Here was a taking and a detention.

2dly, All the men, commiſſion, &c. taken and carried into France, and never retaken.

3dly, Though ſhip retaken, not reſtored, and poſſibly never may.

4thly, If reſtored, her men, arms, proviſions, &c. being taken, could not purſue the purpoſe of the voyage, and therefore the inſured may abandon the benefit of ſalvage. —This ſalvage is what the inſurer has promiſed by the policy.

5thly, The verdict has found the voyage was thereby totally defeated, and that is ſufficient.

There are many caſes where the plaintiff on a policy, intereſt or not, has recovered, though no total loſs of the ſhip, but becauſe by the perils in the policy, ſhe was rendered unable to perform the voyage, as in the caſe of the Ludlow Caſtle, and the caſe of the Providence, between Carter and Barrell, where the ſhip came into St. Ives, bound for London, being leaky, the cargo was unloaded, and the ſhip ſold at St. Ives, though it was proved, ſhe might, at a conſiderable expence, have been made fit to perform the voyage, yet, as without it the voyage could not be performed, the plaintiff recovered, though no loſs at all of the ſhip.

So in the preſent caſe, if the ſhip had been taken in an hour, ſhe could not have purſued the voyage, for all the men, &c. were taken and carried into France, and therefore ſhe could not navigate herſelf, neither could ſhe have performed the voyage inſured.

But taking it upon the footing of a wager, as put by the defendant's council, what is the wager? It is, that ſuch a ſhip, for, and notwithſtanding any arreſts, reſtraints, &c. will ſail from London to Jamaica, or ſail for three calendar months upon a cruize (as the adventure may be.) If therefore by any arreſt, taking, detention, &c. the ſhip is totally prevented from proceeding in the voyage, is not the wager loſt? has not a contingency inſured againſt happened?

Upon this caſe, for the reaſons aforeſaid, and many others ariſing upon the nature of the contract of aſſurance, and particularly upon the authority, and reaſon in De Paiba and Ludlow, the plaintiff hoped for the judgment of the court in his favour, which accordingly was given, and the judges were unanimous in their opinion.

We have enlarged conſiderably on this caſe (more than on any others) as it is that which ſettled definitively this nature of *inſurance*, which before was almoſt always conteſted, when any little difficulty happened; and though the late act prohibits the continuance of a buſineſs it deems hurtful to the public, yet this deciſion may be a government for diſputes, in other parts where it is permitted, or in caſe the aforeſaid act ſhould ever be repealed.

The plaintiffs being merchants, reſiding at Gibraltar, and one of them coming to London, to purchaſe goods fit for that place, bought to near the value of 3000l. and in order to forward them to the aforeſaid place, he took freight on the ſhip Ranger, captain Taylor, which he ſaw put up (as accuſtomary) at the Royal-Exchange and Portugal coffee-houſe, with a declaration inſerted in the ſaid advertiſement, *that the ſhip was to ſail with the firſt convoy*, and in conſequence thereof, he ſhipped his merchandize, and made *inſurance* thereon, to the amount of 2130l. inſerting in the policy the words (*warranted to depart with convoy*) in conformity with the above-mentioned placart of the captain.

The ſhip, when loaded, ſailed from Graveſend the fourth of May, 1746, on her voyage, and arrived in the Downs, the ſeventh, where ſhe continued till the twelfth, in company with the Otter ſloop of war, ſome Engliſh merchant ſhips, and three Dutch Eaſt-India ſhips.

Captain Taylor, whilſt he lay in the Downs, having received intelligence that the convoy at Spithead was ready to ſail, went on board the Otter ſloop, in order to ſolicit the commander's taking him under his protection to Spithead; but this, the ſaid gentleman informed him, was not in his power to comply with, as he was ordered on a cruize, over to the coaſt of France: whereupon captain Taylor went on board the commodore of the Dutch Eaſt-India ſhips, who promiſed to take the Ranger under convoy to Spithead.

On the ſaid twelfth of May, the Otter ſloop, the Dutch, and the Ranger weighed anchor, as did alſo ſome Engliſh ſhips for the benefit of that convoy, and a few hours after they were under ſail, the Otter ſloop parted from them on her cruize, and the Ranger proceeded and kept company with the three Dutch ſhips, till between four and five o'clock the next afternoon, (being the thirteenth) when (in her direct courſe to Spithead) ſhe was attacked by a French privateer, called the Reſource, within three miles of the Dutch Eaſt-India men, and eighteen of Spithead, where ſhe was to join the convoy for Gibraltar, and (after ſome reſiſtance) ſhe was taken, and carried into Havre de Grace, and there regularly condemned.

The plaintiff, on the aforeſaid capture, applied to the reſpective underwriters, (and among them to the defendant) requiring ſatisfaction for his loſs; but they abſolutely refuſed paying any thing, inſiſting that the ſhip had not ſailed according to the terms of the policy, viz. *at and from London to Gibraltar, warranted to depart with convoy*; but as ſhe departed without convoy (which ſhe ought not to have done) and was taken in conſequence thereof, the inſurers are not held to ſatisfy a loſs, which they never obliged themſelves to be anſwerable for; that the ſhip ought to have ſtaid till a convoy offered, and not gone to ſeek one at ſuch a diſtance, as evidently expoſed her to be taken in getting thither.

On the contrary, the plaintiff pleaded, that they had complied with the tenour of the policy, that the defendant miſconceived the natural conſtruction of the words, *warranted to depart with convoy*, as they did not imply, that the ſhip ought to have departed with convoy from the port of London, as the rendezvous for ſhips, bound to Gibraltar and the Streights, is generally at Spithead, where they join the convoy; and although there may poſſibly be an inſtance or two of a convoy, ſailing from the Nore and the Downs to Gibraltar, yet this is an uncommon accidental thing, and was not to have been expected on this occaſion: on the contrary, it was then known, that the convoy for thoſe parts was to be at Spithead, and many ſhips went there from London to take the benefit of it, ſo that the warrantry could only be underſtood from Spithead, as it was from the convoy there the captain was to take his ſailing orders; beſides, as it was unſafe to lie in the Downs without a man of war, the plaintiff conceives the Ranger would have run a much greater riſque, in continuing there after the Otter's departure, than ſhe did in ſailing with her and the Dutch ſhips, though they were no regular convoy; and the plaintiff paid the ſame premium for his *inſurance*, as was given on ſeveral ſhips at the ſame time, with a warrantry to depart from any port of the channel; and it was the opinion of ſeveral merchants, that ſhips ſailing with convoy are to make the beſt of their way to the convoy, and not to ſtay for any intermediate one. *Gordon* and *Murray* a *Morley*, Eſq; at the ſitting after Michaelmas term at Guildhall.

*The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff.*

The plaintiff having underwrote the William and Anne, captain Strachan, at and from Virginia or Maryland, to London, had a mind to re-inſure himſelf, and accordingly ordered Mr. Alexander Hoſkins, a broker, to get it done, who having complied with the commiſſion, certified on the policy, that the intereſt was in the plaintiff.

The *inſurance* was made, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage, but under the policy was this clauſe; *in caſe of retain, the aſſurers to have benefit of ſalvage, and to pay average, the ſame as if wrote on intereſt.*

The ſhip ſailed from Virginia on her voyage to London, and being about two hundred and fifteen leagues to the weſtward of Cape Clear, after a voyage of three weeks, ſhe was taken by two French privateers, carried into a place in Newfoundland, called by that nation Cape de Grate, and commonly occupied by them in the fiſhing ſeaſon, where ſhe continued in the enemy's poſſeſſion and power, forty-one days; during which time, the enemy took out of her a great part of her cargo, and after ſo rifling her, and in their way condemning her, the captain agreed to ranſom her with what remained of her loading, and the ranſom-bill being ſigned, and his mate left as an hoſtage, they permitted him to purſue his voyage to London, where he afterwards arrived.

Soon after the ſhip's arrival, the merchants who were concerned in the cargo, and had been inſured, applied to their underwriters for ſatisfaction, when moſt of them ſettled the average for what was pillaged, at fifty *per cent.* one at forty, and the preſent plaintiff paid his quota thereon, and afterwards applied to the defendant, who had reinſured him, to ſettle his policy; and it was agreed between them, that it ſhould be on the ſame footing, as the major part of the aforeſaid underwriters on intereſt had done, which the broker (in this *inſurance*) underſtanding was done at fifty *per cent.* he indorſed on the back of the policy theſe words, *adjuſted this loſs at fifty pounds* per cent. *to pay in one month*, London, 12 December, 1745, and ſigned by the defendant.

*Daniel Flexney.*

Though at the time the defendant ſigned the abovementioned note, he told the plaintiff, that ſome of the underwriters, on the original policies, had paid an average only of forty *per cent.* and therefore he would pay no more, and at the ſame time with his pen drew a line through the word fifty, and above it wrote forty, which occaſioned

ſome diſpute between them; but the indorſement ſo ſigned by the defendant remained uncancelled.

The defendant afterwards refuſed making any ſatisfaction, under a ſuppoſition of his having no obligation thereto, for which his principal reaſons were, viz.

1ſt. That although he had ſigned ſuch an adjuſtment at forty *per cent.* yet he is not bound by it, becauſe the plaintiff objected to it at the time of ſigning, and inſiſted on fifty.

2dly, That although the ſhip was in the enemy's poſſeſſion, and carried into Cape de Grate, yet as ſhe afterwards proceeded on the ſame voyage, and arrived ſafe in London, therefore there could be no loſs, ſo as to recover under a policy, intereſt or no intereſt.

To the firſt of which objections, the plaintiff admits that he did find fault with the defendant for ſtriking out the word fifty, and inſerting forty; yet as the defendant did not then think proper to cancel the ſaid adjuſtment, but permitted it to remain on the back of the policy, the plaintiff apprehended he had a right to recover under the ſaid adjuſtment.

As to the defendant's ſecond objection, the plaintiff ſuppoſes, that as the ſhip was carried in by the enemy to Cape de Grate, and detained till ranſomed, that this will amount to a total diveſtiture or alteration of the property, and be deemed ſuch a loſs as will intitle him to recover, this caſe ſeeming to be of a quite different nature from a recapture before the ſhip is carried into an enemy's port. *Hewitt* a *Flexney* at Guildhall, the ſittings after Eaſter term, 1746.

*Verdict for the plaintiff.*

The plaintiff having cauſed himſelf to be inſured fifty pounds, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage, on the Proſperous Eſther, captain Miln, from and immediately following her laſt arrival at Maryland or Virginia, and to continue till her arrival at London, and not caring to appear in it, he directed his broker, Mr. Hart, to get the policy made in his name, which was accordingly done, and as ſhe was deemed a miſſing ſhip, the premium was after the rate of ſixty guineas *per cent.*

The ſhip ſailed on her voyage from Virginia, and in forty days after was taken by a French privateer, about a hundred leagues to the weſtward of the Land's End, and was detained by the enemy ſix days at ſea, and then both ſhip and cargo ranſomed for 3500 l. but captain Miln, inſtead of coming directly to London, where he was bound, on pretence of bad weather, put into Ilfracomb in Devonſhire, from whence he wrote to his owner, Mr. Dick of London; but the ſaid gentleman's affairs being then unhappily ſituated, and having, prior to his misfortunes, aſſigned the ſhip and two policies of *inſurance* thereon to Mr. Alexander Black, who apprehending by what captain Miln wrote, that the ſhip and cargo were much damaged ſince the capture, and therefore that the value might fall ſhort of a ſufficiency to pay the ranſom bill, and incident charges, he rather choſe to come upon the inſurers for his money, than to have the trouble of taking the ſhip and cargo under his care, and therefore abandoned the whole to captain Miln, to enable him to pay the ranſom bill.

And thereupon Meſſ. Simonds of London, merchants, agents for the captors, ordered captain Miln to carry the ſhip and cargo to Briſtol, there to be diſpoſed of, inſtead of bringing her to London, which was accordingly done; and after paying the captain and ſailors their wages, amounting to upwards of 300 l. the neat proceeds fell ſhort of the ranſom-bill, owing to the damage ſhe received in her voyage after the capture.

The defendant ſuppoſes this was a gaming policy, though the plaintiff inſiſts upon its being a re-inſurance; and having applied to the defendant, after underwriting, for his conſent to have it declared ſo, he abſolutely refuſed to admit it.

The plaintiff ſeemed to lay a good deal of ſtreſs on a ſuppoſed indiſcretion in the captain, by paying more for the ſhip and cargo than they were worth; but had they eſcaped the damages ſubſequent to the ranſom, they would undoubtedly have ſold for more than they coſt freeing, and never have been abandoned by the owners.

The plaintiff likewiſe inſiſts, that the ſhip ſailed from Virginia, but never arrived at London, according to the terms of the policy, and therefore the *inſurance* was due; but the defendant, in reply, pretends, that the ſhip's putting into Ilfracomb was a deviation, and conſequently not within the riſque of the policy; and beſides, he thinks this is not to be conſidered as a total loſs, in the caſe of intereſt or no intereſt, as it is a mere wager, whether the ſhip arrives, or not: the ſhip did arrive in England, and is now in being, and this was a ranſom at ſea, only for the benefit of the concerned, but the defendant could reap no advantage by it, whether it was prudently done, or not; and it might occaſionally have been more for his intereſt, if the ſhip had continued at ſea in the enemy's poſſeſſion, as there was a chance of her being retaken, before ſhe had been carried *infra prendia*, and if ſhe had, and arrived ſafe, there would have been no loſs within the terms of the policy; as he preſumes there is no room to claim a loſs in caſes of a recapture, ſeveral merchants, inſurers, and brokers, being of opinion that on a policy intereſt or no intereſt, a capture at ſea is never conſidered as a total loſs, unleſs the prize is afterwards carried into the enemy's port; and that the abandoning the ſhip and cargo by the owners, after her arrival, will not alter the caſe. *Barclay* a *Etherington*, ſittings after Trinity term, 1747, at Guildhall.

*The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff.*

The Broomfield was inſured, at, and from the Leeward Iſlands to Briſtol, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, loſs, and without benefit of ſalvage, and among other underwriters, the defendant ſubſcribed; the ſhip in her paſſage home was taken by a Spaniard, who took out four of her men and the captain, and put nine of his men aboard, and ordered them to carry her to Bilboa, for which place her courſe was directed; and on her voyage there, and after having been in poſſeſſion of the enemy thirty-nine hours, ſhe was retaken by the Terrible privateer belonging to Liverpoole, and carried into Waterford, from whence ſome propoſals were made to the owners of the Terrible, in order to her releaſe, and permiſſion to proſecute her intended voyage to Briſtol; but not being agreed to, ſhe was brought to Liverpoole, and after commiſſion of appraiſement had iſſued out of the admiralty, ſhe and her cargo were ſold, to pay the ſalvage due to the recaptors, as by act of parliament.

One of her quondam owners now bought the whole, and afterwards parcelled her out among ſeveral gentlemen at Briſtol (who became copartners with him) to which place ſhe was ordered, and where ſhe arrived; though as the plaintiff ſuppoſes, this could not be an arrival agreeable to, or within the intent and meaning of, the policy in queſtion, under the circumſtances above ſtated, viz. of her capture, recapture, appraiſement, and ſale, and with an intire new ſet of owners, he thinks he is intitled to a total loſs.

The defendant, on the contrary, urges, that this was no more than a bare capture and recapture, which, he ſays, has never been deemed a total loſs; in reply to which, the plaintiff affirms, that this was ſtill more, for the ſhip, after being retaken, was carried into Waterford by the privateer, kept ſome conſiderable time there, afterwards was carried into Liverpoole, and there (as above-mentioned) with the cargo, appraiſed and ſold to pay the ſalvage, and a new ſet of owners engaged before ſhe ſet out for Briſtol, by which the whole voyage was altered and loſt.

And to juſtify this plea, he quoted my lord chief juſtice Lee's ſentiments, when he gave judgment in the caſe of the Salamander, viz.

" We muſt not judge this cauſe by the rules of the civil law, but we muſt judge it by the rules of the common law, and determine on this policy as an agreement and contract between the parties, whoſe intention and meaning, when they enter into it, muſt govern; and although in the civil law, to make a forfeiture of an *inſurance* there muſt be a total loſs of property, that is not a reaſon why it ſhould be required in this caſe, becauſe here the policy by the words of it extends to *accident*, where there may be no loſs of property, as taking by pirates, enemies, men of war, &c. And this his lordſhip declared, was taken notice of by lord King, in the caſe of De Paiba and Ludlow, where there was no alteration of property by that capture, as Sweden was not at war with England,

and yet that was deemed a total loſs; but in the preſent caſe, here was a capture by an enemy; and his lordſhip farther ſaid, that the queſtion on the Salamander, was not, whether the property of the privateer was loſt by this capture, but whether the capture was ſuch a peril, as is inſured againſt? The judges were unanimouſly of that opinion, and the judgment was given for the plaintiff." *Daubeny* a *Read*, ſittings after Michaelmas term, 1750, at Guildhall.

*Verdict for the defendant.*

For the *adjuſtment* of a loſs made and promiſed on a policy by an inſurer, which obliges him, *ſee* the title ADJUSTMENT.

The Tyger, captain Harriſon, being bound from London to Gibraltar, the plaintiff got an *inſurance* made on her, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage to the inſurers; and at the foot of the policy there was a warrantry, *that the ſhip ſhould depart with convoy from ſome port in the channel.*

The ſaid ſhip proceeded on her voyage, as far as the Downs, and ſailed from thence under convoy, as warranted; but ſoon after her departure ſhe received a very conſiderable damage, which obliged her to return to Dover Pier to refit; and after the neceſſary affairs were finiſhed, ſhe ſailed again, in proſecution of her voyage, and for her ſecurity therein, to join the convoy at Spithead; but having got as far as the Iſle of Wight, ſhe proved ſo leaky as obliged her to a ſecond return, and ſhe once more arrived at Dover, to ſearch for her leaks.

Her owners, on this, thought it adviſable to have her ſurveyed by men of ſkill and judgment; and thereupon two ſhip-carpenters, and two maſters of ſhips, having examined her, declared, that they had ſurveyed both ſides, from ſtem to ſtern above the wales, and the tranſom, after the planks were ripped off, and found the timbers to be very rotten, and in ſo bad a condition, that except all her upper works were pulled down and new built, they did not judge her in a fit condition to proceed on her intended voyage; and that if ſhe was ſo repaired, the charges would come to more than ſhe would be worth, with all belonging to her.

The plaintiff inſiſts that ſhe was a very good ſhip when ſhe ſet out on her voyage, and ſhe was only rendered otherwiſe by the bad weather ſhe had met with, which, at laſt, not only rendered her unfit for her voyage, but occaſioned her proving a total loſs to her owners; that ſhe would have weathered the ſtorm, in all probability, unhurt, had not the Swiſs privateer drove foul of her; that when her firſt hurt was repaired, the builder ſuppoſed her ſtronger than before the ſtorm; though when ſhe was laid open, her tranſom (as before-mentioned) and moſt of her long timbers were found rotten, ſo that notwithſtanding it is poſſible ſhe might have performed her voyage, yet had her defects been known, no body would have cared to venture in her.

Mr. Burton, who fitted her out in the Thames, declares ſhe was in very good condition, and fit for any voyage; though he did not examine her timbers, but only caulked her, and mended her outſide and floor-timbers; but it is natural to ſuppoſe, that if her timbers were ſound in October, (when theſe repairs were done) they could not have been rotten in January, when ſhe received her damage.

And the defendant grounds his reaſons for not paying the ſaid *inſurance*, firſt, on that part of the policy's contents, which aſſerts the ſhip to be *tight*, *ſtaunch*, *and ſtrong*, and (barring future accidents) able to go through the voyage; whereas he ſuppoſes this veſſel not to have been ſo, as he thinks is clear, from the preceding affidavit, and from the verbal evidence of one of the ſurveyors; to which he adds, in order to make the proof of her defects the ſtronger, that on her firſt ſetting out ſhe belonged to two Jews, who, on her return to Dover Pier the firſt time, ſold her to Mr. Richard Glover, a conſiderable merchant of this city, who ordered her to be repaired, and actually laid out upon her 150l. though, as it appears, was in a manner thrown away, as on her ſecond return ſhe was condemned, broke up, and ſold in parcels; and her incapacity to proceed on her voyage having been ſo apparent, from the foregoing ſurvey, as to induce Mr. Glover to deſire the ſhippers to take their goods out, and though he had got 300l. inſured on her, he ſeemed ſo ſenſible of the deceitful bargain with the Jews, in ſelling him an old rotten ſhip, that he never demanded one farthing of the ſaid *inſurance* from the underwriters.

That the plaintiff had no intereſt in the veſſel, and therefore this was only a gaming policy; and as it is a general rule in all caſes of intereſt or no intereſt, that there muſt be a total loſs before the inſured can recover, and the inſurer by this policy being free from average, of a partial loſs, it ſeems to be the principal queſtion in this caſe, whether the ſhip brought into Dover Pier, there condemned as being rotten, divided into lots and ſold, will be conſidered in the agreement or wager, as a total loſs? And to inforce the contract, the defendant remarks, that there was no loſs at ſea, no capture, but a deliberate act done by the owner, upon a regular ſurvey, which occaſioned her being broke up, not by reaſon of the damage ſhe had received, but from the rottenneſs of the principal parts of her works. *Arnold* a *Godin*, ſittings after Trinity term, 1747, at Guildhall.

*Verdict for the plaintiff.*

The plaintiffs [*Lane* and *Caſwall* a *Jonat. Collyer*, jun. ſittings after Hilary term, 1755, at Guildhall] having received orders from Mr. John Jones, of Boſton in New-England, to make ſome *inſurance* for him on the Repriſal, captain Gowen, and alſo on her goods and freight, at and from Cape Fare, in North Carolina, to Briſtol; underneath the policy for the ſhip only, was inſerted the ſubſequent words or declaration, viz. *The following inſurance is on the ſhip only, valued at the ſum inſured*, on which part the defendant underwrote 100l.

The ſhip ſailed from Cape Fare, with a cargo of pitch, tar, &c. in proſecution of her voyage for Briſtol, and had got within one hundred and fifty leagues to the weſtward of Cape Clear in Ireland, when ſhe was attacked and taken by three French ſhips, bound for Newfoundland, where they carried her and her cargo to a French port, called Carpoon, after having firſt taken out all her men, and diſperſed them aboard their own ſhips.

On their arrival at the aforeſaid port, the captors took out all her pitch, (being two hundred and three barrels) ſome tar, what rice was aboard, &c. and after detaining her about three or four weeks in the ſaid port, the captors offered captain Gowen his ſhip, and remaining cargo, for 9500 livres (about 425l. ſterling) which he accepted, and became the purchaſer thereof on thoſe terms, leaving his ſon as an hoſtage for the payment of the ranſom.

The ſhip departed from Carpoon for Briſtol, and on her voyage met with very bad weather, which broke her rudder, and was forced to put into Appledore in Devonſhire (the firſt port they could make with ſafety) where the captain, firſt and ſecond mates, boatſwain, and a foremaſtman, made a proteſt on their oaths, giving ſuch an account as the preceding.

The captain having purchaſed the ſhip and cargo, as before-mentioned, on his arrival at Appledore, applied to Mr. Perkins of Briſtol, to whom he was conſigned by Jones, the owner, who refuſed to pay the ranſom money, or have any thing to do with ſhip or cargo, and then the captain came to London to the inſurers; and thoſe on the goods impowered and deſired him to ſell the cargo for what he could, in order, that if it produced more than the ranſom, they might have the benefit; but the inſurers on the ſhip would not intermeddle, or give any directions about it.

The captain returned to the ſhip, and ſold that and the cargo jointly, for above 100l. leſs than the redemption money, after deducting charges, and was obliged to pay, or give ſecurity for the remainder, to procure his ſon's liberty.

The ſhip being thus taken and carried into an enemy's port, where ſhe was detained a conſiderable time, and had great part of her cargo taken out by the captors, and afterwards meeting with other misfortunes, occaſioned her producing leſs than the ranſom money, and conſequently to prove a total loſs, to be made good by the inſurer.

The preceding is a ſtate of the caſe, and of the plaintiffs demands, who think themſelves intitled to a total loſs,

as

as the policy was valued: but the defendant, on the contrary, pretends, that as part, both of the ſhip and goods were ſaved, he is intitled to an average, and not ſubject to an intire loſs; but

*The jury found a verdict for the plaintiffs.*

The plaintiff [*Jenkins* a *Mackenzie*, ſittings after Michaelmas term, 1749, at Guildhall] made an *inſurance* in London, on the Tryal privateer, fitted out at Briſtol for two calendar months, where the ſhip might then be on a cruize, or in any port or place whatſoever or wherefoever, the ſaid ſhip to be valued at intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage.

The ſaid privateer being fitted for her cruize, ſailed from Briſtol on the 29th of May, 1746, and ſome days after ſhe was met with by a French privateer of a ſuperior force, who attacked, and, after a brave defence, took her.

She had been in the enemy's hands about eight hours, without their removing any of her men or ſtores, when admiral Martin, with his whole fleet, appearing, retook the Tryal; and hearing of the gallant behaviour, both of the captain and his crew, they unanimouſly agreed to give up their ſalvage to them, and accordingly drew up and ſigned an inſtrument for that purpoſe; and the admiral ordered her to be furniſhed with all neceſſaries, and ſent a man of war ſloop to ſee her ſafe into Briſtol, where ſhe arrived the latter end of June, being between three and four weeks before the *inſurance* expired.

Theſe circumſtances the plaintiff thinks intitles him to a total loſs, as the voyage was overſet, and the policy, being on intereſt or not, will admit of no average.

The defendant agrees to the laſt aſſertion, but for that very reaſon inſiſts, he has no loſs to pay, as he is free from a partial one, and there can be no total one where the ſhip is arrived, and, as he inſiſts, might have been fitted out again before the limited term of two months expired, had the owners not determined the contrary; and beſides, though the ſhip was taken, yet as ſhe was never carried *infra præſidia* of the enemy, or was ſo taken, yet as to be beyond the poſſibility of a re-capture; and having returned to Briſtol, ſo long time before the two months expired, as was ſufficient to refit her in, the defendant ſuppoſes that the neglect of the owners ought not to be imputed to the underwriters, more eſpecially as ſeveral ſhipbuilders attended to prove there was time enough, as ſeveral merchants did to give their opinion with regard to the loſs.

*Verdict for the plaintiff.*

The plaintiff [*Boutflower* a *Wilmer*, ſittings after Hilary term, 1747, at Guildhall] was owner of the ſhip Love and Unity, which he let out to freight to one Bateman Humphrys, for a voyage to Liſbon and back again, and the freighter was by charter-party obliged to victual and man her, which he did accordingly, putting in the maſter and crew, and embarking himſelf, proceeded on his voyage, and arrived ſafe at Liſbon; he delivered the outward-bound cargo, and put the ſhip up for London, in hopes of getting a freight home; on advice of which, the owner and plaintiff got her inſured, at and from Liſbon to Gravefend, warranted to ſail with the convoy.

The freighter, being at Liſbon, meditated a fraud, which iniquitous ſcheme he perpetrated in the following manner, viz. he made made up rolls of lead about the ſize of moidores, ſix and thirties, and three pound twelves, packed up, and ſealed as ſuch monies are uſually packed up and ſealed, and made packages likewiſe in imitation of thoſe of diamonds, and then ſent them on board, and took bills of loading from the captain, as for real money and diamonds, ſent thoſe bills of loading home to different merchants, and drew conſiderable ſums upon the credit of them, as well as large *inſurance*, in order, as it is ſuppoſed, to have loſt the ſhip in the voyage home, and make the inſurers pay, as though ſuch effects had actually been on board; but the captain, as it is imagined, ſuſpecting ſomething of the fraud before the ſhip ſailed, opened one or more of the packages, and diſcovered the cheat, finding nothing but lead and glaſs, inſtead of gold and diamonds, of which, he giving information to the Engliſh conſul there, the freighter ran away, and the captain and crew left the ſhip, the captain coming to England.

The plaintiff, on knowing what had occurred, by the maſter's arrival, immediately applied to the inſurers, and deſired them to ſend to Liſbon for the ſhip, or furniſh him with money to go and fetch her; but they were of opinion, and accordingly acquainted him ſo, that as the ſhip was at the port ſhe was inſured from, and had not proceeded on her voyage, it was the buſineſs of the owner, not the inſurers, to find maſter and mariners to navigate her; the conſequence of which was, that the ſhip lay there neglected till ſhe was broke to pieces, whereupon the plaintiff brought this action for the recovery of a total loſs.

The defendant thinks himſelf not obliged, as he preſumes the words in the policy, *at and from*, can only mean to give the ſhip leave to ſtay at the port a reaſonable time to procure a lading, and take it in, and not to lay there till ſhe rots, without attempting the voyage, as this would be to make the inſurer at all events liable, ſooner or later; whereas he ſuppoſed he undertook a riſque of two or three months only.

But, we preſume, the underwriters would be obliged by the barratry of the maſter and ſailors, as we imagine the act of deſerting the ſhip would be conſtrued, and therefore, abſtracted from all other arguments, would on this point only be condemned.

*Verdict for the plaintiff.*

The plaintiff [*Elton* a *Brogden*, ſittings after Hilary term, 1746, at Guildhall] in the preſent cafe brought an action againſt the defendant, for an *inſurance* this latter underwrote on the Mediterranean, at and from Briſtol to Newfoundland, the ſhip valued at the ſum inſured, without further proof of intereſt than the policy.

It appeared upon the trial of this cauſe, that the plaintiffs, who were merchants at Briſtol, were owners of the ſhip in queſtion, and had ſent her out upon a voyage from thence to Newfoundland; that ſhe carried with her a letter of marque, and in her voyage met and took a French ſhip, which ſhe brought back to Briſtol; that ſhe ſoon ſet out again upon the ſame voyage, and took another prize, which ſhe alſo returned with.

Upon the ſhip's coming back, the plaintiffs applied to the inſurers for a return of part of the premium (which was ten guineas *per cent.*) in regard they had not run ſo much riſque, as if the ſhip had proceeded the whole voyage, and the inſurers returned three *per cent.*

A new policy was made for the voyage now under conſideration, in the ſame manner, and on the ſame terms as the laſt, and the ſhip ſet out on her voyage, and took another prize. The captain, who was the plaintiff's only witneſs, ſaid, their directions to him for their preceding voyages, were, that in caſe he took any thing, to return with it to Briſtol, or not, as he ſhould think proper; but in this laſt voyage their directions were, if he took any thing, to ſend it home by part of their crew, and with the other part to proceed on their voyage, and that he would have done ſo, but the ſailors, after the capture, would not proceed on the voyage, but would return to take care of her to Briſtol; and that all the crew, except the mate, ſurgeon, and one other, were of this mind, and ſwore, if the captain would not go back they would not touch a rope, nor do the leaſt thing towards navigating the ſhip; on which the captain was forced to comply, and ſet his ſhip homeward, as guard or convoy to the prize; that in going back to Briſtol the Mediterranean was taken, though the prize got in ſafe, and for this loſs the plaintiffs brought their action.

On the part of the defendant, it was inſiſted, that this was a deviation for the benefit of the aſſured, and that the inſurers were therefore diſcharged.

It appeared, on the captain's evidence, that the plaintiffs had given a part of all prizes to the captain and ſhip's crew, and that it was for the care and protection of this prize, which made the ſailors inſiſt to go back with her, which was the firſt cauſe and ground for the deviation; and therefore, and for that the plaintiffs were likewiſe themſelves to be greatly benefited by the prize, the defendant inſiſted he ſhould not pay.

But it appearing from the evidence of the captain, that his orders for this voyage were poſitively to proceed, notwithſtanding any capture he ſhould make, and that he would

would have done ſo, if he could have prevailed on the ſailors, and that his returning was wholly owing to their refuſal to proceed, and his incapacity to go on without them.

My lord chief juſtice and the jury were of opinion with the plaintiffs, and the jury brought in their verdict accordingly.

The plaintiff [*Victorin* a *Cleeve*, ſittings after Hilary term, 1745, at Guildhall] is a merchant in London, who trades conſiderably to Sweden, and in 1744, he and another merchant here, hired the John and Jane, captain Newark Ingram, to go to Gottenburgh, and there to take in ſuch iron as ſhould be put aboard by their agents, and bring it to London, their directions to, and agreement with, the maſter, being to ſail from hence with convoy, and when loaded at Gottenburgh, to join the firſt convoy that ſhould preſent, for England, either there, or at Maſterland, or Wingoe; on which goods they made *inſurance*, and warranted the ſhip to ſail with convoy from Gottenburgh or Wingoe.

The ſhip arrived ſafe at Gottenburgh, and took in the ordered quantity of iron, according to agreement, and after having got on board the reſt of her cargo, the captain being informed, that the convoy from the Sound, which was the only one he could expect, would call at Fleekery, (an iſland) and not at Gottenburgh; he departed from the latter, for the former, and the next day put into Maido in Norway, where he ſtaid ſeven days, and then a favourable wind offering, he left it, and in the evening arrived at Fleekery, where he lay upwards of three weeks, when a convoy, conſiſting of three men of war, from the Sound, arrived with near a hundred ſail of merchantmen, at about nine o'clock in the morning, before Fleekery, and ſent a yawl in, and made ſignals by firing guns, for the ſhips to come out and join them.

Captain Ingram made all the haſte he could to get his ſhip out, which he did one of the firſt of the fourteen that went out at that time, it being then between eleven and twelve at noon, and the convoy, as near as he could gueſs, about two leagues a-head; as ſoon as he got out, the wind increaſed and blew hard; however, the captain made all the ſail he could after the convoy, and ſoon ſaw ſeveral ſhips a-head, and about ſix in the evening came up with the fleet, and about nine was up with or near the convoy, as he believes from the lights, but could not get to ſpeak to her; he continued amongſt the fleet, and about two or three o'clock in the morning, the gale of wind became more violent; however, at day-break, he found himſelf ſtill with the fleet, ſeveral ſhips being aſtern, others a-head, and ſome on each ſide of him, but it being thick and rainy weather, and blowing very hard, he could not at any time get an opportunity to ſpeak to the convoy for ſailing orders, although he uſed his utmoſt endeavours for that purpoſe from the time he left Fleekery, but the badneſs of the weather rendered it impoſſible for a boat to live in the ſea, or go from one ſhip to another; however, he proceeded, accompanying the other veſſels in the voyage, and the ſame day, between one and two o'clock at noon, a French privateer, who had lain to amongſt the reſt of the fleet, came up to him, and fired at him; upon which he defended himſelf, and kept a running fight till night, and the next morning the privateer renewed and continued his firing till between twelve and one o'clock at noon, when the captain's ſon being killed, and the carpenter and a boy wounded, and the ſhip very leaky, and her rigging and maſts very much damaged, with between three and four feet water in the hold, and about forty leagues from Flamborough Head, the captain ſtruck to the privateer, who ſent ſome of his men on board; but finding, after two or three hour's ſtay, ſhe was extremely leaky, and that they could not keep her free by the pumps from an increaſing water, they left her, and in all probability ſhe ſunk ſoon after; and the captain and all his company, except his ſon who was killed, were carried aboard the privateer, and kept there about twenty-four hours, and then he and his crew, except the carpenter and boy which were wounded, were put on board a Dutch fly-boat, where they remained fifteen days, and were then landed at the Texel.

From the preceding ſtate of the caſe, the plaintiff argues his *inſurance* is due, as the captain could not expect convoy but at Fleekery, and made all poſſible diſpatch to get out to it, as ſoon as he heard it was off that place, as he did all imaginable diligence to join it, and procure ſailing orders; but this being rendered impracticable by the great ſwell that run, he could only continue in the fleet, till a more favourable opportunity offered for his obtaining ſuch inſtructions, which, it is probable, would have occurred had he not been ſoon taken.

The defendant, in reply, inſiſts that he is not obliged for the loſs, as the contents of the policy have not been complied with, the ſhip being warranted to ſail from Gottenburgh or Wingoe, with convoy, which ſhe did not; and as ſhe went to Fleekery, ſhe ſhould have ſtaid there till ſome convoy had offered, in whoſe company ſhe might have departed, which cannot be ſaid in the preſent caſe, as here ſhe departed in order to get under convoy, not with it; nay, it is uncertain whether he ever ſaw it, as the captain only ſuppoſes he did, from the lights; beſides, here was only a premium paid adequate to the riſque of coming with convoy, for had the policy been filled up, without convoy, the defendant would not have underwrote her on the terms he did.

*The jury found a verdict for the plaintiff.*

The plaintiff [*Spencer* a *Franco*, tried at Guildhall the 15th of December, 1736, cor. Hardwicke] cauſed himſelf to be inſured, on the Prince Frederick, from Vera Cruz to London, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage.

The ſhip was afterwards ſeized, by order of the viceroy of Mexico, and the Spaniards turned her into a man of war, called her the St. Philip, and ſent her as commodore, with a ſquadron of Spaniſh men of war to the Havanna, they having firſt taken out the South-Sea company's arms, and made ſeveral alterations in her, and there was a war between England and Spain, and Gibraltar was actually beſieged by the Spaniards.

The defendants proved the ſigning of preliminary articles of peace, before the ſeizure of the ſhip, and therefore inſiſted, that this ſeizure did not alter the property, and conſequently the defendants were not liable, for if the property was not altered, this *inſurance*, made by the plaintiff, who had no intereſt, cannot bind, as nothing comes within the policy but a total loſs, and though there be thoſe general words in the policy, *reſtraint or detainment by princes*, Hardwicke, C. J. declared; firſt, that a war might begin without an actual declaration by proclamation, as in this caſe, by laying ſiege to Gibraltar, a garriſon town; though there might be depredations at ſea between princes in amity, for which letters of marque, &c. might be granted; ſecondly, as a war may begin with hoſtilities only, ſo it may end by a ceſſation of arms; and theſe preliminary articles being ſigned before the ſeizure of the ſhip, and there being a ceſſation of arms, he thought the ſhip being taken afterwards, not to be a taking by the enemies, unleſs the jury took the caption to begin from the time the arms were ſeized, which was before the articles, and that was left to the jury; thirdly, ſuppoſing the ſhip not taken by enemies, *qu.* whether this detention for near the ſpace of a year, was in thoſe ſorts of policies, viz. intereſt or no intereſt, a detention within the policy, or whether in ſuch policies, the inſurers are ever liable, but in caſe of a total loſs; and if ſo, this ſhip being afterwards reſtored, then he directed the jury to find for the defendant; this he ſaid depended on the cuſtom or uſage among merchants, *and the jury gave a verdict for the defendant*, but did not declare upon what point; but they muſt be of opinion, ſhe was not ſeized in time of war, and that therefore the policy being intereſt or no intereſt, the aſſurers were not liable, becauſe there was no total loſs.

In this caſe, the *inſurance* was made by one Deflores for the plaintiff, and Deflores wrote his name on the policy, and before the trial, it was filled up with theſe words, *I made this for the benefit of Spencer*, and no date, and it was admitted the action was well brought by *ceſtui que truſt*.

On the fourth of July, 1765, was tried at Guildhall before lord Mansfield, an action upon a policy of *inſurance*, againſt an underwriter on goods ſhipped in a general ſhip, at Montſerrat, for London: when it appearing that the ſaid ſhip was not ſea-worthy to undertake the voyage, the cauſe was determined in favour of the inſurer. By this

determination it appears, that when a ſhip is inſufficient to proceed upon the inſured voyage, all policies of *inſurance*, (whether on the ſhip or goods) are diſcharged; and that ſhippers of goods muſt reſort to the owners of ſhips for a ſatisfaction for the injury they ſuſtain by loſſes, occaſioned from the inſufficiency of ſhips. And it is hoped this will have the good effect of making owners of ſhips more attentive to the goodneſs of their ſhips employed in trade, and thereby prevent very heavy loſſes.

*Note*, That an inſurer is never obliged for more than ninety-eight *per cent.* except by a new contract or commiſſion to the original obligation.

Having mentioned the various branches of *inſurance* engaged in by our underwriters, we ſhall only ſubjoin to what we have ſaid about them, the copy of a policy on goods, (thoſe on ſhip and goods, or ſhip only, and this again either outwards or homewards, or out and home, or to one certain port, only differing in the aforeſaid circumſtances) and one on lives, as theſe we hope will be thought ſufficient.

In the name of God, *Amen*,
as well as in his own name, as for and in the name and names of all and every other perſon or perſons to whom the ſame doth, may, or ſhall appertain, in part or in all, doth make aſſurance, and cauſeth himſelf and them, and every of them, to be inſured, loſt or not loſt,
upon any kind of goods and merchandizes whatſoever, loaden or to be loaden aboard the good ſhip or veſſel, called the
whereof is maſter, under God, for this preſent voyage,
or whoſoever elſe ſhall go for maſter in the ſaid ſhip, or by whatſoever other name or names the ſame ſhip, or the maſter thereof, is or ſhall be named or called; beginning the adventure upon the ſaid goods and merchandizes, from, and immediately following the leading thereof aboard the ſaid ſhip
and ſo ſhall continue and endure, until the ſaid ſhip, with the ſaid goods and merchandizes whatſoever, ſhall be arrived at
and the ſame there ſafely landed; and it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid ſhip, in this voyage, to ſtop and ſtay at any ports or places whatſoever without prejudice to the inſurance; the ſaid goods and merchandizes, by agreement, are and ſhall be valued at
without further account to be given by the aſſured for the ſame. Touching the adventures and perils which we the aſſurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in this voyage; they are of the ſeas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettizons, letters of mart and counter mart, ſurpriſals, takings at ſea, arreſt, reſtraints and detainments of all kings, princes and people, of what nation, condition, or quality ſoever; barretry of the maſter and mariners, and of all other perils, loſſes, and misfortunes, that have or ſhall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the ſaid goods and merchandizes, or any part thereof. And in caſe of any loſs or misfortune, it ſhall be lawful to the aſſured, their factors, ſervants and aſſigns to ſue, labour, and travel for, in and about the defence, ſafe-guard, and recovery of the ſaid goods and merchandizes, or any part thereof, without prejudice to this inſurance; to the charges whereof we the aſſurers will contribute each one according to the rate and quantity of his ſum herein aſſured. And it is agreed by us the inſurers, that this writing or policy of aſſurance ſhall be of as much force and effect as the ſureſt writing or policy of aſſurance heretofore made in Lombard-ſtreet, or in the Royal-Exchange, or elſewhere in London. And ſo we the aſſurers are contented, and do hereby promiſe and bind ourſelves, each one for his own part, our heirs, executors, and goods, to be aſſured, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for the true performance of the premiſes, confeſſing ourſelves paid the conſideration due unto us for this aſſurance by the aſſured at and after the rate of *per cent.* And in caſe of loſs (which God forbid) the aſſureds to abate pounds *per cent.*

In witneſs *whereof, we the aſſurers have ſubſcribed our names and ſums aſſured in London.*

*Life Policy*, N° 1249.

*By the governor and company of the London Aſſurance of houſes and goods from fire.*

In the name of God, *Amen*. A. B. of London, doth make aſſurance, and cauſeth himſelf to be aſſured upon his own natural life, with leave to go and reſide in France, aged fifty years, for and during the term and ſpace of twelve calendar months, to commence this ſixth day of December, in the year of our Lord, 1766, and fully to be compleat and ended; and it is declared, that this aſſurance is made to, and for the uſe, benefit, and ſecurity of the ſaid A. B. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, in caſe of the death of the ſaid A. B. within the time aforeſaid, which the above governor and company do allow to be a good and ſufficient ground, and inducement for the making this aſſurance, and do agree, that the life of him, the ſaid A. B. is and ſhall be rated and valued at the ſum aſſured, without any farther account to be given to them for the ſame; the ſaid governor and company therefore, for and in conſideration of ſeven pounds ſeven ſhillings *per cent.* to them paid, do aſſure, aſſume, and promiſe, that he, the ſaid A. B. ſhall, by the permiſſion of Almighty God, live and continue in this natural life for and during the ſaid term and ſpace of twelve calendar months, to commence as aforeſaid; or in default thereof, that is to ſay, in caſe he, the ſaid A. B. ſhall, in, or during the ſaid time, and before the full end and expiration thereof, happen to die, or deceaſe out of this world, by any ways or means whatſoever, that then the aboveſaid governor and company, will well and truly ſatisfy, content, and pay unto the ſaid A. B. his executors, adminiſtrators or aſſigns, the ſum or ſums of money by them aſſured, and here underwritten, abating two pounds *per cent.* hereby promiſing and binding themſelves and their ſucceſſors, to the aſſured, his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for the true performance of the premiſes, confeſſing themſelves paid the conſideration due unto them, for this aſſurance, by the aſſured. *Provided always*, and it is hereby declared, to be the true intent and meaning of this aſſurance, and this policy is accepted by the ſaid A. B. upon condition that the ſame ſhall be utterly void and of no effect, in caſe the ſaid A. B. ſhall exceed the age of fifty years, or ſhall voluntarily go to ſea, or into the wars by ſea or land, without licence in writing, firſt had or obtained for his ſo doing, any thing in theſe preſents to the contrary hereof in any wiſe notwithſtanding. In witneſs whereof, the ſaid governor and company have cauſed their common ſeal to be hereunto affixed, and the ſum or ſums by them aſſured, to be here underwritten, at their office in London, this ſixth day of December, in the ſixth year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George the Third, by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. *Annoque Dom.* 1766.

The ſaid governor and company are content with this aſſurance for three hundred pounds.

*By order of the court of directors.*

For the regulations of *inſurances* in *Holland*, ſee the title AMSTERDAM, where whatever relates to this point, is fully diſcuſſed.

Policies of *inſurance* in France are generally drawn up in the Regiſtry-Office of inſurances, in thoſe places where one is eſtabliſhed; and in thoſe places where there are none, the policies may be made either before a notary publick, or under a private firm.

In foreign places where French conſuls are ſettled, the policies of inſurance may be entered in the chancery of the conſulate, before two witneſſes, and all theſe policies muſt mention the name and place of abode of the inſured, his condition, whether proprietor or agent, and the goods or effects on which the inſurance is made; they muſt likewiſe contain the name of the ſhip and maſter, the place from whence the ſhip is to ſail, or ſhall have ſailed, of the ports where ſhe is to load and unload, and of all thoſe where ſhe is to touch; they muſt alſo expreſs the time when the riſques are to begin and finiſh, the ſums that are inſured, the premium given, the ſubmiſſion of the contracting parties to arbitration in caſe of diſpute, and all other

other clauſes in general on which they are agreed, according to the uſe and cuſtoms of the ſea; about all which his moſt Chriſtian majeſty publiſhed an ordinance in the month of Auguſt, 1681, where, at *Titre* 6, *du Livre* 3, every part of inſurance is fully directed.

Beſides the inſurances we have hitherto mentioned, others are made in France, called ſecret, or anonymous ones, which are performed by correſpondence with foreigners, even in time of war.

It is inſerted in the policies of this ſort of inſurance, that it is for a friend's account, whoſoever he may be, without naming the perſon; and in caſe the ſhip and merchandizes ſo inſured happen to be loſt, the aſſured muſt notify it, and his abandoning the inſurance (by an act in form) either by the regiſter, a notary, or bailiff, demanding payment of the ſums inſured (in conſequence of his relinquiſhing) in the time agreed by the policy.

Inſurances are made in many parts of France, particularly in moſt of the maritime towns; and lately a chamber of it was eſtabliſhed at Paris, with a fund of twelve millions of livres, in which ſome alterations were made not long ſince; but as the articles in their policies differ very little from the Dutch, we ſhall not enlarge on them, to avoid repetitions.

An office for inſurances was likewiſe lately eſtabliſhed at Stockholm; and another at Naples, with a capital of 100,000 crowns. And a company has been long ſettled at Copenhagen for this purpoſe; beſides which, large inſurances are made in Norway, and the terms generally the ſame as in Holland.

All policies muſt be made on ſtamped paper, and no inſurance permitted on life, wages, proviſions, ammunitions, or materials; only on ſhip and goods, and on theſe no more than nine-tenths of their real value.

The inſurers pay no average, on demurrage, or loſſes under three *per cent.* nor on wool, hemp, flax, ſugar, and ſtock-fiſh, under ten *per cent.* and the laws are ſo rigorous, that if the inſurance is made for above nine-tenths of the real value, the premium is ſunk, and the perpetrators ſuffer death.

When a policy on goods is ſigned, the underwriters are anſwerable for all damages they may receive, from the time of their carrying from the ſhore, until their being duly delivered on ſhore again; and if credit is given on the premium, it bears half *per cent.* intereſt *per* month.

On a loſs of ſhip or goods, the aſſured muſt have it notified to the inſurers, with full proofs; and if the latter do not pay the loſs within three months, he muſt pay the aſſured half *per cent.* monthly, from the time of the loſs being notified to him, until its diſcharge.

A ſhip bound to any part of Europe, and no news heard of her within a year and a day, the inſurance is due; and if the voyage is to any other part of the world, two years are allowed; and it is to be noted that a year and a day in law, is underſtood to be a year and ſix weeks.

If the voyage is altered, and premium returned, half *per cent.* is allowed the underwriters, as in other parts; and the inſurance in this country is void and the capital confiſcated, if not made on ſtamp paper.

Venice, Leghorn, Genoa, and many other places, have their underwriters, and pretty conſiderable inſurances are ſometimes made there.

INSURANCE-BROKER. Several of this buſineſs keep ſhops near the Royal-Exchange, in order to inſure ſhips and their cargoes, from being loſt, in ſailing from one port to another, by ſtorms, or taken either by pirates or a foreign enemy. Theſe brokers agree with the maſter of a ſhip, or the merchant, to inſure ſo many hundred or thouſand pounds on the ſhip and cargo at ſo much *per cent.* draw up the policy, and get one or more monied men to agree to the bargain, and ſign the policy, or inſtrument that contains the obligation. Thoſe, who thus ſign their names to it, are in the merchant's ſtile called underwriters.

INTEREST, a ſum of money which is reckoned for the loan and forbearance of ſome other ſum lent for, or due at, a certain time, according to a certain rate in the hundred pounds. The ſum lent or forborne is called the *principal*, becauſe it produces the *intereſt*, or from which the *intereſt* is reckoned. *Intereſt* is either *ſimple* or *compound*.

*Simple* INTEREST, is that which is paid for the loan of any principal or ſum of money lent out for ſome time at any rate *per cent.* agreed on between the borrower and the lender; which, according to the laws of England, ought to be but five pounds, for the uſe of one hundred pounds, for one year, and ten pounds for the uſe of one hundred pounds for two years. And ſo on for a greater or leſſer ſum, proportionable to the time propoſed. There are ſeveral ways of computing, or anſwering queſtions about ſimple intereſt; as by the ſingle and double rule of three; others make uſe of tables compoſed of ſeveral rates *per cent.*

But we ſhall ſhew that all computations, relating to ſimple intereſt, are grounded upon arithmetical progreſſion; and from thence raiſe ſuch general theorems, as will ſuit with all caſes. In order to this,

Let { P = any principal, or ſum put to intereſt.
R = the ratio of the rate *per cent. per annum.*
*t* = the time of the principal's continuing at intereſt.
A = the amount of the principal and its intereſt.

*Note*, The ratio of the rate is only the ſimple intereſt of one pound, for one year, at any given rate; and it is thus found:

*viz.* 100 : 5 :: 1 : 0,05 = the ratio, it five *per cent. per annum.*

And, if the time given be whole years, then *t* = the number of thoſe years: but if the time given be either pure parts of a year, or parts of a year mixed with years, thoſe parts muſt be turned into decimals; and then *t* = thoſe decimals, &c. Now the common parts of a year may be eaſily turned or converted into decimal parts, if it be conſidered.

That one { Day is the $\frac{1}{360}$ part of a year = 0.00274 *fere*
Month is the $\frac{1}{12}$ part of a year = .0833333, &c.
Quart. is the $\frac{1}{4}$ part of a year = .25

Theſe particulars premiſed, the theorems may be eaſily raiſed.

Let R = the intereſt of 1 l. for one year, as before
Then 2R = the intereſt of 1 l. for two years.
And 3R = the intereſt of 1 l. for three years.
4R = the intereſt of 1 l. for four years, and ſo on for any number of years propoſed.

Hence it is obvious, that the ſimple intereſt of one pound is a ſeries of terms in arithmetic progreſſion increaſing; whoſe firſt term and common difference is R, and the number of all the terms is *t*; therefore the laſt term will always be *t*R = the intereſt of pounds for any given term ſignified by *t*.

Then, as 1 l. : is to the intereſt of 1 l. : : ſo is any principal or given ſum : to its intereſt.

That is, 1 l. : *t*R : : P : *t*RP = the intereſt of P.—Then, the principal being added to the intereſt, their ſum will be = A, the amount required: which gives this general theorem.

(1.) Theorem *t*RP = A.

From whence the three following theorems are eaſily deducible.

Theorem (2.) $\frac{A}{tR+1} = P$. Theorem (3.) $\frac{A-P}{tP} = R$.

Theorem (4.) $\frac{A-P}{RP} = t$.

Theſe four theorems reſolve all queſtions about ſimple intereſt, which any one may apply, who is acquainted with the reduction of ſimple equations algebraically.

The annual intereſt of any ſum of money is found, by multiplying the principal ſum decimally, by the hundredth part of the rate of intereſt, the product being the anſwer.

If the rate of intereſt be 2 *per cent.* the hundredth part is .02; if $2\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* .025; if 3 *per cent.* 03; if $3\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* 035, &c.

EXAMPLES.

What is the intereſt of 75 l. for one year, at 3 *per cent.*?

75
.03

2.25 Anſwer, 2 l. 5 s.

What is the intereſt of 157 l. 17 s. 6 d. at 5 *per cent.*?

157.875
.05

7.89375 Anſwer, 7 l. 17 s. 10½ d.

What is the intereſt of 3635 l. at 4 *per cent.*?

3635
.04

145.40 Anſwer, 145 l. 8 s.

Thus the yearly intereſt of any ſum is found by one multiplication.

Daily intereſt is found, by dividing the annual intereſt by 365, the quotient being the anſwer.

Thus .05 being the intereſt of one pound for one year at five *per cent.* divided by 365, the quotient will be, .0001, 3698, 6301, &c. which is the intereſt of one pound for one day at the ſame rate.

The intereſt of one day being thus found, that intereſt multiplied by 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, &c. gives the intereſt of one pound for any number of days.

Example, at the ſaid rate of five *per cent.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The intereſt of 1 l. for one day, is | — | 0001, 3699 |
| Which mult. by 2 gives the intereſt for | 2 days | 0002, 7397 |
| 3 | 3 — | .0004, 1096 |
| 4 | 4 — | .0005, 4795 |
| 5 | 5 — | .0006, 8493 |
| 6 | 6 — | .0008, 2192 |
| 7 | 7 — | .0009, 5890 |
| 8 | 8 — | .0010, 9589 |
| 9 | 9 — | .0012, 3288 |
| 10 | 10 — | .0013, 6986 |
| 100 | 100 — | .0036, 9863 |

&c.

*Note*, That in contracting a decimal fraction, from many to fewer places, it is proper to add one to the laſt figure retained, if the next figure omitted exceed 5.

*Compound* INTEREST, is that which ariſes from any principal ſum, and its intereſt added together, as the intereſt becomes due; ſo that at every payment, or at the time when the payment becomes due, there is created a new principal, and for that reaſon it is called intereſt upon intereſt, or compound intereſt.

It is not lawful to let out money at compound intereſt; but in purchaſing annuities or penſions, &c. and taking leaſes in reverſion, it is very uſual to allow compound intereſt to the purchaſer for his ready money. *See* ANNUITIES, *where will be found whatever is requiſite for underſtanding* compound intereſt.

Bonds for cuſtoms, additional duties, &c. not paid according to the conditions thereof, to be chargeable with intereſt at 6 l. *per cent. per ann.* from the time due, till the actual payment, unleſs the treaſury ſhall judge it reaſonable to be remitted. 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 26.

Where an eſtate is deviſed for payment of debts, Chancery will not allow intereſt for book debts. 3 *Ch.* R. 94. *Dolman* v. *Pritman.*

Intereſt is recovered by way of damages, where damages are recovered *ratione detentionis debiti*; but not where damages only are recovered, for intereſt is not recovered *occaſione damnorum*; *per Powell* T. 2. *Salk* 623. *Hill* 10. W. III. *B. R. Sweatland* v. *Squire.*

A term was veſted in truſtees for payment of all debts he ſhould owe at his death, without prefering one before another; there were owing debts by bond and by ſimple contract. Lord C. Harcourt declared, that by this truſt term, the ſimple contract debts became as debts due to mortgage, and conſequently ſhould carry intereſt, as well as the debts ſecured by bond. *Wm's Rep.* 228, 229. *Tim.* 1713. *Car.* v. *Burlington (Counteſs.)*

Where by a general and national calamity, nothing is made out of lands which are aſſigned for payment of intereſt, it ought not to run on during the time of ſuch calamity. MS. *Tab.* cites 25 *June*, 1715. *Baſil* v. *Acheſon.*

A recognizance was entered into pay 100 l. a-year annuity to a third perſon. The annuity was in arrear ſeveral years. Decreed *per* Lord Cowper, that, the recognizance being in nature of a bond, the arrears were a debt ſecured thereby, and ſo muſt carry intereſt from the time they became reſpectively due. *Mich.* 3 *Geo.* I. *Equ.* R. 142. *Legaee* v. *Shewell.*

No intereſt to be allowed for coſts. MS. *Tab.* 6 *Feb.* 1719. *Butler* v. *Burk.*

Where exceſſive rates are allowed for work in reſpect of ſlow payment, there ſhould be no intereſt allowed; for intereſt is only allowed to ſupply the want of prompt payment. MS. *Tab.* cites 27 *Feb.* 1723. *Dutcheſs of Marlborough* v. *Strong.*

INVERNESS, abounds in iron, and with it its neceſſary concomitant, large woods of fir and oak; other parts of the ſhire are very fertile; and at the town of *Inverneſs*, there are manufactures of linen and plaids, whoſe weekly market is plentifully ſupplied with butter, cheeſe, and goats milk, though all very bad, and ſhamefully naſty in their kinds; up the river is a very great ſalmon fiſhery, which, when cured, are embarked at this town, being conveniently ſituated for trade.

INVOICE, *or* INVOYCE, in trade, an account of commodities, their value, cuſtoms, proviſion, charges, &c. ſent by a merchant to his factor, or correſpondent, in any other country.

*Book of* INVOICE, in book-keeping, a book to ſave the journal from the eraſures inevitable in taking accounts or *invoices* of the ſeveral goods received, ſent, or ſold: where it is neceſſary to be very particular, and to render thoſe *invoices* eaſier to find than they can be in the waſte-book. The *invoices*, here entered, are to be thoſe of goods bought, and ſet to account of ſome other; thoſe of goods ſold by commiſſion; of goods ſent away to be ſold on our account; and thoſe of goods ſold in partnerſhip; whereof we or others have the direction. After the date the narration is to begin thus: Shipped aboard the ſhip A. B. maſter, bound for the following goods, conſigned to for my account, or by order, and the account of Or, it may begin thus: *invoice* of goods ſhipped aboard, &c.

JOBBER, is uſed for one that buys or ſells cattle for others. *Stat.* 22 and 23 *Car.* II.

JOINER. The boy deſigned for the trade of a *joiner* ought, before he goes apprentice, to be well acquainted with geometry and menſuration, and to have ſome ingenuity and ſtrength of body. *Joiners* work requires a nicer hand, and greater taſte in ornaments than the carpenters; it alſo requires labour in the execution. The *Joiner* makes doors, ſaſh-window frames, and window ſhutters, wainſcots rooms, and is paid by ſo much a yard ſquare. They take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn half a crown a day. A maſter may ſet up with a hundred pounds; but if he is employed in large undertakings, he may ſoon want five times that ſum. Many of this buſineſs are alſo carpenters.

JOINT *Commiſſion and* JOINT *Creditors.* See BANKRUPTCY.

JOURNAL, in merchants accounts, a book into which every particular article is poſted out of the waſte-book. *See* BOOK-KEEPING.

JOURNAL, in ſea-affairs, a regiſter kept on board, wherein notice is taken of every thing that happens to the ſhip from day to day, and from hour to hour, with regard to the winds, courſes ſteered, lee-way, ſoundings, &c. in order to adjuſt the reckoning and determine the place where the ſhip is.

JOURNEYMAN, is properly a perſon who wrought with another by the day, though now by the ſtatute made 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. it is extended to thoſe likewiſe, who covenant to work with another in his trade or occupation by the year. By *ſtat.* 21 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5. *journeymen* are not to be reſtrained by oath or bond from ſetting up their trade.

IPECA-

English Miles
15 30 45 60
A New Map of IRELAND. from the best Observations.
ULSTER
CONNAUGH
LEINSTER
MUNSTER
IRISH SEA
ST. GEORGES CHANNEL
Londonderry C.
Antrim C.
Down C.
Tyrone C.
Fermanagh C.
Monaghan
Cavan C.
Sligo C.
Mayo C.
Letrim C.
Roscomon C.
Longford C.
Louth C.
E. Meath C.
W. Meath C.
Dublin
Kings C.
Queens C.
Kildare
Wicklow C.
Wexford C.
Carlow
Kilkenny C.
Tipperary C.
Waterford C.
Limrick C.
Corke C.
Kerry C.
Thomond or Clare C.
Galway
Dunnagall
Londonderry
Lough Foyle
Bay of Lough Foyle
Raghlin I
Fairhead
Aghave
Ballimony
Glenarm
Dunaby
Carrickfergus
Belfast
Lough Neagh
Lough Swilly
Tory I.
Inishowen
Malin Head
Swins Isds
Raphoe
Lifford
Strabane
Tyrone
Dungannon
Armagh
Newry
Dundalk
Drogheda
Trim
Navan
Kells
Athlone
Mullingar
Longford
Roscommon
Tuam
Galway
Athenry
Ennis
Limerick
Killaloe
Thomond
Clare
Killard
Kilrush
Tarbert
Ballybunnion
Tralee
Dingle
Dingle Bay
Valentia I.
Valentia Bay
Dursie I.
Bantry Bay
Dursey Head
Mizenhead
Cape Clear I.
Crook Haven
Castle Haven
Baltimore
Skibbereen
Bandonbridge
Kinsale
Cork Harb.
Old Head
Kinsale Bay
Corke
Mackromp
Youghall
Youghall Bay
Dungarvan
Dungarvan B.
Waterford
Tramore
Tramore B.
Passage
Clonmel
Carrick
Fethard
Cashell
Tipperary
Kilkenny
Callan
Thomastown
Gowran
Castlecomer
Leighlin Bridge
Carlow
Athy
Naas
Kildare
Maryborough
Portarlington
Edenderry
Philipstown
Trim
Drogheda
Dundalk
Carlingford
Carlingford Lough
Newry
Armagh
Monaghan
Cavan
Kilmore
Belturbet
Enniskillen
Lough Erne
Sligo
Sligo Harbour
Ballyshannon
Donegal
Donegal B.
Killybegs
Killybegs Harb.
Slieve League
Teelin Harb.
Teelin
Killybegs
Inishowen
Lough Foyle
Lough Swilly
Rathlin I
Carrickfergus
Belfast
Lough Neagh
Antrim
Connor
Glenarm
Ballycastle
Ballycastle Bay
Fair Head
Rathlin Island
Carrickfergus Bay
Belfast Lough
Strangford
Strangford Lough
Down
Ardglass
Dundrum
Newcastle
Mourne
Carlingford and Bay
Dundalk Bay
Drogheda
Dublin
Howth
Lambay I
Ireland's Eye
Malahide
Skerries
Balbriggan
Rogerstown
Swords
Naul
Ashbourne
Dunshaughlin
Navan
Kells
Athboy
Trim
Dunboyne
Maynooth
Celbridge
Leixlip
Lucan
Clondalkin
Rathcoole
Newcastle
Blessington
Baltinglass
Hollywood
Donard
Wicklow
Wicklow Head
Arklow
Arklow Bank
Gorey
Courtown
Courtown Harb.
Wexford
Wexford Harb.
Tuskard
Saltee I.
Hook Head
Waterford Harb.
Dunmore
Passage
Tramore
Tramore B.
Dungarvan
Dungarvan B.
Youghall
Youghall Bay
Cork Harb.
Kinsale
Kinsale Bay
Old Head
Corke
Mackromp
Bandonbridge

IPECACUANHA. This root, with reſpect to the places from which it is brought, is of two ſorts, Peruvian and Brazilian; but the eye diſtinguiſhes three ſorts, aſh-coloured, or grey, brown, and white. The grey, or Peruvian, *ipecacuanha*, is that uſually preferred in the ſhops, and ſhall only be taken notice of here: it is a ſmall wrinkled root, bent and contorted into all manner of figures, brought over in ſhort pieces, full of wrinkles, and deep circular fiſſures, quite down to a ſmall white fibre or nerve, which runs in the middle of each piece. The cortical part is compact, brittle, and looks ſmooth and reſinous upon breaking: it has very little ſmell, and a bitteriſh ſubacrid taſte. Geoffroy relates, that the powder of this root is ſo acrimonious, that it is apt to affect the perſon who reduces it to powder, without a great deal of precaution, in an extraordinary manner. At firſt, it occaſions a difficult reſpiration, ſpitting of blood, or an hæmorrhage from the noſe, with an inflammation and ſwelling of the eyes, face, and throat; which ſymptoms go off of themſelves in a few days, or are immediately relieved by venæſection. The decoction of this root in water is ſo mucilaginous and viſcid, as not to paſs through a cloth, unleſs forcibly expreſſed.

Eight ounces of good *ipecacuanha* yield about ten drams of reſin; and from the ſame quantity of the root may be obtained, by boiling it in water, three ounces and a half of a gummy extract. The reſinous extract acts as a powerful emetic; but the gummy has little effect this way, tho' it is of almoſt equal ſervice in dyſenteries with the root itſelf, while the other is of no uſe in theſe caſes. From theſe experiments Geoffroy concludes, that the chief virtue of *ipecacuanha* depends upon its gummy ſubſtance, which lining the inteſtines with a ſoft mucilage, when their mucus has been abraded, occaſions their exulcerations to heal, and defends them from the acrimony of the juices: and that the reſinous part, in which the emetic quality reſides, is required, when the morbific matter is lodged in the glands of the ſtomach and inteſtines. However, he prefers the root in ſubſtance to any of its preparations; and ſays, that he has found ten grains of the powder to act as effectually as one or two ſcruples, and therefore confines the doſe of this medicine to between ſix and ten grains. With regard to preventing relapſes in dyſenteries, this celebrated author informs us, that after he had ſufficiently purged and vomited his patient with *ipecacuanha*, he exhibited every day a few grains, divided into ſeveral doſes, ſo as to occaſion no ſenſible evacuation, and that by this method, the cure was eſtabliſhed.

IRELAND is divided into four provinces, viz. Connaught, Leinſter, Munſter, and Ulſter; and theſe again ſubdivided into counties, of which Connaught contains Galloway, Letrim, Mayo, Roſcommon, Slego, and Thomond. Leinſter conſiſts of Catherlagh, Dublin, Eaſt-Meath, Kildare, Kilkenny, King's county, Longford, Queen's county, Weſt-Meath, Wexford, and Wicklow. Munſter is compoſed of Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford. Ulſter contains Armagh, Antrim, Cavan, Down, Donnegal, Fermanagh, Londonderry, Louth, Monaghan, and Tyrone; all which may be ſeen in their alphabetical order.

The products and commodities of Ireland, are cattle, hides, tallow, ſuet, great quantities of butter and cheeſe, wood, ſalt, honey, wax, furs, hemp, linnen and woollen cloth, frizes, vaſt ſtore of wool, coarſe rugs, pipe-ſtaves, hoops, ſalmon, herrings, pilchards, lead, tin, and iron: ſo that the products of Ireland are ſimilar to thoſe of Great Britain, and their manufactures would be ſo too, were they not reſtrained by act of parliament from interfering with thoſe of this kingdom; tho' theſe limitations the Iriſh highly complain of, and deem themſelves too ſeverely treated in being denied to export any of their wollens but to England only.

They poſſeſs the principles of the woollen manufacture, *viz.* wool, fuller's earth, &c. in as great a degree of perfection as we, and the cheapneſs of their living gives them vaſtly the advantage in working them up, both in reſpect of the value of the materials, and the price of labour; ſo that were not their exports thus prohibited, their commerce would greatly claſh with ours, and this interference prove prejudicial to both; therefore to alleviate this ſeeming hardſhip, as far as a prudential care of our own trade will ſuffer, the Iriſh are permitted, not only to introduce their wool here, but to import their yarn alſo, which they annually do to the amount of forty thouſand packs; and tho' this reſtriction undoubtedly contracts their trade, and reduces it into a much narrower compaſs, than would otherwiſe bound it; yet this being the only one they are burdened with of ſuch a nature, their foreign trade is very conſiderable, notwithſtanding it is confined to the mere produce of their land, and linen-looms; the firſt of theſe conſiſts chiefly in beef, pork, butter, leather, tallow, and corn, and for the diſpatch of what is ſuperfluous, and unconſumed at home, they have different channels, viz. to Flanders, and the Low-Countries, they ſend butter, tallow, and leather, in great quantities, more eſpecially of the former. France, and the Britiſh colonies, take off large parcels of their barrelled beef, as theſe latter do now of their linens, which are alſo permitted importation here duty free; ſo that many millions of yards are annually brought in. They likewiſe ſend yearly good ſtore of pilchards and herrings to Spain and Portugal; ſo that their exports, tho' deprived of any woollen mixture, are very great.

Hemp, or flax, and any manufacture made thereof in Ireland, may be imported by Britiſh or Iriſh directly into Great Britain, free of all duties, upon certificate of the officers of the port where ſhipped, expreſſing the marks, number, tale, or weight of the ſpecies in each bale or parcel mentioned in the bill of lading, with the name and place of abode of the exporter from Ireland, and of the perſon who ſhall have ſworn that the goods are the manufacture of Ireland, and where and to whom in England conſigned; and oath of the maſter, that the goods are the ſame mentioned in ſuch certificate. 7 & 8 *Wil.* III. *c.* 39. *ſ.* 1. 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 6.

Wrought ſilks, ſtuffs, &c. muſlins and callicoes of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China, or Perſia, may not be imported there, but from Great Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ſhip, furniture, &c.

Officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland conniving thereat, &c. forfeit five hundred pounds, and are rendered incapable. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 12.

No ſugars, panelles, ſyrups or molaſſes of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or ſpirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his majeſty's ſugar colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great-Britain in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip and all her furniture; but not to extend to reſtrain the importation of ſugars of the produce of any of the dominions of the king of Spain or Portugal, from any place from whence they might have been lawfully imported before. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4, 13.

Any perſon aſſiſting in the unlawful landing, or receiving any of the aforeſaid goods ſo landed, are to forfeit treble their value; and for obſtructing officers, fifty pounds, and to ſuffer three months impriſonment.

Any officer conniving at ſuch illegal landing, or making colluſive ſeizures, is to forfeit fifty pounds, and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 5, 6.

Maſters of ſhips (being his majeſty's ſubjects) receiving any of the aforeſaid goods on board, in order to land the ſame contrary to the true intent of this act, to forfeit one hundred pounds. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 7.

Such offences and forfeitures may be proſecuted and recovered in any of the courts of record at Weſtminſter, or in Dublin, at the option of the informer or proſecutor, within two years after the offence. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4, 11.

The *onus probandi* to lie upon the claimer or owner of the goods. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 8.

No glaſs of any kind or denomination, other than the manufacture of Great-Britain, may be imported into Ireland, upon forfeiture thereof, and of the ſhip, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and ten ſhillings for every pound weight by the maſter of the ſhip, and every other perſon concerned or aſſiſting in importing or landing it, and the glaſs to be deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 22.

The maſter of every ſhip which ſhall carry any kind of glaſs to Ireland muſt, before he is permitted to ſail out of the port of Great-Britain, take from, and under the hands and ſeals of, the collector or comptroller thereof, a duplicate-

cate of his contents in writing of all the glaſs taken on board, which is to be delivered him without fee; and upon his arrival at the port in Ireland where he intends to unlade, he muſt deliver upon oath ſuch duplicate to the collector, comptroller, or other officer of the cuſtoms there, before he is permitted to land ſuch glaſs: for landing ſuch glaſs before the duplicate is ſo produced, the penalty is the ſame as in the foregoing article. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 23.

No glaſs of any kind may be exported from Ireland, or laden upon any horſe, cart, or other carriage, or on board any veſſel, in any place belonging to the kingdom of Ireland, with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture of the glaſs, and of ten ſhillings for every pound weight by every perſon concerned or aſſiſting therein, and alſo of every ſhip or veſſel, barge, boat, or other bottom, on board which it was laden, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture; and the glaſs to be deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 24.

Offences againſt this act, relating to the exportation and importation of glaſs, are to be heard and determined by the commiſſioners and ſub-commiſſioners of exciſe, in their reſpective diſtricts in Ireland; who may proceed in a ſummary way, and give judgment, and levy the penalties and forfeitures in ſuch manner, as they may in caſe of exciſe in Ireland. 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 25.

IRISH SLATE, in natural hiſtory, a foſſil of the ſlate kind impregnated with allum, and that in ſo ſtrong a manner as very well to deſerve the name of an allum ore, and often containing alſo a portion of vitriol. It is a coarſe and rough ſlate, of a ſofter and more friable texture than moſt of the other ſtones of that claſs, and of a duſky blackiſh colour, and remarkably heavy. It is compoſed, like the other ſlates, of a multitude of thin flakes, laid even and regularly over one another; but in this they are leſs firmly united than in the others, whence it is the moſt eaſily fiſſile of all the kind; and, were it not more brittle than the reſt and apt to ſhatter to pieces when expoſed to the weather, it would be the moſt convenient in the world for covering buildings. Applied to the tongue, it has a manifeſtly aſtringent taſte, and when examined ſtrictly, eſpecially when it has for ſome time been left in the air, there will often be found ſhort, downy efflorescences of a true *alumen plumoſum* on ſeveral parts of it. It will not be diſſolved by any acid, but, thrown into water, it parts with its ſalt, which may be afterwards ſeparated by cryſtallization into pure allum. If calcined in a common fire, it becomes of a pale red. It is found in great abundance in many parts of Ireland, as alſo in ſeveral of our own counties; it generally lies near the ſurface, and conſtitutes thick ſtrata.

It is given in powder, as a ſtyptic, in all kinds of hæmorrhages with ſucceſs. It is no wonder, indeed, that an ore of allum, with the advantage of ſome vitriol, as is frequently the caſe, among it, ſhould have theſe virtues; but perhaps it would be full as prudent for the perſon, who knows to what ſalt or ſalts it is that the foſſil owes its power in medicine, to give thoſe ſalts alone in a doſe that he can depend upon, and without the load of uſeleſs earthy matter, that they are mixed with in this ſubſtance.

IRON, in natural hiſtory, a hard, fuſible, and malleable metal, of great uſe in human life.

It has pleaſed the beneficent Creator of all things to make this metal common to all parts of the world, and plentiful in moſt: for this reaſon it is happily of ſmall price; but, if we look upon it with an eye to its utility, either in the common affairs of life, or medicine, it is found to be greatly ſuperior, in real value, to the deareſt of the others.

*Iron* is the leaſt heavy of all the metals except tin; but though almoſt the lighteſt, it is conſiderably the hardeſt of them all. It is, when pure, naturally malleable and ductile under the hammer, but that in a leſs degree than either gold, ſilver, lead, or copper; when wrought into ſteel, or when in the impure ſtate from its firſt fuſion, in which it is called *caſt iron*, it is ſcarce malleable at all: the moſt ductile *iron* in the world alſo, on being only heated and ſuddenly quenched in cold water, loſes much of this quality.

*Iron*, notwithſtanding the act of 28 *Edw.* III. *cap.* 5. may be exported by any perſon, 5 and 6 *Will.* III. *c.* 17. *ſect.* 2.

Armour, bandeliers, bridle-bits, halbert-heads, and ſharps, holſters, muſquets, carbines, fowling-pieces, piſtols, pike-heads, ſword or rapier-blades, ſaddles, ſnaffles, ſtirrups, calve-ſkins dreſſed or undreſſed, geldings, oxen, ſheep-ſkins dreſſed without the wool, and all ſorts of manufactures made of leather, may be exported by any perſons. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 11.

Pig iron, made in and imported from the Britiſh colonies in America, may be imported into any port of Great-Britain; and bar iron, made in and imported from the ſaid colonies, may be imported into the port of London, free of all duties, under the following regulations. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 1.

The perſon ſhipping the pig or bar iron in America muſt, before clearing out the veſſel for Great-Britain, make oath before the governor, collector, and comptroller of the Cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, that the iron ſo ſhipped, expreſſing the true weight, was made at —— within the colony of ——, with the name of the perſon to whom ſold or conſigned. Thereupon the ſaid officers are to grant a certificate, under the hands and ſeals of office, of ſuch oath having been made before them. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 5.

The ſaid pig or bar iron muſt alſo be ſtamped with a mark denoting the colony where it was made, and the certificate above-mentioned muſt be produced to the chief officer of the Cuſtoms at the place of importation, and oath made before him by the commander of the veſſel, that the iron ſo imported is the ſame mentioned in the certificate, otherwiſe to be chargeable with the duties as before. 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 6, 7.

For falſely making ſuch certificate, the penalty is forfeiture of two hundred pounds, loſs of office, and being incapable of ſerving his majeſty; for falſely making the oaths above-mentioned, the offender incurs the puniſhment by law for wilful and corrupt perjury; and for counterfeiting the ſtamp or certificate, the puniſhment by law for forgery. The penalties for falſely making ſuch ſtamps or certificates recoverable in any court of record at Weſtminſter or America, or in the Exchequer in Scotland reſpectively, where the offender ſhall dwell when the offence was committed, or information, &c. brought; and every information, &c. brought in Great-Britain, is to be laid either in the county where the offence was committed, or where the offender dwells when the information, &c. is brought. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 8, 11.

Bar iron imported into the port of London by virtue of this act, is to be entered at the Cuſtom-houſe, and ſtamped with ſuch mark as the commiſſioners ſhall direct in three different parts of each bar, that is, two at the diſtance of a yard from each end, and one in the middle. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 13.

Such bar iron may not be exported or carried coaſtwiſe, except for the uſe of his majeſty's dock-yards, on forfeiture thereof, together with the veſſel; and the perſon exporting, or ſending it coaſtwiſe, the maſter of the veſſel and mariners are ſubject to the ſame penalties as in caſe of being laden with prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, or goods clandeſtinely imported or exported: and any officer of the Cuſtoms granting a cocket, or other warrant for ſuch purpoſe, forfeits two hundred pounds, and is to loſe his office, and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty, and the cocket, &c. to be void. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 2.

Such bar iron may not be conveyed by land to any place beyond ten miles from any part of the port of London, except to his majeſty's dock-yards and for his uſe, on forfeiture of twenty ſhillings *per* hundred weight by the perſon conveying it, or cauſing it ſo to be conveyed. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29 *ſ.* 4.

For counterfeiting, deſtroying, or defacing the ſtamps, with intent to convey the iron ten miles from the port of London, the penalty is a hundred pounds. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 14.

No bar iron may be carried coaſtwiſe, unleſs mention is made in the certificate of the day on which the duties were paid at importation, and by whom. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 3.

All the regulations of this act of the 23d of *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. as far as they relate to the importation of bar iron, made in any of his majeſty's colonies in America, into the port of London free of duty, are extended to ſuch iron imported into any port of Great-Britain.

But

But the clauſe in the ſaid act not permitting bar iron to be carried coaſtwiſe, unleſs mention be made in the certificate granted for that purpoſe, of the day when, and the name of the perſon by whom the duties were paid.

And the clauſe prohibiting carrying by land bar iron imported into London beyond ten miles from any part of the ſaid port; and ſo much of the ſaid act as relates to the ſtamping of bar iron in the port of London, imported from any of his majeſty's colonies in America, are repealed by 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 1, 2, 3, 4.

Bar iron may be imported from Ireland. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 17.

No drawback of cuſtoms on exporting foreign wrought iron. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 12.

No drawback on iron or ſteel imported and afterwards exported to the plantations. 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 5.

Trade with Spain in unwrought iron permitted. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 63.

Iron works charged with the land-tax. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 4.

IRON-HOOP MAKER. This is a claſs of ſmiths ſolely employed in making iron hoops for large veſſels belonging to the brewers and diſtillers. It is a laborious buſineſs, and requires no extraordinary abilities. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, if he has fifty or ſixty pounds, may, when out of his time, ſet up maſter.

IRON-FOUNDER. This work requires both ſtrength and ingenuity. They are employed in caſting backs for ſtove-grates, flat ſmothing irons, &c. They take about ten pounds with an apprentice; and require about a hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

IRONMONGER. This trade requires no other education, but that neceſſary for all tradeſmen in general. Some of them deal only in iron and ſteel unwrought; but moſt of them ſell iron and braſs wrought up into almoſt innumerable materials, tools, and neceſſary implements; and ſome deal in both. They expect with an apprentice from thirty to a hundred pounds and upwards; to a head ſhop-man they give from twenty to fifty pounds a year and his board; and not leſs than five hundred pounds will ſet up one in a common way: but thoſe who keep forges or founderies, or deal in exportation, employ many thouſands.

ISING-GLASS. *See* ICHTHIOCOLLA.

ILE *of France*, the capital of which is Paris, where many manufactures are carried on, and afterwards brought into trade, of which ſome are exempt from the juriſdiction of the public companies of the city, and eſtabliſhed by royal authority; ſuch as the Gobelins, where as beautiful tapeſtries are made as any in Europe; the Savonnerie, appropriated to the making of carpets, with a mixture of ſilk and worſted, in imitation of thoſe brought from Perſia, the beauty of whoſe colours they come up to, and greatly exceed them in the figure. The manufactures of glaſſes, cloths, hangings, &c. beſides which the artificers here carry on all manner of trades that are practiſed in our metropolis; though it is with pleaſure we can aſſert, not many of them with equal perfection: here are, however, made all ſorts of rich ſilks, brocades, &c. ſtockings, hats, and every other requiſite for home conſumption and trade; and almoſt all the ſmall towns, villages, and diſtricts in the neighbourhood of Paris, have ſome fabric peculiar to them; as Madrid (a caſtle built by Francis I. in Boulogne Wood) for ſtockings; St. Cloud, for porcelane, earthen ware, glaſs, and tanneries; Gentilly, Garges, and Antony, are noted for whitſters; at Ferté Gaucher is a manufactory of ſerges; Compeigne affords ſtockings, ſocks, and caps; as Margny does cloths, camblets, and ſhags; at Houdon are made a conſiderable quantity of worſted ſtockings; at Dreux is a fabric of coarſe cloth, and at Châtres, Linas, Meulan, Seſanne, Poiſy, Claye, Luſarche, Moret, and Dourdan, large parcels of leather are tanned, and this laſt is famous for knit ſtockings, and making buff.

ISLE *of Man*, See MAN.

ISLE *of St. Thomas*, is ſeated in the North Sea, at fifteen leagues diſtance from Porto Rico, and is the only colony that the Danes have in the Weſt-Indies. The Hamburghers have alſo a factory here, from whence they carry on ſome trade with the Antilles.

The products of this iſle are but little, for though ſome ſugar and indigo are gathered here, they would not be capable alone to ſupport the inhabitants, if they found not in their ſituation a reſource elſewhere, from whence to procure, not only a ſupport, but to ſet forward an advantageous commerce, conſiſting principally in the negro and contraband trade carried on with the Spaniards: their having made their iſle a free port likewiſe greatly contributes to their benefit, as it attracts the buſineſs of all the illicit traders in thoſe parts.

ISLES *of Aſia*. The Aſiatic iſles are the Maldives, which firſt preſent themſelves in the direct route from Europe to the famous Cape Comorin; thoſe of Ceylon and Manar, which almoſt touch the cape. The three iſles of the Sund, viz. Sumatra (in which is the kingdom of Achen, and ſeveral others) Java, ſo celebrated for that of Bantam, and yet more for the famous city of Batavia; and the iſle of Borneo. The Philippines, called the Manillas. The Moluccas, ſo fruitful in ſpice. The Ladrones, which are in the track from America to India by the South Sea, and the iſles of Japan, from whence all European nations are excluded except the Dutch. Of the trade of theſe iſles the reader may ſee an account in their alphabetical order.

ISPAHAN, is the chief city of Perſia, and the center of its commerce; it is from thence that the caravans ſet out for carrying the goods to Bender-Abaſſi, which the factors of foreign nations reſiding here have purchaſed for ſhipping. And it is here, where many yearly arrive, both from within and without the kingdom, as from Schiras, Laor, Aleppo, Bagdat, Herat, Baſſora, and all thoſe from the Levant; and there are few cities, where trade attracts ſo large a number of ſtrangers as this; of which the moſt conſiderable are the Armenians of Zulfa, [*ſee* ARMENIANS] a colony which Abas the Great eſtabliſhed in one of the ſuburbs; and the Indians, of which here are more than a thouſand, who have their ſhops in the Meidan, or market, next the Perſians.

Here are alſo ſettled (though leſs numerous) Engliſh, French, Dutch, Italians, Spaniards, Tartars, Arabians, Turks, Georgians, Perſians, (from all the provinces of the empire) and Jews.

There are no ſorts of goods which may not be found in Iſpahan; but the greateſt trade it drives is in ſilk, of which an almoſt incredible quantity is annually gathered in Perſia. The provinces which produce moſt, are Guillan, Meſanderan, Media, Bactria, Caramania, and Georgia, which all together may produce about twenty-two thouſand bales (of two hundred and ſeventy-ſix pounds each) with an appearance of its yearly increaſing.

This ſilk is diſtinguiſhed into four ſorts, viz. Chirvan (ſo called from Chirvan in Media, near the Caſpian Sea, and in Europe Ardaſſe) Karvary, or Legis, (gathered at Legiam, a ſmall town of Guillan) Ked-Coda-Penſend, or Bourgeoiſe, and Charbaſſe, or Brocard. Of all which ſilks, it is ſaid not above a thouſand bales are uſed in the Perſian manufactories, and the reſt ſold for tranſportation to Turkey, India, and all parts of Europe and Aſia.

The manufacture of ſtuffs in Perſia are on a footing with thoſe in Europe, excepting cloths, of which here is no fabric eſtabliſhed, and the Perſian manufacturers make of felt (which they underſtand the working up, as well as any people) ſome cloaks, and common carpets to cover the fine ones, for which they are juſtly ſo famous.

A very great trade is drove in Perſia with cloths from Europe, brought by the Engliſh and Dutch to Gamron, among which are likewiſe ſome French, more eſpecially thoſe of Berry and Uſſeau.

The ſtuffs that the Perſians moſt commonly make in their manufactures, are of wool, cotton, goats and camels hair, and above all, ſilk, with which they very often mix the three laſt materials. The ſpinning, winding, and milling, are ſimilar to what is practiſed in France at Lyons and Tours, and the Perſians are intelligent in the uſe of the diſtaff, ſpindle, reel, and mills, which ſerve in the ſaid two cities, for the ſilk's preparation.

The ſtuffs they make of pure ſilk, are taffeties, tabbies, ſattins, gros de Tours, turbants, ribbons, and handkerchiefs. They make alſo brocades, gold tiſſues, and gold velvets, of which laſt ſort ſome coſt fifty tomans the gueſe, or Perſian aun, which comes to about five pounds ſterling *per* Engliſh yard, and is certainly the deareſt in the world. The fineſt Perſian carpets are made in the province of Kirman,

man, especially at Siftan; and among the ftuffs made of filk only, there are many painted with various defigns, and fome heightened with gold and filver, applied with moulds and gum-water, which they underftand fo well performing, as to make them almoft appear true brocades.

The woollen manufactures, or thofe made of camels hair, are for the moft part eftablifhed at Yefde, Kirman, and Mongnav; the wools of Kirman being the fineft in the world. The goats hair ftuffs are made in Hircania, and refemble baragons, the fineft coming from Dourak in the Perfian gulf.

The other goods, which the Perfians fend abroad befides their filks and ftuffs, are porcelanes, feathers, Morocco leather, cotton wool, or thread, chagrin of all colours, tobacco, galls, matts, baskets, things wrought in box, iron and fteel of Caſbin, and Korafan; furs, lapis lazuli, (which comes from the Uſbecks, but of which Perfia is the ftorehoufe) perfumes, efpecially ambergreafe and muſk, (both productions ftrangers to Perfia, but found here in great abundance, the one brought from India and the Red Sea, and the other from Tibet) pearls from the Perfian gulf, turquoifes, all forts of fpices brought by the Dutch to Bender-Abaffi, faffron the beft in the world, particularly that from the coafts of the Caſpian Sea, and Amadan, allum, brimftone, diftilled waters of orange flowers, rofes, &c. glafs, cryftal, divers animals fkins prepared at Schiras, coffee brought there from Arabia. In fine, variety of medicinal drugs and gums, which either grow or are brought here; and among the products of Perfia, and as part of her merchandize, the excellent wines of Schiras and Yefd, fhould not be forgotten, as the Perfians do not conſume the whole themſelves (though the great men here are very much given to inebriety, notwithftanding the Alcoran's prohibition) but they are tranſported annually, to a very conſiderable value, all over Indoſtan, and even to China. Piſtachoes and almonds grow plentifully in Yefd, Caſbin, and Sultania; and of camels, horſes, mules, and lambs, large quantities are yearly ſent into the dominions of the grand ſeignior, Indoſtan, and other parts of Aſia. All that has been here ſaid of the trade of Perfia muſt be regarded as a deſcription of it, before the revolution in 1721; and as the troubles in that kingdom ſtill continue, the commerce there is not only interrupted, but in a manner loſt, eſpecially to the Europeans, and muſt remain ſo, till peace (the parent of it) reſtores tranquility, and places trade on the footing it formerly was.

ITALY, we ſhall here only take notice of the trade of Great-Britain with this country, the trade of its ſeveral ſtates and diſtricts being deſcribed under their reſpective articles.

Venice, Naples, Sicily, Genoa, Leghorn, Ancona, &c. are the moſt conſiderable maritime parts of *Italy*, that carry on the moſt extenſive trade, and where the greateſt number of ſhips arrive.

Turin, Milan, Florence, Bologna, Modena, Reggio, Parma, and Lucca, are alſo deeply engaged in commerce; but as they are ſituated within land, they are obliged to the aſſiſtance of the maritime ones for carrying it on; and as the commodities ſent from thence to them, are in a manner alike to all, we have joined them together, and intend to treat of the Italian trade, as if the whole had been one kingdom, and not ſubject to ſeparate princes.

The trade of *Italy* has been generally reckoned at a million and a half to two millions ſterling *per annum*; thoſe that made it moſt, have not exceeded the laſt ſum; and thoſe who have made it leaſt, have never put it under the former, and occaſionally it may be much more, as in the laſt war, and according as their harveſts prove good or bad.

Our exports to *Italy* are, all ſorts of cloths and other woollens, hats, hoſe, ſilk, mixt and wrought, horological works, and watches, gunpowder, leather, pewter, braſs, tin, lead, ſhot, cochineal, coney-wool, coals, refined, clayed and muſcovada ſugars, redwood, logwood, brazil wood, litharge of lead, lanthorn leaves, butter, cheeſe, coffee, hugles, tobacco, ginger, jeſuit's bark, indigo, pepper, pimento, rhubarb, ſarſaparilla, and other drugs, China ware, calicoes and other Indian goods, glaſs and earthern ware, pipes, wrought plate, and (when their harveſt fails) corn; herrings, ſalmon, pilchards, ſtockfiſh, poorjack, &c. And in return, the ſtate of Venice ſends us currants, hemp, brimſtone, glaſs beads of different ſorts and ſizes, many drugs, ſometimes rice, oil, &c. Naples remits here large quantities of Belvidere and Lipari fruit, oil, brimſtone, manna from Calabria, argol, eſſence, &c. And from Palermo, the capital of Sicily, and Meſſina, a place of ſtill greater trade there, we receive chiefly ſilks, ſalt, ſome wine, argol, cantharides, juice of liquoriſh, ſumach, manna, and hemp. Genoa makes returns principally in paper, velvets, damaſks, tabbies, and brocades, (though not ſo much of any of theſe articles as formerly,) oil, marble, roch allum, lemons, eſſences and perfumes, vermicelli, rice, coral, cotton, &c. From Leghorn we receive oil (of Gallipoli and Florence) wine, ſoap, ſtraw hats, cotton and cotton yarn, goats hair, and ſkins, ſumach, brimſtone, cream of tartar, valonica, marble, anchovies, ſoap, galls, juniper berries, olives, coral, and coral beads, verdigreaſe, argol, drugs, ſilks, thrown and raw, &c. all which occaſion a circulation in trade, well worthy our attention and regard, more eſpecially as it leaves a conſiderable balance in our favour.

### *Merchandize proper for* Italy.

Spice in general, which (except pepper) the Dutch have to themſelves, cacao, ginger, tea, porcelane, and other Indian curioſities, painted linens, chints, and painted ſuries. Sattins, damaſks, and other thin light Indian ſilks. Linens of divers ſorts, as muſlins, cambrics, hollands, fileſias, and oſnabrughs. Cloths, camblets, ſerges, and other ſtuffs, from England, France, and Holland. Silk ſtuffs from Lyons, mercery, hard ware and Ruſſia hides. Divers French modes for women's wear; white threads and tapes from Harlem and Flanders. Vermillion, and all ſorts of dying woods; madder and elephants teeth. Whalebone and oil, copper, braſs, iron, lead, and tin. Tar, pitch, and roſin, capers, muſk, amber, and civet. Herrings, ſmoked and pickled ſalmon, ſtockfiſh, poorjack, and pilchards. Pewter, ſteel, caviar, Languedoc and Provence wines, wheat and other grain. All ſorts of French merceries, laces, and gimps, of ſilk and ſilver. Silk ſtuffs, with gold and ſilver, from Lyons and Tours, and ribbons, particularly from Paris. Wigs, hair, worſted ſtockings, hats, &c.

JUDA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

JUDDA, *or* ZIDDEN, in Arabia, is properly the port to Mecca, and its trade conſiſts chiefly in coffee brought here by the Arabs, and bought by the Turks, who take it off, almoſt all; though here are alſo merchants of Mogol, Perſia, and ſeveral places on the coaſts of Ethiopia.

JUJUBS, in pharmacy, the fruit of a tree common in Italy, called *zizypha* by J. Bauhine. They are uſed in the ſame intentions as the common figs, having nearly the ſame virtues.

JUNIPER *Berries*, in botany, the fruit of the ſhrub *juniperus*. *Juniper berries* are a roundiſh fruit, of the ſize of a pea. They are, while on the tree, perfectly round, and of a ſmooth ſurface; but, in drying, they become withered and wrinkled; and we meet with them variouſly corrugated, and covered uſually with a bluiſh reſinous duſt, when freſh.

*Juniper berries* macerated two days in water, and then diſtilled, yield a large quantity of fine eſſential oil, with a water highly impregnated with the true flavour of the berry; but if they be kept longer macerating in the water, they ferment, and the liquor becomes vinous, and if diſtilled, yields an inflammable ſpirit, but no eſſential oil.

They are in ſome places eſteemed a ſort of univerſal remedy, and called by the pompous name of *panacea* and *theriaca pauperum*; but they are not to be given indiſcriminately. We often ſee them counteracting the very purpoſes intended to be anſwered by them in hot habits, and their uſe ſucceeded by heat, and even ſuppreſſions of urine, flatulencies and ſwellings of the ſtomach and inteſtines, and eructations. In all caſes where inflammation is to be feared, either in the *prima viæ*, or in the kidnies, the uſe of *juniper berries* is to be avoided. The berries chewed, or the eſſential oil taken only in a few drops, give the urine the ſame ſweet violet ſcent that it has after the taking of turpentine.

We

We uſed to keep a diſtilled ſpirituous water of *juniper* in the ſhops; but the vulgar got an opinion of its being a pleaſant dram, and conſequently the making it became the buſineſs, not of the apothecary, but the diſtiller, who ſold it under the name of *geneva*; but at preſent it is only a better kind that is made with the *juniper berry*; what they commonly ſell is made with no better an ingredient than oil of turpentine put into the ſtill with a little common ſalt, and with the coarſeſt ſpirit they have, which is drawn off much below proof ſtrength, and is conſequently a liquor that one would wonder any people could accuſtom themſelves to drink for pleaſure.

IVORY, the tuſk, or *dens exertus* of an elephant, growing on each ſide of his trunk, in form of a horn. Each tuſh is ſix or ſeven feet in length, and as thick as a man's thigh at the baſe, and almoſt ſolid; and both together ſometimes weigh about three hundred and thirty pounds.

It is much eſteemed for its colour, poliſh, and the fineneſs of its grain, when wrought.

The *ivory* of the iſland of Ceylon, and Achen, never becomes yellow, as that of the *terra firma* and the Eaſt-Indies does; on which account the former is dearer. We have alſo fine *ivory* brought from Angola, Sumatra, &c. Large quantities of it are not taken in the Eaſt-Indies immediately from the head of the animal, but found buried in the earth.

The preparations of *ivory* have all the ſame virtues with thoſe of hartſhorn, and its raſpings, in the ſame manner as ſhavings of hartſhorn boiled into a jelly with water, and have the ſame reſtorative qualities.

IVORY BLACK, is made from *ivory* burnt between two crucibles well luted; after which it is ground with water, and made up into ſmall cakes.

IVORY COAST. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

IVORY TURNER. The boy deſigned to follow this buſineſs, ought to be naturally ingenious and handy; and, as it requires but little ſtrength, it is fit for ſuch as are of a ſlight make. The *ivory turners* make a variety of things; as handles of inſtruments, oval boxes, balls, &c. of ivory, brazil, *lignum vitæ*, &c. and ſome of them keep ſhop. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when a journeyman, may earn from fourteen to eighteen ſhillings a week; and about thirty pounds will be ſufficient to ſet up a maſter, who works for the ſhops; but, if he ſets up a ſhop himſelf, he ought to have a hundred pounds.

JURIES, in caſes relating to the cuſtoms, to conſiſt of free-born ſubjects only. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 32.

JUTLAND makes the greateſt part of Denmark; it is a fertile country, abounding more eſpecially in cattle, but defective in good ports on the ſide of the ocean; this, however, does not hinder the Dutch from making an annual extraction of a large quantity of meagre cattle. The horſes and hogs are excellent and very numerous, and the corn ſufficient for the inhabitants. The land is moſt fruitful near the ſea coaſt; in ſhort, it is the beſt that the king of Denmark has.

The duchy of *Sleeſwick*, or *South Jutland*, is in general a very good country; the conveniency of its ſituation between two ſeas, the ocean and the Baltic, gives it great advantages for trade, although the conveniencies for tranſportation are not many. It furniſhes its neighbours with wheat, cattle, horſes, and fuel wood, beſides what it retains for the uſe of the natives.

# K.



K, A double conſonant, and the tenth letter of the alphabet, was a numeral letter, denoting 250, and when it had a ſtroke at top $\overline{K}$, it ſtood for 250,000.

KALI, *glaſs-wort*, a kind of plant that grows on the ſea-coaſts, and, according to ſome, even in the ſand of the ſea: its aſhes are of great uſe in making glaſs, &c. *See* ALCALI.

Its aſhes alſo, commonly called *pot-aſhes*, made into a lye, and boiled with oil, make the beſt ſoap. From the ſame aſhes, called *pulverine*, is extracted an alcaline ſalt, which, mixed with a ſort of ſand, makes cryſtal glaſs.

The manner of procuring the aſhes in Languedoc is thus: when the plant has grown up, they cut it down and let it dry; afterwards it is calcined in pits like lime-kilns, cloſe covered with earth that no air may come at the fire. By this means the matter is not only reduced into aſhes, but made into a very hard ſtone, like rock-ſalt, which they are forced to break with hammers to get it out.

They export conſiderable quantities of it, eſpecially into Italy, where the Venetians manufacture it into their beautiful glaſſes. However, the *ſoda* made here is inferior to that brought from Alicant. The beſt ſort is in little dry ſonorous lumps, of a bluiſh grey colour, and full of little holes. *See* GLASS.

There are ſeveral kinds of *kali* or pot-aſhes to be met with in the ſhops of the dry-ſalter: they are rarely found, at leaſt under this denomination, in thoſe of the apothecary or druggiſt. The ſort in greateſt eſteem in England is that brought from Ruſſia, the beſt of which is a ſtrong, tolerably clean, alcaline ſalt. But all theſe kinds of ſalts are greatly liable to abuſe; particularly that ſort, called, from its colour, *pearl-aſhes*, which is by many eſteemed the pureſt kind of all, but nevertheleſs has been found,

upon examination, to contain a large portion of ſea-ſalt, lime, &c. Whatever kind is made choice of ſhould be purified, and ſeparated with great care, from all additional ſalts, which may have been mixed with it, either artfully or accidentally.

KAY, KEY, or rather QUAY, a wharf by the water ſide in a ſea-port for lading and unlading goods.

*The names of the lawful* keys, wharfs, *&c. for ſhipping and landing of goods in the port of London.*

*In rotulo ſcaccarii anno* 19° *Car.* II. in purſuance of an act of parliament, it is there ordained, that the keys, wharfs, and places hereafter named, and no others, be aſſigned, appointed, and allowed by his majeſty to be lawful keys, wharfs, or places for the ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods; that is to ſay, the keys or wharfs called,

1. *Brewer's key*, bounded on the eaſt with Tower-dock, containing from eaſt to weſt ſeventy-three feet, and in breadth from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

2. *Cheſter's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt fifty-one feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

3. *Galley-key*, containing from eaſt to weſt one hundred and one feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

4. *Wool-dock*, containing from eaſt to weſt ſixty-one feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

5. *Cuſtom-houſe key*, containing from eaſt to weſt two hundred and two feet, beſides ſix feet more at the eaſt end thereof betwixt that and Wool-dock, being a common-ſewer arched over; and from the river of Thames northward, all the extent of ground which ſhall not be employed or uſed in the building of his majeſty's Cuſtom-houſe and offices thereunto belonging.

But the *ſtone ſtairs* on the weſt ſide thereof, containing fifteen feet in breadth, is declared to be a place for wherries and paſſengers, and fetching of water only, and not for any goods or merchandize.

6. *Porter's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt one hundred and three feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

7. *Bear-key*, containing from eaſt to weſt ſixty-two feet four inches, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

8. *Sab's dock*, excluding the ſtairs there (which are hereby declared no lawful place of ſhipping or landing of goods or merchandize) containing from eaſt to weſt thirty feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet.

9. *Wiggon's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt fifty-two feet and a half, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

10. *Young's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt forty-ſix feet four inches, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

11. *Ralph's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt eighty-one feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

12. *Dice-key*, containing from eaſt to weſt one hundred and eleven feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet; and if the ſtairs on the eaſt ſide thereof be taken away, and the paſſage leading thereunto be laid into the ſaid key, then to contain ſix feet more from eaſt to weſt, and northward from the river of Thames, the ſaid paſſage to contain forty feet; but in the mean time the ſaid ſtairs are declared unlawful for the landing, lading, or ſhipping of goods or merchandize.

13. *Smart's key*, at the ſouth end thereof, containing from eaſt to weſt twenty-ſeven feet two inches, and extending northward along the ſide of Billingſgate-dock one hundred and ſeventy-ſix feet ſix inches; and in all other parts extending from the ſaid dock eaſtward forty feet.

14. *Somer's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt, and including the paſſage leading to the ſtairs on the eaſt ſide thereof, ſeventy three feet and a half, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet; but the place where the ſaid ſtairs now ſtand is hereby declared to be no lawful place of landing or ſhipping of goods and merchandize, until the ſtairs be taken away.

15. *Lyon-key*, containing from eaſt to weſt thirty-ſix feet nine inches, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet; but no ſtairs, as formerly, to be erected thereupon, or thereunto.

16. *Buttolph-wharf*, containing from eaſt to weſt ſeventy-eight feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

17. *Hammon's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt twenty-three feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet.

18. *Gaunt's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt thirty-one feet, including the ſmall ſtairs on the eaſt ſide thereof, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet; but the ſtairs are hereby declared unlawful for ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods and merchandize.

19. *Cock's key*, containing from eaſt to weſt forty feet eight inches, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

20. *One place* betwixt Cock's key and Freſh wharf, commonly called *Part*, or *Freſh wharf*, containing from eaſt to weſt twenty-five feet, including the ſtairs at the eaſt ſide thereof, and northwards from the river of Thames, forty feet in the narroweſt place; but the ſaid ſtairs are hereby declared unlawful for ſhipping or landing of goods.

21. *Freſh wharf*, containing from eaſt to weſt one hundred and fifteen feet, and from the river of Thames northward, forty feet in the narroweſt place.

*Billingſgate*, containing from north to ſouth one hundred and ſeventy-one feet and a half, and in breadth from eaſt to weſt forty-feet, to be a common open place, for the landing or bringing in of fiſh, ſalt, victuals, or ſewel of all ſorts, and all native materials for building, and for fruit (all manner of grocery excepted,) and for carrying out the ſame, and for no other wares or merchandize. And if the lord mayor and aldermen of the city ſhall think fit to fill up any part of the ſaid dock, at the north end thereof not exceeding forty feet in length, the ſame ground ſo filled up, may have the ſame privilege as the reſt of the wharf before preſcribed.

*Bridge-houſe* in Southwark may be allowed as a place convenient for the landing of any kind of corn, bought or provided for the proviſion or victualling of the city, and not upon any private or particular perſon's account, and for no other goods or merchandize.

It may be lawful for any perſon to ſhip or lade into any ſhip or veſſel, on the river of Thames, bound over ſeas, and lying between London and Woolwich, any of the goods or merchandize hereafter mentioned, viz. horſes, coals, beer, ordinary ſtones for building, fiſh taken by any of his majeſty's ſubjects, corn, or grain; provided that the cuſtom and duties of ſuch goods be duly paid, and cockets or other lawful warrants paſſed for the ſame, and delivered to the ſearcher, or one of his majeſty's under-ſearchers, and ſhipped in the preſence of ſome of them, and in the preſence of a deputy, to ſuch perſons as ſhall be appointed from time to time, to manage or receive the cuſtoms in the port of London, and not otherwiſe.

It may be lawful for any perſon or perſons to unſhip, and lay on land, deal-boards, balks, and all ſorts of maſts, and great timber, at any place of the river of Thames, betwixt Weſtminſter and Lime-houſe dock; provided the owners of ſuch goods do firſt pay or compound for the cuſtom and other duties, and declare the place at which they will land them, (before they unſhip any of the goods) to the officers or farmers of the cuſtoms thereof, for the time being, and receive ſufferance or permiſſion from them ſo to do; and that they unſhip none of the ſaid goods but in the preſence of a waiter or officer appointed thereunto, unleſs by a ſpecial licence of the ſaid officers or farmers of the cuſtoms for the time being; otherwiſe the ſaid goods to be liable to forfeiture according to law.

It may be lawful for the owners or poſſeſſors of the ſeveral wharfs, called Lyon-key, Somer's key, Dice-key, and Sab's dock, to fill up, or wharf over, and enlarge into the river of Thames, ſo much as will make the front of their wall, or campſhot, range equally with the adjoining keys or wharfs.

If any of the houſes or buildings be intended for ware-houſes upon the wharf, or hereafter ſo employed, the two upper

upper ſtories and garrets of the ſaid houſes to be made, and from time to time continued with glazed windows.

The number of cranes upon the ſaid ſeveral wharfs to be at the election of the owners or poſſeſſors of the ground, provided they exceed not the dimenſions following, viz. a ſingle crane with one wheel, twelve feet in breadth, and a double crane with two wheels, twenty feet, and each of them in depth or length from the wall, or campſhot, twenty-one feet at the moſt; and that the ſaid cranes, as well ſingle as double, be kept open and free, for common paſſage from the ground to the floor under the wheels, without any other incloſure, partition, ſeparation, or hindrance by poſts or ſpurns, than the neceſſary poſts and timbers which ſupport the ſame at both ends, and that the open height of the ſaid crane be at leaſt ten feet and a half from the ground to the floor under the wheels, that carts and carriages may freely paſs under them.

It ſhall not be lawful for any perſon to build any outſets, jets, penthouſes, warehouſes, rooms, lodgings, or any manner of poſts, ſheds, or buildings, contiguous or annexed to the ſaid cranes, or any part of the open wharf of forty feet in breadth, deſcribed as aforeſaid, more than what is convenient about the cranes, for the wheels to work in and upon, and ſufficient covering thereunto, not exceeding the height, breadth, and length aforeſaid. And for further ornament, thoſe cranes to be laid in oil, and coloured blue, and in the front thereof towards the Thames, be placed the king's arms, painted and ſet in an eſcutcheon, or other frame, with a decent moulding about it, of at leaſt four feet and a half diameter.

That all the paſſages, lanes, or cartways leading to the ſaid keys or wharfs from Thames-ſtreet, and every of them, be made of the breadth of eleven feet at the leaſt; but if any was of a larger breadth or dimenſion heretofore, this ſhall not be conſtrued or meant to leſſen or ſtreighten it, but that it continue at the ancient or larger dimenſion.

The ſeveral keys and wharfs deſcribed and allowed to be free places for ſhipping and landing of goods and merchandizes, as aforeſaid; and which, according to the tenor of the ſaid act of parliament, for rebuilding the ſaid city, is and ought to be left open and free at the diſtance of forty feet from the water-ſide, ſhall not be ſeparated or divided one from another by any houſe, wall, pale, poſt, rail, or other impediment whatſoever, but only by mere ſtones or marks in the pavement, for the diſtinction of propriety, and not otherwiſe.

If any wharfinger or owner of any of the wharfs or grounds allowed for ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandizes, as aforeſaid, do not conform to the preſent form, rules, and method hereby preſcribed and directed for their wharfs, cranes, or buildings, or hereafter ſhall diſcontinue or alter the ſame, or make new encroachments thereupon; after publick notice given by any three or more of the principal officers or farmers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by fixing up a writing under their hands, upon the wharf where the fault ſhall be committed, declaring the offence, and limiting a day and time for the amendment thereof; which if not amended or performed accordingly, that then ſuch wharf, or crane, ſhall from thenceforward be no more reputed, or taken to have the benefit or privilege as a lawful place of ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandize, but be thenceforward utterly debarred thereof, unleſs reſtored by his majeſt's ſpecial warrant; and nevertheleſs, the ſaid buildings, alterations, and incroachment, to be demoliſhed and removed, as the law in that caſe hath directed.

If at any time it ſhall ſeem reaſonable to the principal officers or farmers of the cuſtoms for the time being, and conſiſtent with his majeſty's ſervice, to give ſufferance or permiſſion for the ſhipping, lading, or landing of any goods or merchandize, at any other place or places, or in any other manner that is herein before nominated and adviſed, or aſſigned to be lawful keys and wharfs, it ſhall and may be lawful for them ſo to do; and ſuch ſufferance and permiſſion ſhall be good and warrantable, without any forfeiture or advantage to be taken againſt the goods ſo landed, notwithſtanding any thing herein before declared to the contrary.

Whoſoever ſhall accept of, or from henceforward employ any of thoſe keys or wharfs, by virtue of ſuch conceſſions, to the uſe of ſhipping, lading or landing of goods or merchandize, it is to be underſtood, and it is declared to be with this covenant and condition, that they perform all and ſingular the orders, aſſignments, and appointments, which on their parts and behalfs is before declared to be performed and done, and not otherwiſe.

The ſeveral wharfingers or poſſeſſors of any of the ſaid keys or wharfs, or their ſervants, ſhall not ſuffer to ſtand or remain upon their wharfs or paſſages leading to them from Thames-ſtreet, any more than ſuch cars or carts, as ſhall be immediately called to lade or take up goods, wares, or merchandize there.

To prevent all future differences and diſputes touching the extent and limits of the port of London, and the many frauds and abuſes which have been acted and committed, as well upon and within the river of Thames, as without the mouth thereof upon the ſea, the ſaid port is declared to extend, and be accounted from the promontory, or point called The North Foreland, in the iſle of Thanet, and from thence northward in a ſuppoſed right line, to the oppoſite promontory or point called The Naes beyond the Gunfleet, upon the coaſt of Eſſex, and ſo continued weſtward through the river of Thames, and the ſeveral channels, ſtreams, and rivers falling into it, to London-bridge; ſaving the uſual and known right, liberty and privilege to the ports of Sandwich and Ipſwich, and either of them, and the known members thereof, and of the cuſtomers, comptrollers, ſearchers, and their deputies, of and within the ſaid ports of Sandwith and Ipſwich, and the ſeveral creeks, harbours, and havens to them, or either of them reſpectively belonging, within the counties of Kent or Eſſex; but that every part and place of the river Thames, and ſea, within the limits and bounds aforeſaid, not included or belonging to the ſaid ports of Sandwich or Ipſwich, or the ſeveral creeks, harbours, or havens, to them, or one of them reſpectively belonging, within the ſaid counties of Kent or Eſſex, ſhall be deemed and taken to be within, and part and parcel of the port of London.

No further or other paſſage to be made or enlarged to the wharfs, or any part of the river of Thames from Thames-ſtreet, within the limits aforeſaid, other than the ancient and common paſſages to the ſame.

KEYAGE. The money or toll paid for loading or unloading wares at a key or wharf.

KEER, *or* CEER, weights uſed in ſome cities of the Great Mogul, particularly at Agabar and Ziamger; in the firſt of which places it weighs thirty-ſix ſmall weights of one pound and a quarter, marc; and in the other, thirty-ſix of one pound and a half.

KELP, a fixed ſalt, or particular ſpecies of pot-aſhes procured by burning the weed called *kali*, which grows plentifully on ſome ſhores; and then reducing it to ſolid lumps, or cakes of aſhes that run into a liquor ſomewhat like oil of tartar *per deliquium* by the moiſture of the air. *See* KALI.

KEN, a ſort of an aune, uſed at Siam, not quite three feet; two *kens* making one voua, which is a French toiſe leſs one inch; the *ken* likewiſe makes two ſocks, the ſock two keubs, the keub twelve nious, and there goes eight grains of unhuſked rice to a niou, which makes nine French lines.

KENT. The ſole manufacture of this county is thread, except what is caſt of its iron into cannon, bullets, furnaces, pots, boilers, plate-iron, bomb-ſhells, hand-granades, &c. and its products are, ſome corn, woad, madder, hops, fuller's earth, iron, burſtone, flax, and great quantities of Kentiſh cherries, and pippins.

KEPATH, a ſmall weight uſed by the Arabians; it is half a danck, or dank, that is the grain; twelve *kepaths* make the dirhem or dragme of Arabia, and ſome have thought that the word *karat* comes from this of *kepath*.

KERMES, a kind of little animal, found on an ever green of the oak kind, of conſiderable uſe, both in phyſic and dying.

*Kermes*, as brought to us for uſe, is a ſmall roundiſh body, of the bigneſs of a pea, and of a browniſh red colour, covered, when moſt perfect, with a bluiſh or purpliſh grey duſt, like the fine bloom on a ripe plum, which is eaſily rubbed off by touching. It is, when cut, found to be a mere membranaceous bag, or caſe, containing a multitude of little diſtinct granules, which are ſoft and juicy, and, when cruſhed between the fingers, afford a ſcarlet juice.



The

The *kermes* has an agreeable ſmell, and is of a ſomewhat acrid and bitteriſh, but far from diſagreeable, taſte.

It is in this ſtate found adhering to the leaves and young ſhoots of a kind of ilex or holm-oak in the warmer countries, and always poſſeſſes ſome fixed place, without any appearance of life or motion. This is the ſtate in which we have been uſed to receive this valuable drug, and this is all we have been informed for a long time, as to its hiſtory. It is therefore no wonder, that, till very lately, the world in general has underſtood it to be a vegetable excreſcence, growing on this kind of oak, as the common galls do on the common oak. It had been long ſuſpected by ſome to belong ſo far to the animal tribe, as to be the produce of ſome wound, or puncture, made in the bark and leaves of this tree by an animal; but we now know it to be the extended body of an animal parent, no way altered but by ſuch extenſion, and filled with a numerous offſpring, which are the little red granules we find in it, and which it has given life to at the expence of its own.

The knowledge of this part of natural hiſtory we owe wholly to our ingenious and indefatigable neighbours, in this way, the French. De la Hire and Sedileau were the firſt, who ſet the obſervation on foot, that led to this diſcovery: they found a creature, which remained a great part of its life fixed to the ſame ſpot, on the leaves of orange trees, and other ſhrubs, preſerved in our ſtoves, and which had been long miſtaken for an excreſcence of the plant, to be truly and perfectly of the animal kind. After this obſervation, our fruit trees were found to be covered with animals, very different, indeed, from the former, which have been ſince called the *green-houſe-bug*; yet, ſo far of the kind, that they were a long time, properly all the time of their being obſerved, fixed and motionleſs: and, finally, Dr. Emerick obſerved the *kermes* on the ilex in three ſtates, in the firſt of which it had all the characters of our inſect, although it afterwards gradually loſt them in the other two. The ſagacious Reaumur, following this diſcovery, found the *kermes* to be truly of the animal kingdom, and to be one of the genuine ſpecies, of theſe torpid animals, of our common fruit trees: his future obſervations diſcovered to him many more of them, and he, at length, arranged them together in one claſs; to which, from the great reſemblance they all bear to galls, he gave them the name of *gall-inſects*.

It is a general rule of nature, in regard to the inſect claſs, that they die as ſoon as they have fully anſwered the great end of propagating their ſpecies. It is not excepted againſt in this creature. When ſhe has laid all her eggs, ſhe dies ſoon after, remaining fixed to the ſpot where ſhe was: her body is a mere caſe, ſerving to defend and cover the eggs from external injuries, in the manner of a coat or ſhell, and the downy membrane is ſo well fixed to the rim of this ſhell, that no inſects can get between to deſtroy them. It is in this ſtate, the animal being dead, and the eggs in perfection under it, that it is gathered for medicinal, and other uſes.

The *kermes* are of different ſize, and in different quality, according to the different ſoil, ſituation, and age of the trees, on which they are found, and to the different ſeaſons. Thoſe trees which are old, but not tall, and which appear leaſt vigorous and healthy, afford the greateſt quantity of *kermes*. The reaſon of this ſeems, that the creatures have been longeſt eſtabliſhed on theſe, and breed in greateſt abundance there, merely from their greater numbers. Thoſe trees which grow near the ſea, are always found to afford the largeſt, fineſt, and beſt coloured *kermes*; and a mild winter, and not too cold ſpring, are uſually ſucceeded by large quantities of them. The women are principally employed in gathering them; they do it early in a morning, while the dew is on the trees, as the prickles, on the leaves, are leſs rigid at that time. They uſe no inſtrument for gathering them but their nails, which they ſuffer to grow long for that purpoſe, and with which they ſcoop off the whole *kermes* cleanly from the bark or leaf: there are women, who know where to look for the greateſt cluſters of them, that will get two pounds, or more, in a morning.

When they have gathered them, they expoſe them to the ſun, and ſprinkle them with vinegar, to deſtroy the principle of life in the eggs, otherwiſe they would hatch, and a great part of the value of the drug would be loſt. It is in the end of May that the *kermes* is gathered for uſe, and in general no more is thought of this production, till that time the next year; but, if the ſeaſon prove very favourable, they ſometimes find a ſecond crop in autumn. The *kermes* of this ſecond gathering are, however, always ſmaller, and worſe coloured than the others, and are of a leſs value on all occaſions.

The *ilex* is frequent in France, Spain, and Italy, and in many of the iſlands of the Archipelago. The *kermes* is found affixed only to the very young branches and the leaves. The creature lives by ſuction, and it is in theſe tender parts of the tree that it is moſt eaſily able to get at the juice. All the inſects of this claſs approach nearly to the nature of the *kermes*; and, if thoroughly inquired into, it is very poſſible, others might be found of as much value as this ſo long famous one.

The *kermes* is a very valuable commodity: it ſerves two very great uſes, the dyers in ſcarlet finding it as valuable in their way, as the phyſicians in theirs. The *kermes* intended for the dyers is beſt whole, only deſtroying the principle of life in the eggs by means of vinegar; but that intended for medicinal purpoſes is more properly managed another way. The *kermes* are to be gathered, when fully diſtended, and while yet perfectly covered with their bloom. They are to be immediately thrown into a mortar, and bruiſed to pieces: after this they are to be ſet in a cool place, for ſeven or eight hours, in which time their juice will be rendered much more tough and viſcid than it was on the firſt bruiſing; after this it is to be preſſed, pretty ſtrongly, ſo as to get out the whole juice. The liquor thus drawn is to be ſet by for ſome hours, that the groſſer matter, forced out with the preſſing, may ſettle from it. The clear juice is to be decanted off, and an equal weight of fine ſugar is to be added to it, with which it is to be boiled over a very gentle fire to the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup. This ſyrup is called *kermes juice* in the ſhops. It will keep a long time, and the *confection of alkermes* is uſually made from it.

The people who prepare *kermes* for the dyers, often let the eggs hatch as they lie in drying, and then ſprinkling them with ſtrong vinegar, they kill them, and form them into a ſort of cakes, which keep very well a long time.

The ancients were very well acquainted with the *kermes*. Dioſcorides has deſcribed it very particularly under the name of *coccus baphica*; but though they were well acquainted with the drug, they knew but a ſmall part of its virtues: they accounted it an aſtringent, and uſed it externally, ground with vinegar for wounds, eſpecially thoſe in nervous parts. The Arabians were the firſt who uſed it as a cordial. Meſne recommends it for palpitations of the heart, and in low ſpiritedneſs. At preſent it is in great eſteem as a reſtorative, and is ſaid to ſtrengthen the ſtomach, and aſſiſt digeſtion, at the ſame time that it greatly invigorates and enlivens.

It is alſo in eſteem among midwives as a cordial, and ſtrengthener for lying-in-women, and as a preventer of abortions. There are not wanting ſome among us, who incline to the ancient opinion, and allow *kermes* no virtue but that of an aſtringent: but this is not only contradicted by daily experience, in which its virtue, as a cordial, is manifeſt; but the analyſis ſhews, it muſt poſſeſs more active virtues than theſe people pretend: ſuch a quantity of volatile ſalt was not deſtined for a mere aſtringent.

KEUB. *See* KEN.

KHATOVAT, a long meaſure uſed in Arabia, and is the geometrical pace of the Europeans: it contains three akdams or feet, and twelve thouſand *khatovats* make the pareſange.

KIDDER, ſignifies one that badges, or carries corn, dead victual, or other merchandize, up and down to ſell. *Stat.* 5 *Eliz. c.* 12. They are alſo called *kiddiers*, 13 *Eliz. c.* 25.

KIDNAPPING, is a ſtealing and conveying away a man, woman, or child, and is an offence at common law, puniſhable by fine, pillory, &c. *Raym.* 474. Alſo if a maſter of a ſhip, &c. ſhall, during his being abroad, force any man aſhore, and willingly leave him behind, he ſhall ſuffer three months impriſonment. 11 & 12 *Wil.* III. *c.* 7.

KILDERKIN, a kind of liquid meaſure in England, that contains two firkins, or eighteen gallons, beer meaſure,

A New & Accurate
MAP
of the Kingdom of
PRUSSIA
and
POLISH PRUSSIA
from the Sieur Robert's
ATLAS
with Improvements
British Statute Miles.
10 20 30 40 50 75 100
BALTIC SEA
GULPH OF DANTZIC
DANTZIC
Elbing
Marienburg
Graudenz
Thorn
Culm
Conitz
Dirschau
Neuteich
Stargard
Schlochau
Flatow
Tuchel
Fredland
Lauenburg
Bütow
Stolpe
Rummelsburg
Schlochau
Pomerania
Pomerelia
Prussia
Ermeland
Natangia
Sudavia
Galindia
Lithuania
Samogitia
Curland
Livonia
Nadrauia
Sambia
Culmigeria
Michelawia
Lobovia
Pomesania
Warmia
Desert of Waldow
Frisch Haff
Frisch Nerung
Curish Haff
Vistula R.
Nogat R.
Drewenz R.
Netze R.
Brahe R.
Passarge R.
Alle R.
Pregel R.
Deime R.
Memel R.
Niemen R.
Longitude East from London
J. Gibson Sculp.

ſure, and ſixteen ale meaſure; two *kilderkins* make a barrel, and four a hogſhead.

KILY, or KILIA, is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the Danube, about ſeven or eight leagues from the mouth that diſcharges it into the Black Sea. Four or five thouſand pieces of fuſtian from Scio are brought here yearly, and damaſks from thence alſo, to the value of about ſix thouſand dollars; buckrams for more than thirty thouſand; beſides two thouſand pieces of fuſtians, made and ſold in the place; coffee alſo is ſold here for fourteen or fifteen thouſand dollars; flax for three or four thouſand; ſtriped taffeties (called ſantals) for above ſixty thouſand; other ſorts of taffeties for ſeventy thouſand; of cloths, fifty or ſixty pieces are annually imported: though of all theſe merchandizes few are conſumed at *Kily*, as this is only the ſtaple, or ſtore-houſe, from whence they are ſent to divers ports on the Danube, or within land, as Iſmael, Temaſwaer, Hias, Galas, and ſeveral other leſs conſiderable; all which places contribute ſomething to trade, viz.

*Hias*, about fifty thouſand ocques of wax, of which a part is ſent to Smyrna by Natolia, and the reſt to Conſtantinople The butter comes from other ports, where in a common year may be collected above an hundred thouſand ocques.

At the mouth of the Danube, and before *Kily*, is a very large fiſhery of the mouronne (though what this fiſh is we confeſs our ignorance) which produces above ſixty thouſand dollars yearly; each fiſh weighs about a quintal and a half, one with another, after the roes are taken out, to make caviar, though this commodity made here is not good, as the curing it well would render it too coſtly to get any thing by it. From the ports along the Danube are expedited more than ſix hundred ſaicks yearly with wheat and barley, which commonly yield the large profit of 15 to 30 *per cent.* to the concerned.

KINCARDINE. This country is fruitful in corn, paſturage, and timber, having above five millions of fir trees, beſides vaſt numbers of many other kinds, planted in leſs than a century paſt. *Paldykirk* has an annual fair, continuing three days, where the principal commodity ſold is coarſe cloth, commonly tranſported to the Netherlands.

KINROSS, is a ſmall tract of ground, in which there is nothing remarkable, but a lough, abounding with pikes, trouts, and all ſorts of water fowl.

KINTAL, is a certain weight of merchandize, moſt commonly of one hundred pounds, or ſomething under or over, according to the ſeveral uſages of divers nations. *See* QUINTAL.

KIRCUDBRIGHT, is one of the two diſtricts or diviſions of Galloway in Scotland. It begins at the middle of the bridge of Dumfries, lies between the water of Cree on the weſt, aad Nithſdale on the eaſt; is bounded by part of Kyle on the north, and has the Iriſh ſea on the ſouth. There is ſuch plenty of paſture in it, that vaſt flocks of ſmall cattle and ſheep grazed here are ſent into England. The town of the ſame name ſtands on a bay of the ſame name, in the Iriſh ſea, at the mouth of the river Dee, in which it has a good ſalmon-fiſhery. Here is a commodious harbour, with depth of water, and room enough to hold the Engliſh navy: yet it is a place of no great trade.

*New Galloway*, on the river Ken, has a good weekly market, well frequented for corn and other proviſions, and a good ſalmon-fiſhery in Lochken, which abounds not only with ſalmon, but other fiſh; it contains ſeveral iſlands, is about five miles long, and, in ſome places, about one mile broad.

KIRMANT, a place of ſome note in the Levant, which takes off nothing from Europe, and only furniſhes trade with about twenty-five or thirty thouſand hides yearly, and ſome butter.

KISTE, a liquid meaſure of Arabia. Authors differ about its contents, ſome making it equal to a ſeptier, others to a pint or bottle, and ſome only to a poiſſon, or one-fourth of a ſeptier of France.

KNOTS *of the log-line*, are the diviſions made thereon, which are uſually ſeven fathoms, or forty-two feet; but they ought to be fifty-one feet: and then, as many knots as the log-line runs out in half a minute, ſo many miles does the ſhip ſail in an hour, ſuppoſing ſhe goes at an equal rate, and allowing for yaws, lee-way, &c. *See* LOG-LINE.

KONIGSBERG, is the capital of Ducal Pruſſia, ſeated on the Pregel, that falls into the Triſchef (called by ſome the Hac) a ſort of lake that communicates with the ſea; but it is at Pilau (a conſiderable fortreſs at the entrance of this lake) that the veſſels at firſt arrive in their way to *Konigſberg*, which is more than eight leagues diſtant, and cannot be got up by ſhips drawing more than ten feet water. This inconveniency, that occaſions great expences, is followed by two others, viz. ſtrangers may not houſe their goods, in order to wait a favourable opportunity for their ſales, neither is the diſperſing them within land by the canals permitted, nor their ſales ſuffered to be made to any other than the inhabitants of the city.

Beſides the products of the province, the Pregel, which has its riſe in Lithuania, ſerves for tranſportation to *Konigſberg* of that country's and Poland's product; ſuch as pipe-ſtaves, deal-boards, wheat, rice, barley, millet, hides, furs, hemp, (inferior to what is got from other parts of the North) flax, wax, honey, tallow, pot-aſh, and wood-aſh: the imports there are woollens, ſalt (moſtly from France) of which near eight thouſand laſts are ſold here annually for the conſumption of Pruſſia and Lithuania. The other goods proper for this commerce, are iron, lead, pewter, about one thouſand barrels of wine, one hundred ditto of brandy, and the ſame quantity of vinegar; butter, cheeſe, ſugar, tobacco, (chiefly Clerac and Martinico, of which a hundred thouſand pounds may be uſed here yearly) ſpice, and (as in all the reſt of the Baltic) rix-dollars.

KRAGEROE, is a ſmall town, yielding ſome deals, balks, ſpears, and ſpars; and ſome years ago, it produced the beſt fourteen feet deals in Norway.

# L.



L, A ſemi-vowel, or liquid, making the eleventh letter of the alphabet. Among the ancient Romans it was as a numeral letter, and is ſtill ſo in the Roman cyphering, and denotes fifty, being half a C, which ſignified a hundred. When a line was added a-top $\overline{L}$, it ſtood for fifty thouſand.

LABDANUM, or LADANUM, is a reſinous ſubſtance of an agreeable ſmell, and lightly pungent, bitteriſh taſte; it exudes upon the ſurface of the leaves of the ladaniferous cyſtus, a tree which grows plentifully in the iſland of Crete, and other places in the Archipelago. Bellonius deſcribes the method of collecting it, which is perfectly agreeable to Tournefort's obſervation. The Greeks make uſe of a rake for this purpoſe, to which they fix belts, or thongs of ſkins. Theſe they gently apply, in the extremeſt hot weather, to the twigs of the cyſtus, in ſuch a manner as to take up the unctuous juice that exudes, which is afterwards ſcraped off with knives. There are two ſorts of this drug in the ſhops: the beſt, which is difficult to be met with, is in dark-coloured, almoſt black maſſes, of the conſiſtence of a ſoft plaiſter, which grows ſtill ſofter upon being handled: this, if perfectly good, entirely diſſolves in ſpirits of wine, throws out ſparkles in burning, and emits a copious ſmoke, and very agreeable ſmell. The other ſort is harder, not ſo dark coloured, in long rolls coiled up; this is of a much weaker ſmell than the firſt ſort, and is mixed with ſand, which, according to ſome writers, is in ſo large a proportion, as to make up three-fourths of the maſs.

*Ladanum* is uſed externally, to attenuate and diſcuſs tumours; internally, it is rarely uſed, tho' it is greatly extolled by ſome againſt catarrhs, and in dyſenteries.

LABOURERS, required to ſerve thoſe that will retain them for the uſual wages. 23 *Edw.* III. *c.* 1, &c.

Their wages aſcertained. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 1 & 3, 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 4. 23 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 12. 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 22. 6 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 3. 7 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5.

Shall be hired in a public place. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 2.

Shall work in ſummer where they dwelt in winter. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 2.

Juſtices ſhall fix wages of labourers. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 3. 31 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 6.

The fines ariſing on the ſtatutes of labourers granted to the commons in aid of their ſubſidy. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 7. *c.* 3. 36 *Edw. ſt.* 1. *c.* 14.

Reſtrictions on maſons and carpenters. 34 *Edw.* III. *c.* 9.

Proceſs of outlawry againſt labourers flying into other countries. 34 *Edw.* III. *c.* 10.

Labourers or ſervants flying into cities ſhall be delivered to their maſters. 34 *Edw.* III. *c.* 11.

Commiſſions on the ſtatutes of labourers ſhall be made to the juſtices of peace. 42 *Edw.* III. *c.* 6.

The ſtatutes of labourers confirmed. 2 *Rich.* II. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 8. 2 *Hen.* V. *c.* 4.

Artificers and apprentices compelled to work in harveſt. 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 3.

Children ſerving in huſbandry till twelve years old, ſhall continue in huſbandry. 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 5.

Their wages ſhall be ſettled by the juſtices in their ſeſſions. 13 *Rich.* II. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 8. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 16.

Shall not be hired by the week, &c. 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 14.

Shall be ſworn in the leet to ſerve, or to be ſet in the ſtocks. 7 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 17.

The penalty for exceſſive wages to be inflicted on the taker. 4 *Hen.* V. *c.* 4. On the giver. 4 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5.

The juſtices of peace to make proclamation once every year of the wages of ſervants and artificers. 6 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 3. 8 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 8.

A ſervant purpoſing to depart, to give his maſter warning. 23 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 12.

For journeymen of cloth-makers, taylors, and ſhoemakers; and for ſervants in huſbandry and bargemen. 3 & 4 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 22.

The hiring and wages of ſervants regulated. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4.

The wages of ſervants, labourers, and artificers, ſhall be ſettled by the juſtices. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 15.

Penalty of giving greater wages. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 18.

Refuſing to work at harveſt to be ſet in the ſtocks. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 22.

Women obliged to ſerve. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 24.

None above twenty-one obliged to be apprentice. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 36.

Fees to juſtices, &c. ſitting to execute this ſtatute. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 38.

Minors bound by indentures of apprenticeſhip. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 43.

Capias may be granted againſt ſervants, &c. departing into other ſhires. 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. *ſ.* 47.

Of what labourers the juſtices of peace may aſſeſs the wages. 39 *Eliz. c.* 12. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 6.

Juſtices to hear and determine of wages of ſervants and labourers, not exceeding ten pounds. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19.

Extended to the tinners in the Stannaries. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6.

Juſtices may puniſh ſervants on complaint of the maſters. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2.

The 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. ſhall extend to all ſervants employed in huſbandry, though hired in leſs than a-year, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 3. *See* CONTRACT.

In a dictionary of trade, we have judged it neceſſary to introduce this article, in order to obſerve here, in what manner, our taxes, as they are at preſent laid, enhance the price of *labour*, and thereby augment that of our product and manufactures in general. This was moſt apparently the caſe before the laſt war; and ſince we have accummulated,

cumulated, by that war, an additional debt, near equal to that we did by the three preceding great wars, our general taxes have multiplied, in proportion as our public debts have. To what degree this our additional weight of taxes affects the price of *labour* throughout the kingdom in general, and in conſequence raiſes the prices of all our produce and manufacture, as well for foreign as home conſumption, is too ſenſibly felt and experienced to need further proof, our whole commerce and navigation labouring under the oppreſſion.

*Gum* LAC, is a vegetable product uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of a gum, but as improper to it, as to the elemi, it being, like that, inflammable, and not ſoluble in water. We diſtinguiſh three kinds of *lacca* in the ſhops, which are all the products of the ſame tree, and only differ in form; they are firſt, the *ſtick lac*; ſecondly, the *ſeed lac*; and thirdly, the *ſhell lac*. The *ſtick lac* is a hard, reſinous, and friable matter, of an uneven and granulated ſurface, and of a reddiſh, but ſomewhat duſky colour. It is of an auſtere and ſubaſtringent taſte, and is fixed round certain ſticks, and round branches of a woody ſubſtance.

The *ſeed lac* is brought to us in looſe grains, or little maſſes, of a roundiſh irregular figure, and of a reddiſh colour. They ſeem no way different from the *ſtick lac*, but as parts from the whole, and ſeem the granules of which the matter concreting round thoſe ſticks is formed, only looſe and not connected one to another. Their taſte and ſmell are the ſame with thoſe of the *ſtick lac*.

The third kind, or *ſhell lac*, is met with in thin and tranſparent cakes, which are made by melting the former granules, or the other matter taken from the ſticks into a maſs.

We are not at all perfect in the hiſtory of this drug, what has been advanced by authors about it, leaving us uncertain whether it properly belongs to the vegetable or the animal kingdoms.

The tree on whoſe branches it is uſually found, is one of the *icoſandria monogynia* of Linnæus, and one of the *arbores pruniferæ* of Ray. It is deſcribed by authors under the name of the *jujuba Indica*, *malus Moluccenſis*, and *Zizyphus Zeylanda argentea*. Herman aſſures us, that he had himſelf collected *gum lac* from the wounds he made in the bark of a ſmall ſpecies of this jujuba; and there are two or three other trees of the ſame genus, that are ſaid to afford it. There are others, however, that affirm it to be no vegetable exudation at all, but a ſubſtance analogous to wax, laid on theſe branches by inſects. Till we have ſome very good obſerver on the ſpot to determine between the poſitive aſſertions of the ſeveral authors, and to tell us, whether, if theſe inſects do ſometimes lodge this matter on other ſubſtances, they do not firſt collect it from the jujube tree here mentioned, we muſt reſt in uncertainty. Whatever may be the true hiſtory of this drug, its virtues, however, are leſs in diſpute; it is an attenuant, aperient, and diuretic, and is ſometimes preſcribed in diſorders of the liver and ſpleen, and in jaundices and dropſies. It would probably be in more uſe if we knew how to open its body, ſo as to make it exert its virtues. It is a ſort of unchangeable medicine, paſſing the body very little altered, if given in ſubſtance; and it is of the number of thoſe things from which a tincture is very difficultly extracted.

LACCA. *See the above article.*

*Artificial* LACCA, in painting, dying, &c. is a coloured ſubſtance drawn from ſeveral vegetables.

To prepare vegetable colours, take a pound of turmeric root reduced to a fine powder, three pints of fair water, and an ounce of tartar, put them into a glazed earthen veſſel, and let them boil gently over a clear fire, till the water appear richly impregnated with the turmeric; or ſtain a piece of white paper beautifully yellow; then filter the liquor, and gradually add to it a ſtrong aqueous ſolution of roch allum, till the yellow matter is all curdled together, or precipitated: after this, pour the whole into a filtre of paper, where the aqueous part will run off, and leave a yellow matter behind; which being edulcorated in the filtre by the repeated affuſion of freſh water, till the water comes away inſipid, and afterwards dried, it becomes the laque of turmeric, or a beautiful yellow colour for painting.

In the ſame maner may a red laque be made from madder, brazil, &c. But where the colour of the ſubject depends upon a very ſubtile texture or arrangement of the parts, this method deſtroys, or at leaſt impairs the colour, as in violets, red roſes, &c. So that it ſeems applicable only to the tinging vegetables of a ſomewhat ſtrong and firm texture.

A red laque may be obtained barely by boiling ſtick-lac in water, then filtring the decoction, and evaporating the ſuperfluous humidity: for the beautiful red colour adheres to the outſide of the ſticks broken off the trees, along with the gum-lac, and readily communicates itſelf to boiling water.

LACE-MANUFACTURE is a work compoſed of many threads of gold or ſilver, fine or otherwiſe, or of ſilk or linen, interwoven the one with the other, which is worked upon a pillow with ſpindles, or bones for bone-lace, according to the pattern deſigned. This is performed by means of ſeveral pins, which are placed and diſplaced as the ſpindle is moved, upon which the threads are divided.

The fabric of *lace* has divers varieties and qualities, as that of *net-work-lace*, or *bone-lace*; alſo ſome with large, others with ſmall flowers; ſome in a looſe, others in a compact manner; ſome high raiſed, others lower, and ſome very low raiſed; one kind all of gold or ſilver thread, or part of gold and part of ſilver; others of ſilk of divers colours, and others of linen thread, extremely white.

The common uſe thereof is for the embelliſhment of dreſs, in regard to linens, ladies head-dreſſes, the altar ornaments of churches, &c.

In France, the ſale of *lace* makes a part of the mercery buſineſs. The milliners deal only in that of white linen.

The manufacture of gold and ſilver lace in France is carried on moſtly at Paris, Lyons, and the adjacent villages belonging thereunto.

The fineſt ſilk lace is made at Fontenay, Puiſſeux, Morgas, and the Louvre; the ordinary ſort manufactured chiefly in France, is at St. Denis, Montmorency, Villiers le Bel, Carcelle, Ecouan, St. Brice, Groſlat, Giſors, St. Pierre des Champs, Eſtrepagny, Doumeſnil, and in ſome other places in the neighbourhood of theſe cities, bourghs, and villages.

At the Louvre they manufacture particularly the greateſt part of the raiſed black ſilk lace for women's ſcarves.

The principal places from whence the fine white lace comes, are Antwerp, Bruſſels, Louvain, Mechlin, and Ghent, all cities of the Auſtrian Netherlands; alſo Valenciennes, Liſle, and ſome other places of French Flanders; Charleville, Sedan, Le Comté de Bourgogne, Loraine, Liege, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Honfleur, Harfleur, Pont L'Eveſque, Giſors, Feſcamp, Caen, and other cities of the province of Normandy; Arras, Bapaume, and other places of the county of Artois; Le Puy in Velay, ſome places of Avergne and Picardy, the Louvre in Paris, St. Denis in France, Montmorency, Villiers le Bel, &c.

The fineſt and moſt beautiful thread laces are thoſe of the Auſtrian Netherlands, next to which are thoſe of French Flanders; among which are diſtinguiſhed the true Valenciennes, then thoſe of Dieppe, and next thoſe of Havre and Honfleur: for with regard to thoſe of other places, they are but ordinary, and of a middling price, although there is no inconſiderable vent for them.

The greateſt part of the laces, as well of gold and ſilver as of ſilk and thread, which are made in France, are conſumed in the kingdom. There is but little, except thoſe of ſilk, and particularly thoſe of the black ſpecies abovementioned, whereof they make any conſiderable export into Spain and Portugal, and into the Spaniſh Indies, Germany, and Holland.

The French fabricate particularly a ſort of white thread lace, for the commerce of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. It is compoſed only of large flowers, without net-work or bars. This kind was formerly greatly in faſhion; but, at preſent, they wear none of it; in Flanders they manufacture the moſt of this kind.

The gold and ſilver lace manufacture depends on the art of gilding and wire-drawing. And thoſe arts depend on the ductility of gold and ſilver.

To give ſome idea of this extraordinary property, to which we have occaſion to refer.

Our gold beaters and wire-drawers furniſh us with abundant proof of this property: they every day reduce

duce gold into *lamellæ*, or leaves inconceivably thin; yet without the leaſt aperture diſcoverable, even by the microſcope: a ſingle grain of gold may be ſtretched under the hammer into a leaf that will cover a pretty large houſe, and yet the leaf remain ſo compact as not to tranſmit the rays of light, nor even to admit of the tranſudation of the ſpirit of wine.

The method of drawing ſilver is the ſame with that of gold, except that the latter is gilt or covered with gold, and the other is not.

There are alſo counterfeit gold or ſilver wires: the firſt made of a cylinder of copper ſilvered over, then covered with gold; and the ſecond of a like cylinder of copper ſilvered over, and drawn through the iron after the manner of gold and ſilver wire, and this again is gilt.

And a great quantity of the French gold and ſilver lace is certainly made of this ſort, which is too often paſſed upon the world for other. This may deſerve the regard of thoſe, who are ſo mighty fond of French lace, to the detriment of the Britiſh gold and ſilver lace manufacture, which is in general of a far ſuperior quality, wears far preferably, and will fetch more after it is worn out, from the intrinſic value of the gold and ſilver. For the laws, regulations, &c. of England with regard to gold and ſilver lace, *ſee* GOLD and DRAWBACK; and for *lace* of ſilk or thread, *ſee* BONE-LACE, FRINGE.

LACE-MAN. A youth deſigned for this trade ought to have a polite education, ſome knowledge of drawing, and a genteel perſon and behaviour, added to a very handſome fortune, to enable him to ſet up for himſelf. The *lacemen*, who by their fortunes are in the firſt claſs of tradeſmen, keep very handſome ſhops, in which they ſell all ſorts of gold and ſilver lace, gold and ſilver buttons, ſhapes for waiſtcoats, fringes, ſpangles, gold and ſilver thread, purl, fleſy, twiſt, &c. They employ the gold and ſilver wire-drawers and orrice-weavers; take from one to three hundred pounds with an apprentice; pay their journeymen from twenty to ſixty pounds a year, with their board; and require from one thouſand to ten thouſand pounds to ſet up.

LACE-SHOP, *or* CHAMBER. By thoſe who keep theſe ſhops, or chambers, are underſtood ſuch as import Bruſſels and Mechlin lace, and alſo thoſe who ſell bone-lace, made in Buckinghamſhire, &c. They take no apprentices. It will require near one thouſand pounds to enable a perſon to ſet up for himſelf; and thoſe who deal in foreign lace, may employ ten thouſand pounds to great advantage: though of late years this trade has been declining, from the faſhion of the ladies wearing gauzes, which are trimmed with ſlight open laces of the manufacture of our own country.

LACK, *or* LAKE, a hundred of which make a couran of rupees, and this rupee is reckoned worth a French crown of three livres, one Dutch guilder and a half, or two ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling. *See* COURON.

LA CONCEPTION, reckoned the ſecond city of Chili, (counting Baldivia for the third, and St. Jago for the firſt) is ſeventy leagues from this laſt, and ſixty from the other. Its port, in form of a horſe-ſhoe, and from thence called by the Spaniards *Herradura*, is five leagues from the city, to which light veſſels go up by the river Andalien, which croſſes it. The mines of Quilacoya, and Quilacura, are only four leagues diſtant, and the principal waſhing places of the kingdom much about the ſame; it is here, that in ſeparating the earth from the metal by this lotion, that thoſe lumps of gold are diſcovered, which are of the greateſt purity, and ſo much enrich the fortunate finders: and which, as well as all that is extracted from the mines, is carried to the mint at St. Jago, to pay the king's one-fifth, which is ſent with the reſt of the royal revenue to Lima. The natives breed a large quantity of large cattle and goats, the ſkins of the laſt they make into cordovans, and ſend theſe with the other hides to Lima, from whence by Panama and the river Chagre, they are tranſported to the North Sea. The other commodities in which they trade, being much the ſame as thoſe of Baldivia, with the exception of wool and cloth, and other ſtuffs made in the country, and the ſhips which the inhabitants ſend yearly to Peru, being ten or twelve, bring, with little difference, the ſame returns as thoſe of the other aforeſaid city do. *See* BALDIVIA.

LACQUERED *wares*. *See* EAST-INDIA.

LADRONES, *or* ISLES OF THIEVES. Mr. Savary ſays theſe iſlands were diſcovered in 1520, and Mr. Echard in 1552, by Magellan, after paſſing from the North to the South Sea by the celebrated ſtreights bearing his name; he called them the *Iſles of Thieves* (in Spaniſh *Iſles de Ladrones*) on account of the petty larceny the natives were guilty of, in ſtealing a few nails, and bits of old iron from him, and the *Iſlands of Sails*, from the quantity of canoes, that at once ſurrounded his ſhip on his arrival. They were afterwards named *Mariannas*, from Mary Anne of Auſtria, queen of Spain, who ſent miſſionaries there in 1665, after their being taken poſſeſſion of for that nation. They are at the extremity of the eaſt, or upon the utmoſt bounds of our hemiſphere, in that vaſt expanſe of waters, that lies between Japan, the Philippines, and Mexico; or in other words, between the Oriental and Pacific Ocean: there are only fourteen, or, as ſome ſay, fifteen of them known, altho' they are much more numerous. *Gnahans* and *Saypan* are the moſt conſiderable and populous, having, as Mr. Savary ſays, more than thirty thouſand inhabitants each, although the largeſt of them is not forty leagues in circumference, which muſt be a miſtake in the ſaid gentleman, either in the number of inhabitants, or extent of the iſles. Some have believed that they had always a commerce with the Tartars; but it is certain, that before Magellan's arrival, they thought themſelves the only inhabitants of the earth, ignorant even of the uſe of fire, which they took at firſt for a devouring animal, to whom an approach was dangerous. Since the Spaniards have been eſtabliſhed here, thoſe of the Philippines, diſtant only two hundred leagues, maintain ſome trade here; and the annual Acapulco ſhip always touches for refreſhments, which they truck againſt linens, iron, merceries, and hardware; but this trade is ſo inconſiderable as would have induced us to paſs it by without notice, had it not been to avoid neglecting the mentioning of thoſe iſles, which by their ſituation between Aſia and America, may very much favour thoſe who carry on a marine traffic from the South to the Eaſt.

LAEN. *See* FUN.

LAGAN, at firſt, was that right which the chief lord of the fee had to take goods which were caſt on the ſhore by the violence of the ſea; but afterwards it ſignified a right which any one had to goods which were ſhipwrecked and floating in the ſea. *Thus Bracton. Lagan* is alſo a parcel of goods the mariners, in danger of ſhipwreck, caſt out of the ſhip; and becauſe they know they are heavy and ſink, they faſten to them a buoy or cork, ſo that they may find and have them again. If the ſhip be drowned, or otherwiſe periſh, theſe goods are called *legan*, or *ligan a ligando*, and ſo long as they continue upon the ſea, they belong to the admiral, but if they are caſt upon the land, they are then called a wreck, and belong to him that hath the wreck, as appears in *Co. lib.* 5. *fol.* 106. *See* FLOTSAM.

LALAND. *See* DENMARK.

LAMP BLACK, to what duties liable. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

LAMPI. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

LA MASTRE is a port in the Black Sea, tolerably ſecure, and where a pretty good commerce is carried on, conſiſting chiefly in packthread and ſpun yarn for cordage and cables, of which there are annually loaded for Conſtantinople, at leaſt, eight ſaicks; there alſo goes from hence, and ſeveral other neighbouring ports, a large quantity of wood, the greateſt part for Conſtantinople, where it is employed in the grand ſeignior's yards for building the men of war and galleys; the maſts in particular are very good, and ſo long, that they have ſerved for ſixty and ſeventy gun ſhips, all of a piece.

LANCASTER PORT. The preamble of 23 *Geo.* II. page 259, &c. ſets forth, that the town of Lancaſter in the county palatine of Lancaſter, from its great and extenſive commerce to the Weſt-Indies, and other foreign parts, is now become a very conſiderable port, and has, for ſome time paſt, employed and maintained great numbers of ſhips and mariners, to the great advancement of the revenue, and the improvement of the trade and navigation of this kingdom: and that the navigation of the river Loyne, (otherwiſe called Lune) is become very difficult and dangerous; and that the only place near the town,

where ſhips can be moored and diſcharged, is, by reaſon of the ſhoals and other obſtructions in the ſoil of the river, become very unfit and unſafe for that purpoſe, inſomuch that many ſhips and veſſels ſtationed there, have been over ſet and damaged: and it is conceived to be highly neceſſary for the benefit and improvement of the ſaid navigation, that a quay or wharf, with other conveniencies, ſhould be built on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the river, and that buoys ſhould be placed at the entrance into, and in other parts of the river, and land-marks erected for directing of ſhips; and that a place of ſafety ſhould be made for the harbouring and protection of the ſhipping, near the mouth of the river: and that the Rev. James Fenton, L. L. D. vicar of the pariſh church of Lancaſter, is, in right thereof, ſeized of divers parcels of land and ground, which are commodiouſly ſituated for the purpoſes aforeſaid; and that the right reverend Samuel, lord biſhop of Cheſter, the Ordinary, Edward Marton, Eſq; patron of the advowſon of the vicarage of the ſaid church, and the ſaid James Fenton, the preſent incumbent, have reſpectively agreed, that the ſaid parcels of ground ſhall be diſpoſed of, for the purpoſes herein after mentioned, ſubject to the rents, reſervations, and reſtrictions herein after expreſſed: wherefore, for promoting and carrying on a deſign ſo beneficial, it is enacted, that all that parcel of land, being part of a certain cloſe, called the Bridge Field, belonging to the church of Lancaſter, and containing three roods and thirty-two perches; and alſo that parcel of land, being part of another cloſe, called the Hay Field, belonging alſo to the ſaid church, and containing thirty-two perches; and alſo all that parcel of land called the Summer Paſture, belonging alſo to the ſaid church, and containing about three acres, five roods, and thirty-two perches, ſituate and contiguous to the ſouth-weſt ſide of the river Loyne, with their rights, members, and appurtenances, ſhall, from and after 28 Apr. 1750, be veſted in Abraham Rawlinſon, William Butterfield, and John Bowes, merchants of Lancaſter, their heirs, and aſſigns, abſolutely diſcharged of all claims, &c. from the ſaid James Fenton, and his ſucceſſors, vicars of the ſaid pariſh church, for ever; to the uſes and truſts herein after mentioned, viz. to the intent that the ſaid James Fenton, and his ſucceſſors, vicars of the ſaid church, ſhall enjoy out of the ſame premiſſes the annual rent of 14l. 14s. free of all deductions whatſoever, by four quarterly payments, to be made on May 1, Auguſt 1, November 1, and February 1, in every year, for ever; the firſt payment to be made on May 1, 1750. And, if the ſaid annual ſum ſhall be unpaid for twenty days after any of the times before limited for payment thereof, the ſaid vicar, and his ſucceſſors, may enter and diſtrain upon the premiſes, and make ſale of the diſtreſs, and receive the iſſues, till the ſaid rent, and all arrears, with the coſts and charges, and all damages be fully paid.

The parcels of land, before mentioned and deſcribed, ſhall go to the uſe of the ſaid Abraham Rawlinſon, William Butterfield, and John Bowes, their heirs, &c. in truſt, that the ſame may be employed as a quay or wharf, and for ſuch other purpoſes, and under ſuch directions, as are herein after preſcribed.

When any of the truſtees, in whom the lands are veſted, ſhall die, the commiſſioners and truſtees appointed for other purpoſes of this act, are to nominate another, &c.

The commiſſioners and truſtees appointed for the purpoſes herein after mentioned, are to cauſe the parcels of ground aforeſaid to be divided from the other parts of the vicarage lands by a good and ſufficient ſtone wall, two yards high above the ground, next the church, to be built with lime and ſand, and to extend from a ſtile, to be in like manner built and made, at their expence, at the end of a garden wall, (adjoining to the town of Lancaſter) now belonging to Mary Maſon, widow, through and over the Bridge Field and Hay Field, to the fence that divides the Hay Field from the Summer Paſture; and they are to keep up and repair (as often as occaſion requires) the ſaid fence, wall, and ſtile, and all the hedges, ditches, mounds, and fences, ſeparating the lands, ſettled by this act from the reſt of the vicarage lands, ſo as to prevent any treſpaſſes or damages to be done to the ſaid vicar or his ſucceſſors; and they are alſo to cauſe a ſufficient watering place, or reſervoir of water, to be made in ſuch convenient part in the ſaid Bridge Field (not ſettled by this act) as the ſaid James Fenton ſhall appoint, for watering the cattle, depaſturing in the vicarage lands; and, in caſe of any overflow thereof, the waters are to be turned into the river Loyne, at their expence, upon application made to any of them for that purpoſe, ſo as to prevent any damage to be done to the ſaid lands; and, upon their refuſal or neglect ſo to do, the vicar and his ſucceſſors may turn off the ſaid water or watering place into the river, by ſuch ways, and in ſuch manner, as he ſhall think proper.

The occupiers of ſuch parts of the vicarage lands as are not ſettled by this act, ſhall have the liberty of taking ſand all along the cloſe called the Summer Paſture, betwixt the banks thereof, and the low-water mark in the river Loyne, in order to cultivate the ſaid lands, with free liberty of ingreſs and regreſs for that purpoſe; and of driving their cattle, depaſturing in the vicarage lands, over the Summer Paſture, to water; the ways for theſe purpoſes to be appointed by the commiſſioners and truſtees, and by the vicar; and, upon their refuſal or neglect to comply therewith, the vicar may appoint ſuch ways for the purpoſes above, as he ſhall think proper, and he and his tenants may make uſe thereof; and the vicar (until the diviſion-wall above deſcribed is built and finiſhed) is to have the herbage of ſuch parts of the ſaid Bridge Field and Hay Field, as are above mentioned, and intended to be allotted to the quay, and no doors or ways are to be opened through the diviſion-wall or fence, without the licence of the vicar for the time being.

The mayor of Lancaſter for the time being, Francis Reynolds, Edward Marton, Eſqrs. &c. are appointed commiſſioners and truſtees for executing the powers and purpoſes of this act, until the firſt Wedneſday in May, 1755, &c.

Such merchants or other perſons as ſhall, in his or their own right for the time being, be poſſeſſed of a ſixteenth, or other greater part of any veſſel of the burden of fifty tons or upwards, then actually belonging to the town or port of Lancaſter, are impowered to meet at the Exchange on the firſt Wedneſday in May, 1755, and ſo on every firſt Wedneſday in the ſaid month, in every third year, for ever, and nominate ſixteen ſubſtantial inhabitants of the town, to be joined with the mayor for the time being, to be commiſſioners and truſtees for building a quay or wharf, with all other neceſſary works and conveniences upon the premiſſes ſettled by this act, and for letting or otherwiſe diſpoſing of the ſame for the advantage of the the ſaid navigation; and for making places of ſecurity by erecting piers or moles at the mouth of the river for the preſervation of the ſhipping, and for doing all matters and things which they ſhall think requiſite for improving the navigation of the ſaid river Loyne, and for the other purpoſes of this act.

From and after the 30th of April, 1750, there ſhall be paid unto the commiſſioners and truſtees, or their collectors, for the term of twenty-one years, for every veſſel coming into, or going out of the river Loyne, between Lancaſter Bridge and the Perch at Cockerſand Abbey, (ſhips of war, and other veſſels in his majeſty's ſervice, and ſhips driven in by ſtreſs of weather, and not lading or unlading within the port, and ſhips laden with coal or other fuel only excepted) the ſeveral duties of tonage following, viz.

For every ſhip or veſſel coming into, or going out of, the port of Lancaſter, and trading to or from any port or place in Europe, within the Streights or Mediterranean Sea, or in Africa, America, or Greenland, one ſhilling for every ton of the burden of ſuch ſhip. N. B. The reaſon of this advanced number is becauſe this was put in a ſchedule after the act.

For every ſhip or veſſel coming into, or going out of, the ſaid port, and trading to or from any foreign port or place in Europe, (except Ireland, the Iſle of Man, and the Streights, or Mediterranean Sea) eight-pence for every ton of the burden of ſuch ſhip.

For every ſhip, veſſel, bark, or lighter, coming into, or going out of the ſaid port, and trading to or from any port or place in Great-Britain, ſituate ſouth of Holy-Head, or north of the Mull of Galloway, ſix-pence for every ton of the burden of ſuch ſhip or veſſel.

For every ſhip, veſſel, bark, or lighter, coming into, or going out of the ſaid port, and trading to or from any port or place in Ireland, or the Iſle of Man, four-pence for every ton of the burden of ſuch ſhip or veſſel.

For every ſhip, veſſel, bark, or lighter, coming into, or going out of, the ſaid port, and trading to or from any port or place in Great-Britain, north of Holyhead, or ſouth of the Mull of Galloway, two-pence for every ton of the burden of ſuch ſhip or veſſel.

And for every ſhip, veſſel, bark, or lighter, coming in ballaſt into the ſaid river Loyne, and not lading or unlading within the ſaid port, for every ton one-fourth part of the rates charged on any ſhip or veſſel of the ſame burden.

The duties are to be paid at ſuch time and place as the commiſſioners and truſtees ſhall appoint; but no veſſel is liable to pay the duties inwards and outwards for the ſame voyage.

All veſſels, ſubject to the payment of the ſaid duties, are to be meaſured according to the rules of admeaſurement laid down in the act of 6 *Geo.* I. intitled, *An Act for preventing Frauds and Abuſes in the public Revenues of Exciſe, Cuſtoms*, &c. and the duties of tonnage are to be computed accordingly.

After the expiration of the term of twenty-one years, one moiety of the ſaid duties is to ceaſe, and the other moiety is to be continued, and paid in the manner aforeſaid, for keeping the quay and other works in repair.

No officer of the Cuſtoms of the port of Lancaſter ſhall clear any veſſel until the maſter produces a certificate of the payment of the duties of this act, &c.

The commiſſioners and truſtees are impowered to make by-laws, &c. and to contract *bona fide* for building the quay, &c.

The commiſſioners, &c. are impowered to borrow a ſum, not exceeding two thouſand pounds, on the duties, at five *per cent. per annum*, wherewith to make the new intended quay, &c.

The collectors are impowered to go on board any veſſel to meaſure her, and demand the duties, and for nonpayment, &c. may diſtrain, and, after ten days, ſell the diſtreſs, &c.

All perſons who ſhall have any buſineſs to tranſact upon the ſaid quay or wharf, in the mercantile way, or otherwiſe, and for the benefit of loading and unloading veſſels on the ſouth-weſt ſide of the river Loyne, may paſs and repaſs freely through the Cuſtom-houſe yard with carriages, and otherwiſe, to and from the ſaid quay, as need ſhall require.

The commiſſioners, &c. for the unloading any veſſel that may come on ground on the Seale Ford, or on the ſhoals thereabouts, may open a road out of the Summer Paſture aforeſaid, over Lancaſter March, over which all perſons in the mercantile way may paſs and repaſs with carriages, as occaſion ſhall require, to and from the quay at Lancaſter.

The commiſſioners, &c. may agree for the purchaſe of the weigh-houſe, ſtanding in the Cuſtom-houſe yard, with the appurtenances; and uſe the ſite and ſoil thereof, for the making the new quay aforeſaid, and diſpoſe of the materials for ſuch purpoſes as they ſhall think requiſite.

The commiſſioners, &c. may contract for the purchaſe of any lands, tenements, and hereditaments, which ſhall be adjudged neceſſary and convenient for the purpoſes aforeſaid, &c. And this act ſhall be deemed a public act, &c.

LANCASHIRE, being a country very fertile both in wool and flax, affords employ for the natives in the large manufactures of cloths and linens eſtabliſhed there, of which the principal ones are at Mancheſter, Bolton, and their vicinage, where are likewiſe made rugs, Turkey-work chairs, pumiſtones, duffels, &c. and at Rochdale and its neighbourhood, as well as the afore-mentioned towns, are alſo made cottons and fuſtians of various ſorts, kerſeys, tickens, and, above all, large quantities of bays, in imitation of Bockings, and ſhipped off directly for the Portugal markets as ſuch. Its produce are rock ſalt, ſome black lead, charr, and cannel coal, which does not only ſerve for a delightful fuel, but for making utenſils and toys, as fine to look on as the higheſt poliſhed jet, and ſo free from leaving any tinge, that the whiteſt linen may be rubbed on it without receiving any ſoil; this county and Somerſetſhire produce the largeſt oxen in England, and its dairies afford plenty of good cheeſe.

LANDED INTEREST. The reaſon why the decline of foreign trade ſinks the value of land, is Firſt, by ſinking the markets at home; for the produce of land being rendered exceſſively dear, from the cauſes below enumerated *, foreigners will not take its ſuperfluities; and labour being by the ſame cauſes rendered exceſſively dear too, we cannot manufacture, or improve that produce, nations that can afford cheaper ſupplying the markets abroad; ſo that the produce of the lands not being carried off as uſual, muſt become a dead ſtock on the farmer's hands, and cauſe great quantities to be crowded into the markets, where being encouragement but for few buyers, the price naturally falls: as, for inſtance, the declining demand for our woollen goods abroad falls the price of wooll at home.

* The foreign trade of every country muſt decline, that

1. Lays unequal taxes in general on its people.
2. That cramps its commerce, the fountain of riches, by high duties, and impolitic prohibitions.
3. That ſuffers many monopolies.
4. That oppreſſes its people by prohibiting the importation of victuals, under the pretence of raiſing the value of its lands.
5. That encourages idleneſs by bad laws relating to its poor
6. That tempts foreigners to carry away its coin for leſs than its intrinſic value.
7. That makes the obtaining juſtice chargeable.
8. That ſuffers a heavy national debt, contracted in time of war, to continue unpaid in time of peace.

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| Suppoſe that in 1669, we exported to Turkey forty thouſand cloths, the value of raw wool in each being two pounds, amounts to | l. 80,000 |
| Suppoſe that, in 1738, we exported to Turkey eight thouſand cloths, the value of raw wool in each being one pound ten ſhillings amounts to | 12,000 |
| The difference of the value of wool exported in thoſe two years | l. 68,000 |

Wools of this value, lying yearly on hand, muſt make a glut; the farmers puſh to ſell at market, but in vain, unleſs at under-prices; for the wool-ſtaplers, finding the demand decreaſes, decreaſe in number themſelves; ſome break, ſome leave off trade, ſome take to other trades; for many ſellers, with great ſtocks on hand, and few buyers, naturally fall the markets; and the landlords preſſing the tenants for rent, and threatening to ſeize if payments are not made, the wool muſt be ſold at any rate to raiſe money, and there being yearly ſixty-eight thouſand pounds leſs money brought into the nation, to be laid out in wool, than in former times, the price muſt be ſtill lower on that account; the lower the produce ſells, the leſs rent the farmer can give for the land; the worſe the markets, the greater arrears of rent the farmer runs into; and taxes, monopolies, &c. making neceſſaries grow dearer, and the decay of foreign trade making the wool ſell cheaper, muſt break him in the end, and then the farm is thrown on the landlord's hands, who, unwilling to fall the rent, keeps it in the management of ſtewards or bailiffs, whoſe profits and charges ſeldom make it pay the old rent, but generally end in mortgaging the land, or ſelling it; and, as theſe caſes grow more frequent, more eſtates will be at market, and, conſequently, the leſs prices they will fetch.

Secondly, by increaſing the number of poor, to burden the land.

The poor, wanting employment, muſt be ſupported by the land; if foreigners give them work, they give them bread; but, when trade cannot maintain them, land muſt. When the poors rates are heavier than the tenant can bear, the landlord muſt pay them, either by allowance in the rent, or by taking the farm into his own hands; or elſe by breaking of his tenant, who has paid that money to the poor's rates his landlord ſhould have received.

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|---|---|
| Suppoſe, in 1669, the labour of the above forty thouſand cloths to have given employment to | 40,000 people. |
| Suppoſe, in 1738, the labour of the above eight thouſand cloths to have given employment to | 8,000 people. |
| The difference is | 32,000 people. |
| Suppoſe theſe thirty-two thouſand people to have earned by their labour formerly, from foreigners, ſix pounds *per annum* each, it amounts to | l. 192,000 |
| But, wanting employment, they come on the pariſh, at one ſhilling and ſix-pence *per* week each, which, for one year, amounts to | 124,800 |
| The difference to the landholder, in one year is | l. 316,800 |

For as the land, by the decay of foreign trade, receives not the firſt ſum, and is, by the ſame cauſe, ſaddled with the latter, it makes an annual difference of the above ſums to the landholders in this ſingle branch of labour, and is the ſame in proportion for all other decayed branches of trade.

Thirdly, by decreaſing the ſtock of people.

For, as employment leſſens, the moſt induſtrious, rather than ſtarve here, will fly to other countries, where trade can maintain them; ſo, the conſumption of theſe being taken away, the demand at market muſt grow leſs, and, of courſe, rents muſt fall, yet the farmers charges muſt grow greater, for the fewer hands, the higher wages are; this muſt break him in the end, and produce all the conſequences following that misfortune, mentioned in the firſt remark: beſides, it is men that trade, and bring in money, therefore, the fewer they are, the leſs money will be brought in; and, the leſs money, the leſs rent can be given for land.

Fourthly, by decreaſing our riches.

This is a conſequence of the above three remarks; for having fewer goods capable of being exported, by reaſon of their dear price, and our manufactures declining, muſt, in time, be loſt: therefore the importation of foreign goods muſt naturally increaſe, and more money go out to pay for them.

Nations that have no mines of gold and ſilver, have no means to get them but by foreign trade, and, according to the degree of theſe metals they poſſeſs, the prices of their commodities, and therewith the value of their lands, riſe and fall in proportion; which we ſhall now prove.

The *Britannia Languens*, page 12, ſays, if there were but five hundred pounds in England, an ox could hardly be worth a penny; therefore the rent muſt bear its proportion to the riches. This appears by Maitland's Hiſtory of London; for he ſays, that in the year 961, land ſold at one ſhilling *per* acre. The reaſon the land then bore ſo low a price, was, the low price the produce ſold at; for, he ſays, that in the year 1000, an ox ſold for two ſhillings and ſix-pence, a cow for two ſhillings, a ſheep for one ſhilling, and a ſwine for eight-pence. This could be only owing to the little foreign trade the nation then had, and, conſequently, to the little quantity of gold and ſilver trade had then brought in.

But if it ſhould be aſked, what is the reaſon that, at preſent, all things are naturally ſo much advanced in price, to what they were in thoſe days? The anſwer is, that the quantities of gold and ſilver brought to Europe ſince the progreſs made by the Spaniards and Portugueze in America, have made theſe metals more common, and of leſs value than formerly, ſo that twenty ſhillings will hardly purchaſe what one ſhilling would before the diſcovery of the Weſt-Indies *.

* Let there be added to this conſideration, the great increaſe of our national debts and taxes, in conſequence thereof, together with the circulation of the intereſt of the principal money of the public funds; and likewiſe that great circulation of paper credit in trade, occaſioned by notes and bills in the way of private credit, which is deſtructive of our trade. Alſo the circulation of property by mortgages, and by means of the public ſecurities in general; for, although one is obliged to take annunities in payment, yet who would refuſe them on peculiar occaſions? Theſe things all conſpire to promote an artificial circulation of property, which raiſes the price of commodities, and has the appearance, with too many, of the riches of the nation; whereas, theſe things are the characteriſtics of a declining condition, and that we ſtand in need of a quantity of real hard money to circulate what trade we have, and are therefore obliged to make uſe of paper credit, which is only its repreſentative, and proceeds from our apparent neceſſities, not from our increaſe of ſolid treaſure. This is certainly the caſe, unleſs it can be proved that our national debts, and the taxes on labour and commodities occaſioned thereby, are bleſſings; and that, the more we increaſe our debts, the richer the nation will be. Perhaps too, ſome will attempt to perſuade us, that the more mortgages of land there are in the kingdom, and the oftenener they are transferred, and the more private paper credit paſſes in trade, inſtead of ready caſh, the richer the nation is; but theſe are egregious miſtakes, and ought to be vigilantly guarded againſt; for, upon the annihilation of this ſhew of artificial wealth, the price of labour and commodities will fall to their natural value; which will be the means of ſo increaſing our trade, that our paper circulation will become realized by ſolid gold and ſilver; and then the price of labour and commodities will be reduced to a natural ſtate, according to the real, and not the imaginary riches of the nation.

The Spaniards and Portugueſe do not throw away their gold and ſilver for us to pick up; we have no mines of theſe metals, therefore could not get ſuch quantities as we have, but by our trade to Spain and Portugal, or to thoſe countries that had an overbalance upon them, and were overbalanced by us.

So that the preſent natural price of land, and its produce, is the proportion of gold and ſilver that foreign trade hath brought into, and left in the nation. If the preſent quantity was to be doubled by foreign trade, the natural price of land, and its produce, muſt be ſo too; for, according to the price, the farmer can ſell his commodity at market, he can pay for the rent of land, and no otherwiſe. If our foreign trade decays until the preſent money in the nation be half ſwept away, the produce of land muſt fell for half the natural price it does now, and land muſt let at half the rent it naturally bears now: but if we ſhould go on declining, until we have no more money left in the nation than there was in 961 or 1000, the prices of land, and its produce, can be no more than they bore in thoſe days, taxes, &c. deducted.

Therefore, if the landed gentlemen have a mind to raiſe or ſink the value of their lands, the encouraging, or diſcouraging our foreign trade, is the only means to do either, ſo cloſely united are land and trade; their true intereſts are the ſame; they muſt ſtand or fall together.

The ſum of all is this; that

| | |
|---|---|
| What foreigners take from others, inſtead of us, | Sinks the value of lands. |
| What the poor have given them inſtead of buying, | |
| The ſcarcity of people, | |
| The ſcarcity of money, | |

Taxes, monopolies, ill-judged laws, and national debts, are the cauſes of the decline of our foreign trade; the decline of foreign trade cauſes the above calamities, and they ſink the value of lands.

Our chief intent, from what has been ſaid, is to remove the deſtructive prejudice ariſing from the falſe diſtinction of landing and trading intereſt, by ſhewing that there neither is, or can be, any difference of intereſt between them; for whatever clogs trade, muſt ſink the value of lands, and that any benefit to trade, how remote ſoever it may ſeem from land, will at laſt terminate in the increaſe of its value; therefore we may dare to affirm, that the giving trade the utmoſt encouragement is the greateſt and moſt ſolid improvement of the value of lands. "It muſt be evident, ſays the author of *Britannia Languens*, p. 290, that, were our trade eaſed as our neighbour nations, England would have the ſuperiority, ſince the ſame cauſes muſt produce greater effects in England, being invigorated with thoſe narional advantages, which no other nation doth, or can enjoy."

We

We will ſuppoſe too, that the Britiſh landed gentleman cannot avoid diſcerning, that his own private intereſt is intimately connected with that of the national commerce; and, if ſo, he is nearly concerned to promote its benefit and advantage, in every ſhape poſſible; and can any thing be more conducive to this great end, than the due improvement of every inch of his land? for, as the proſperity of land depends upon that of trade, ſo that of trade equally depends upon the culture, and other beneficial management of the land. The more uſeful and eſtimable productions the land affords, as articles of merchandizing, the more treaſure will the trader be capable of bringing into the kingdom, by vending them in foreign markets.

LAND-CARRIAGE OUTWARDS. All foreign goods ſent by land-carriage, from one part of this kingdom to another, as the law at preſent ſtands, muſt be accompanied with certificates, under the hands of the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller of the port from whence they are ſent; otherwiſe any officer of the cuſtoms may ſtop them, till due proof be made that the duties have been paid, &c. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 39, 42. And all brandy, arrac, rum, ſpirits, or ſtrong waters, exceeding the quantity of one gallon, ſo ſent, muſt be likewiſe accompanied with a permit, or certificate from an officer of the exciſe, or cuſtoms, expreſſing the quantity and quality, and ſignifying that the duties have been paid, or that the ſame has been condemned. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 18.

And, with reſpect to wool, wool fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool flocks, fuller's earth, fulling clay, or tobacco pipe clay, it muſt be obſerved, that no packs, ſacks, bags, or caſks thereof, may be loaden on any horſe, cart, or other carriage, or be conveyed by land, to or from any place in Great-Britain, within five miles of the ſea coaſt, but in the day time, and at ſeaſonable hours, that is, between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, with the horſes, carriages, &c. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 9. and 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 8.

For all other regulations relating to wool, and for the form of a certificate, or let paſs, ſee the directions hereafter given; but for all other goods, it muſt be as follows, viz.

A land-carriage certificate, or let-paſs, for any other goods than wool.

*Port of Southampton.*

KNOW ye, that Benjamin Shaw is permitted to paſs three caſks, containing four hundred weight and eighteen pounds of raiſins ſolis, in the waggon, [coach, cart, &c.] of Benjamin Daws, for Briſtol. To be in force ſix days from the date hereof, and no longer.

L. S. Cuſtomer.
L. S. Comptroller.

Dated the 12th of January, 1767.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

*Note*, The time theſe certificates are to be in force, muſt be limited, in proportion to the diſtances of the places where the goods are to be ſent.

Before a land-carriage certificate is granted for foreign goods, oath muſt be made on the back, that the duties of the goods therein mentioned have been paid, or that they were bought in a fair and lawful way of trade, &c. or if the goods are to be exported from the port to which they are deſigned to be ſent, and receive the drawback, a particular certificate of the collector, &c. muſt be granted, as directed at the granting of ſufferance for the ſhipping of foreign goods, to be be ſent coaſtways by water.

And before the certificate be delivered to the merchant, it muſt be entered in a book, to be kept for that purpoſe, thus:

*Land-carriage certificate outwards.*

*To what place.* *Time to be in force,*
12th of January, 1767, 6 days.
In the waggon, &c. of Benj. Daws.
Benjamin Shaw.
3 caſks, containing 4 C. 18lb. raiſins ſolis.

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Cuſtomer.
C. D. Comptroller.

For all goods (but eſpecially wines) in order to ſecure the London duty, ſent by land-carriage to London, a duplicate of the cerrificate muſt be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners, the firſt poſt after granted, thus:

*Port of Southampton.*

An account of wines, &c. ſent by land-carriage to London, 13th of January, 1767.

George White, 3 baſkets, containing 18 gallons of French wine, paid duty by E. H. the 18th of November laſt.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller.

The foregoing are inſtructions for, and general rules to be obſerved, by the officers of the cuſtoms, in relation to goods ſent from one port or part of Great Britain to another, either by water or land: but, Britiſh wool being (to prevent exportation) under very particular regulations, it may be proper here to ſhew the ſeveral requiſites to be performed, from the time of ſheering to the removal to the laſt place, where it is to be conſumed or manufactured.

*Regulations relating to Britiſh wool.*

Britiſh wool ſhorn or houſed, laid up or lodged within ten miles of the ſea-ſide, within the counties of Kent and Suſſex, muſt be entered with the officers of the cuſtoms, at the next adjoining port, within three days after the ſheering, by a certificate under the hand of the proprietor. And, in all other counties, Britiſh wool having been carried from the place of ſheering to the proprietor's own houſe, within five miles, or leſs, of the ſea, muſt, within ten days after ſheering, be entered with the officer of the cuſtoms at the next port, by a certificate under the proprietor's hand. 9 & 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 3. 1 *Will.* & *M. c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

Which entries, certificates, or notices, muſt be in form following:

This is to certify, that I A. B. of C. have ſhorn two hundred fleeces of ſheep's wool, and the wool of one hundred lambs, and have lodged the ſame at my dwelling-houſe at C. Witneſs my hand this 14th of July, 1766.

A. B.

*Note*, If through ignorance the wool be not entered in time, and the proprietors will come and voluntarily enter the ſame, making oath of their ignorance of the laws, and that the wool, in queſtion, is numerically the ſame, both for quantity and quality, that the owner ſheered the laſt ſummer, and no part has been ſince removed, or exported, it may then be regiſtered, &c.

The proprietors having thus entered their wool, it muſt be regiſtered in a book for that purpoſe, by way of charge on ſuch proprietors, and a certificate of the entry granted them in form following, viz.

*Port of Southampton.*

A. B. of C. hath entered two hundred fleeces of ſheep's wool, and the wool of one hundred lambs. Certified the 14th day of July, 1766.

B. C. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

And, by 1 *Will.* & *M. c.* 32. *ſ.* 3. 9 & 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 3. with reſpect to the buyers of wool, it muſt be obſerved, that every perſon reſiding within fifteen miles of the ſea, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, who intends to become a buyer or dealer in wool, before he preſumes ſo to do, muſt, with ſufficient ſureties, become bound to his majeſty in the following manner, viz.

The condition of this obligation is ſuch, that the above bound B. C. who is a dealer in wool, ſhall not again ſell any part of the wool, which he ſhall at any time hereafter buy, to any perſon or perſons reſiding within fifteen miles

of the ſea, in the counties of Kent or Suſſex, and ſhall not tranſport nor ſell the ſame to any other perſon, or perſons, to be tranſported, but ſhall well and truly obſerve all the acts of parliament made againſt the tranſportation of wool; then this obligation ſhall be void, or elſe to remain in full force and virtue.

A. B. *
B. C. *
C. D. *

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
D. E. Collector.
E. F. Comptroller.

And, by 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 9. 7 & 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 8. when the proprietor has ſold the wool, at leaſt three days before the removal, he muſt certify it to the officers of the cuſtoms, upon the back of the aforementioned certificate of entry, mentioning the time when it is to be delivered, thus:

This is to certify, that I have ſold the wool within mentioned, weighing fifty tods, eighteen pounds, to B. C. of E. to be delivered him there the fifteenth day of September, 1766.

Witneſs my hand this ſeventh of September, 1766.

A. B.

Then, if the intention of removal is regularly certified, a let-paſs (to be in force no longer than the time appointed for the delivery) may be granted for the removal, thus:

*Port of Southampton.*

Know ye, that B. C. is permitted to paſs by land-carriage, in the day-time, as the law directs, from the houſe of A. B. of C. to his own houſe, with two hundred fleeces of ſheep's wool, and the wool of one hundred lambs, weighing fifty tods, and eighteen pounds; it being the wool of the ſaid A. B. entered here the 14th day of July laſt, and now certified to be ſold to B. C. as aforeſaid. To be in force four days, from the ſeventh day of this preſent September, and no longer.

Dated at the Cuſtom-houſe,
the 8th day of September, 1766.

LAND-CARRIAGE INWARDS. Though foreign goods, carried by land from one port of this kingdom to another, ſhould be accompanied with a certificate; yet, that being only an authority for any officer of the cuſtoms not to ſtop them, by 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 39, 42. there is no occaſion to deliver in ſuch certificate at the cuſtom-houſe when the goods arrive at the intended port, unleſs they are intended to be exported from thence, and the duties intended to be drawn-back; or they are prohibited Eaſt India goods, coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, or pepper, ſent from London, in order to be exported.

As to the form and general direction of theſe certificates inwards, and of the payment of duties for goods to be exported, they are the ſame as for the diſpatches outwards; but with reſpect to the following goods, they are under theſe additional regulations, viz.

I. Prohibited Eaſt-India goods—When intended to be ſent by land-carriage to any out-port, to be thence exported to foreign parts, by 11 & 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 2. ſecurity for the due exportation is taken at London, before they may be delivered out of the warehouſes in which they were firſt lodged: and, on ſuch ſecurity, a cocket is granted for the delivery of the goods, and their conveyance to the intended port, in form following, viz.

*A cocket for prohibited Eaſt-India goods ſent by land-carriage from London.*

*London.*

Know ye that Andrew Bell ind' hath entered twenty taſſeties, forty cuſhtaes, ten photaes, fifteen damaſks, twelve pelongs, which paid duty out of time; late unladen, and now by land-carriage to Southampton, and ſo for exportation.

Dated the 3d of March, 1766,
*Anno ſexto Georgii Tertii*, &c.
C. D. Collector outwards.
D. E. Comptroller (ſurveyor, or ſurveyor-general)

* Loc. Sig.

On the back are to be ſpecified the ſeveral packages, with the particular contents of each.

The ſearcher in London having executed this cocket, it is to be returned to the commiſſioners, who ſend it by the poſt to the collector of the port; and, the goods being likewiſe directed to him, he is, by virtue of the cocket, to demand them of the carrier, &c. in order to have them lodged in the cuſtom-houſe warehouſe till exportation, obſerving whether the package be agreeable to the indorſement on the cocket, and under the ſeal of the officers of London: and, if the goods do not arrive within twenty days of the date of the commiſſioners letter, they are to be acquainted thereof.

And when the merchant declares his intention of exporting ſuch goods, and has paſſed an entry at the port, the London cocket is to be delivered to the proper officer, who, before ſhipping for exportation, is to open and examine the goods, to ſee if they agree in quantity and quality; and, the next poſt after the goods are ſhipped off, the commiſſioners muſt be acquainted with the proceedings.

II. Coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and pepper—When deſigned to be ſent by land-carriage to any out-port, after proper ſecurity, by 8 *Ann*, *c.* 7. *ſ.* 20. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 26. has been given for the due exportation, a cocket is granted for the delivery out of the warehouſe, and conveyance to the intended port, in form following, viz.

*A cocket for coffee, tea, or cocoa-nuts, ſent by land-carriage from London.*

*London.*

Know ye, that Andrew Bell ind' hath entered five hundred twenty-four pounds weight of tea, by the united Eaſt India company, the 18th of Auguſt laſt; late unladen, and now by land-carriage to Southampton, and ſo for exportation.

Dated the 3d of March, 1766,
*Anno ſexto Georgii Tertii*, &c.
C. D. Collector outwards.
D. E. Comptroller (ſurveyor, or ſurveyor-general)

* Loc. Sig.

For the form of a cocket for pepper, ſee that for prohibited Eaſt India goods: and as to the whole proceedings of ſending the coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, and pepper, with the cockets, to the collector, and the method of ſhipping them off at the port, they are the ſame as directed for prohibited Eaſt India goods, remembering, that, at the examination, they muſt be carefully weighed.

And when any foreign goods intitled to a draw-back, which came by land-carriage from any other port, have been exported to foreign parts, a debenture muſt be made out, to be ſent to the port where the duties of ſuch goods had been before paid, at the time of their importation, to intitle the exporter, or his agent, to demand the draw-back of the collector of ſuch port. 2d Rule of the book of Rates, p. 177, 178.

LANDSKIP PAINTER. There are a few painters in London who ſolely apply themſelves to landſkip-painting, and take apprentices to that buſineſs. The youth who hopes to make a diſtinguiſhed figure in this art, by being put apprentice to one of the maſters, ought to have a genius for painting, which he ſhould cultivate by learning early to draw, and by obtaining a perfect knowledge of the rules of perſpective. He ſhould become a careful obſerver of nature, to prevent his mingling, in one piece, the fruits and flowers of different ſeaſons; and, while he is apprentice, he ſhould ſometimes copy for his own uſe the beauties of an uncommonly fine ſky; and for that purpoſe ſhould view the gilded clouds that adorn the riſing and the ſetting ſun. He ſhould endeavour to give ſainter colourings to diſtant objects; and, by obſerving the different ſtrength of light and ſhades at different times of the day

day and of the year, endeavour to improve as much from nature, as from the pictures, and the leſſons of his maſter. Thoſe of this buſineſs take from twenty to a hundred guineas with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may, if he has an extenſive acquaintance among perſons of diſtinguiſhed taſte and fortune, eaſily ſet up for himſelf.

LAND-SURVEYOR. The youth deſigned for this buſineſs ought to have a liberal education; he ſhould obtain a thorough knowledge of genmetry, and particularly of ſurveying: he ſhould alſo underſtand drawing and perſpective; and it might be well worth his while to viſit France and Italy. The land-ſurveyor is employed in meaſuring land, and in laying it out in gardens, fields, and plantations about gentlemen's ſeats. They may earn a guinea a day, while employed. They take no apprentices; and require very little to ſet up, beſides an extenſive acquaintance among the great; but this is very often extremely difficult to obtain.

LAND-TAX. The ancient method of taxation was by eſcuage, which was on lands held by knight-ſervice; and by tallage on the cities and boroughs, and it was made in this manner: when the king wanted money for his wars, thoſe tenants that did not attend him in perſon, paid him an aid, and the aid was aſſeſſed before the juſtices itinerant. It was generally a gift of all the inhabitants as a body corporate; if they did not give according to the wants of the crown, the juſticiary inquired into their behaviour, and if there were any forfeitures of their charters, *quo warranto's* came out, to ſeize their liberties into the king's hands. But Edward I. found this way of taxing by eſcuage and tallage to be very incomplete; becauſe wars were drawn out into great length and expence; and therefore he formed into diſtinct bodies, the tenants *in capite* that held great baronies, and theſe were called the *barones majores*, (the now peers of parliament,) and the repreſentatives of the *barones minores*, and of ſeveral corporations, viz. the citizens and burgeſſes, of whom he made one body; which now compoſe the houſe of commons.

King Edward the Firſt granted the people *Magna Charta*, which they had long contended for, and alſo the charter of the foreſts; and for *Magna Charta* they granted the king a fifteenth, by the name of *quindecimam partem omnium bonorum*; ſo that inſtead of particular aſſeſſments in cities and boroughs, there was one univerſal aſſeſſment of the fifteenth of all their ſubſtance. This fifteenth ſeems to have been at firſt made out of the eccleſiaſtical tenth; for the popes claimed the tenths of all benefices; it was therefore eaſy to know, by the popes collections of his tenths, what was the value of every eccleſiaſtical benefice, for the pope's tenth was reckoned at two ſhillings *per* pound, and therefore the fifteenth muſt be one ſhilling and four-pence. The benefice conſiſted of the glebe and the tenth part of the townſhip; therefore by the value of the benefices deducting the glebe, they knew the true value of the townſhip, and how to ſet a fifteenth upon it: ſo that the fifteenths of the townſhips were certain ſums, that were ſet by the king's taxors and collectors under the act of parliament; and commiſſioners were granted to the taxors and collectors of them under the great ſeal: but in collecting of the fifteenths the ſums only appeared in the books below. And the collectors of every townſhip, either returned their collection into the Exchequer, or elſe there were head collectors for the whole county, who returned it thither; there were likewiſe commiſſioners appointed, to ſuperviſe ſuch taxation and collection: but about the time of Edward III. there were certain eſtabliſhed ſums ſet upon every townſhip; and ſo, as the king's wants increaſed, they gave one, two, or three fifteenths.

We find in the times of Henry the Eighth, queen Elizabeth, and king James the Firſt, that they raiſed both ſubſidies and fifteenths; this was, becauſe the value of things increaſed, and therefore the old fifteenths were not according to the then true value of townſhips. And therefore they contrived that the ſubſidy ſhould be raiſed by a pound-rate upon lands, and likewiſe a pound-rate upon goods; and we find in the ſubſidy 4 *Car.* (which is ſaid to be the greateſt ſubſidy that ever was given, and which paſſed upon the petition of rights) there was four ſhillings in the pound laid upon lands, and two ſhillings and eight-pence upon goods; now four ſhillings upon land amounts to three fifteenths, and two ſhillings and eight-pence, which was upon goods to two fifteenths; but in this they had no regard to the old rates made in the tax-book of the ſeveral townſhips, otherwiſe than to diſcover the value of the lands; but a method is chalked out by the act of parliament to appoint commiſſioners, aſſeſſors, and collectors, in order to rate and get in the ſaid ſubſidy. This was found very inconvenient, becauſe the commiſſioners uſed to be favourable to their own country, therefore it was found neceſſary to revive ſo far the ancient method, as to appoint a certain ſum; and in the time of the civil war, the long parliament would not ſettle any perſons to appoint commiſſioners, but the appointment of commiſſioners was made in the act itſelf: and in this new manner of taxing, they appointed the ſum to be levied on each particular county, in the act itſelf; as well as the commiſſioners names, and where to levy it: and the ſix aſſociated counties, viz. London, Middleſex, Kent, Suſſex, Surry, and Hertford, being not ſpoiled and pillaged in the civil wars, and more hearty to the parliament intereſt, were taxed higher than any other counties in England.

After the revolution, to ſupport king William in his wars with France, it was neceſſary to come into a land-tax; and from 1684 to 1693, the tax was made by a pound-rate, like the former ſubſidies; but when the people found that the war was like to hold, about 1693, the tax was mightily leſſened, every body being willing to eaſe his neighbour; and then they came to lay a rate upon every county, and the aſſociating counties, being very zealous for the government in the revolution, and having taxed themſelves higher than their neighbours in 1693, it was argued that thoſe counties were better able to bear the tax, and therefore in 1693, they laid the diſproportioned ſums that are now the ſtandard of the land-tax: let us now compare the ſubſidy law, 4 *Car.* I. with the preſent land-tax, and conſider the manner of gathering them.

In the old time, according to the way of making war then uſed, the tenant *per baroniam*, and by knight-ſervice, as is herein before mentioned, were obliged to be in the camp forty days, at their own expence, and the eſcuage was levied upon the defaulters: but when the art of war improved, and armies were brought into the field that continued a long time, they made their taxation by way of ſubſidy; which was ſo much in the pound upon the perſonal and real eſtate; as the ſubſidy of the fourth of king Charles was two ſhillings and eight-pence *per* pound on the perſonal, and four ſhillings *per* pound on the real eſtate; and where there were different times of taxation and collecting, they were called ſo many different ſubſidies; and the ſpirituality gave their tax in convocation, and the temporality in parliament, but the convocation tax always paſſed both houſes of parliament, ſince it could not bind as a law till it had the conſent of the legiſlature. Their tax was made according to the rate in the king's books, and ſince a tenth was paid yearly to the crown, they only taxed the other nine parts, as they ſtood in thoſe books.

The temporality and ſpirituality were taxed in the ſame manner as to their perſonal eſtate, but as to their real eſtate, what was given in convocation excuſed their tax *quoad* their ſpiritualities. The commiſſioners for executing the act were appointed by the lord chancellor, lord treaſurer, or other great officers of the crown, or any two of them, the lord chancellor being one.

The preſent land-tax, though it follows the plan of the ſubſidies, viz. in taxing ſo much on the perſonal, and ſo much on the real eſtate, yet it differs in two material circumſtances, viz. that there is a ſum impoſed on each particular county, and that the commiſſioners are named in the act itſelf; this came in, in the time of the civil war, in this manner; they had firſt taxed according to the pound-rate, but when the zeal of the people fell off, they found it neceſſary to ſet a ſum upon each particular county; and ſo they taxed them accordingly to the higheſt ſum that had been levied in ſuch county, and obliged them to make it up; and they being then in oppoſitinn to the crown, they named the commiſſioners in the act itſelf; and this way of taxing was afterwards followed at the reſtoration, becauſe they found it for the eaſe of the crown to name particular ſums in the act of parliament, and then they named commiſſioners alſo, who were to aſſeſs and rate each particular inhabitant. The commiſſioners by the ſubſidy, were duly to execute that act; but by the land-tax they were

were directed in a particular manner how they ſhould do it: that is to ſay, by making the diſtribution of the particular ſum upon each particular hundred, lathe, and wapentake; but by both laws, they were to ſubdivide themſelves, and the reſpective commiſſioners were not to act out of their diſtrict. The commiſſioners by the land-tax are to give a note to the receiver-general, of the names of the acting commiſſioners, and ſums in each diviſion. We do not find this clauſe in the old ſubſidy law, becauſe it was not neceſſary, where there was not a particular ſum impoſed on each county. The commiſſioners, both in the ſubſidy and land-tax, were to iſſue their precepts to the conſtables and other inhabitants, and to appoint aſſeſſors; and by both laws, the commiſſioners are to give them in charge to make a juſt aſſeſſment, and to return ſuch aſſeſſments to the commiſſioners; who by the land-tax were to return the names of collectors. And by both laws, the perſons aggrieved might appeal from the aſſeſſors to the commiſſioners; and alſo ſtock upon land is excuſed from paying as perſonal eſtate.

By the ſubſidy law, the commiſſioners appointed collectors; but by the land-tax, the aſſeſſors brought in the names of the collectors; becauſe the place was anſwerable for the ſums ſo aſſeſſed, until they were paid in to the receiver-general; and therefore it was neceſſary that the aſſeſſors ſhould appoint collectors: but by the ſubſidy law, there was no particular ſum locally fixed; and therefore the collectors were appointed by the commiſſioners, who acted in behalf of the crown; and collectors names were returned in, by both laws, to the receiver-general or high collectors; and this diſpoſition was, that the receiver might know in whoſe hands the money was. In the ſubſidy, the commiſſioners appointed the high collectors in each ſhire and diviſion, to whom the ſub-collectors were accountable, and the high collectors were accomptants to the Exchequer; and one duplicate of the aſſeſſments was given to the high collector, and the other returned into the Exchequer, to be a charge upon the high collectors receipt: but according to the frame of the land-tax, the receiver is now appointed by the lord treaſurer; and by this law, a duplicate of each particular diviſion is to be given to the receiver-general, and another to be returned into the Exchequer; the duplicate returned to the receiver, is to charge the collectors, and that returned into the Exchequer, to charge the receiver-general.

The high collectors, by the ſubſidy law, gave ſecurity to the commiſſioners by recognizance, to anſwer for the money by them received; but now, the receiver-general, by the conſtitution of the treaſury gives ſecurity to the crown. In the ſubſidy law and land-tax, the under-collector was to diſtrain the parties refuſing to pay the ſum aſſeſſed: and by the ſubſidy law, the under-collectors paid the money collected to the high collector, who was an accomptant at the Exchequer; but by the land-tax, the collectors are to pay in the money to the receiver, and he is the accomptant at the Exchequer. If the collectors did not pay in the money they had collected to the receivers, the commiſſioners were to impriſon them, and ſeize their effects; but if the proportion was not anſwered, the place itſelf was anſwerable by a re-aſſeſſment of the commiſſioners. By both laws, the collectors had precepts and aſſeſſments delivered; and, under ſuch precepts, had authority to diſtrain the lands and goods of the perſons ſo aſſeſſed, by virtue of the act. By both laws, the parties were to be taxed for goods, in the place where they dwelt. By both laws, the diſtreſs was to be ſold, and the over-plus paid to the owner, by the ſubſidy law, in eight days; by the land-tax, in four days: and for neglect or refuſal to pay, and failure of diſtreſs, the party to be impriſoned. By the ſubſidy law, all the commiſſioners joined in one certificate; but now the commiſſioners in each diviſion return their eſtates, which are a charge upon the receiver-general; but in the land-tax, if a non-payment in any place be certified by the receiver under his hand, Exchequer proceſs is to iſſue againſt the acting commiſſioners. By the land-tax, if land doubly taxed comes into proteſtant hands, and they get a certificate from the commiſſioners, and prove the truth of the certificate before the barons, by two credible witneſſes, the court of Exchequer is impowered to diſcharge ſuch ſum from the pariſh or townſhip in which the lands lie, and that diſcharge is carried to the houſe of commons, in order to be diſcharged out of the general ſum the next year. *Gilb. Treat. of the Exchеq.* *See* SUBSIDY, TAX.

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the Cuſtom-houſe, whoſe duty is, upon landing any merchandize, to examine, taſte, weigh, meaſure them, &c. and to take an account thereof. In ſome ports they alſo execute the office of a coaſt-waiter. They are likewiſe occaſionally ſtiled ſearchers, and are to attend and join with the patent ſearchers in the execution of all cockets for the ſhipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts; and, in caſes where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid to the merchant on the exportation of any goods, they, as well as the patent-ſearchers, are to certify the ſhipping thereof on the debentures.

In caſe of *ſufferances* granted for landing goods at an unlawful key, they are ſigned by the land-waiters and ſurveyor, collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller; alſo for *ſufferances* granted for the landing and examining of paſſengers baggage and wearing apparel.

When the goods are entered, and the warrants, ſufferances, &c. granted for the landing and delivering of the ſame, are produced to the land-waiters to whom they are directed (who are to be appointed by the collector, either by noting their names in the margin of the report-book, or in a particular book to be kept for that purpoſe) they are to accept of the ſame (provided the contents of the goods are found to be juſtly repreſented, and the other requiſites duly performed) as an authority for them to permit the landing and delivering; but they may not preſume to examine the goods on board, but muſt order them to be brought on ſhore at the merchants charge; and, in order thereunto, upon receipt of the warrants, &c. they are to certify the entry to the tideſmen on board the ſhip, before the ſaid tideſmen may preſume to permit any goods to be unladen. The form of which certificate muſt be as follows.

*In the Providence of London, James Bell maſter from Rotterdam.*

*Oliver Rook.*

O. R.
N° 1, 2. Two fats
3, 4. Two bags
5a44. Forty bolts
45. One box
46. One caſe
47. One bale

21ſt of January, 1767. A. B. } Land-waiters.
To the officers on board B. C. }
the aforeſaid ſhip.

And if the *ſufferance* permits the landing of the goods at any other place than the lawful keys, the ſame muſt be mentioned on the aforeſaid order, thus:

*Sufferance for* ——

By virtue of the aforeſaid order, the tideſmen on board are to ſuffer the goods to be unladen, and brought on ſhore, and are to deliver them into the charge of the proper land-waiters, who are to attend at the landing of the goods, to examine, taſte, weigh, meaſure, gauge, number, &c. the ſame, according to the nature thereof, and to take an account of the quantities and qualities, in order to adjuſt the duties which are to be paid for the ſame.

That the land-waiter may be duly prepared to take an account of the examination and delivery of the goods, as ſoon as every ſhip is reported, a blank book is to be directed and delivered to each of the land-waiters, whom the collector ſhall think fit to appoint, or direct to ſee ſuch ſhip diſcharged.

The title of which book muſt be as follows:

*Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, 8th day of January, 1767.*

This book contains twelve leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of the lading of the Providence of London, James Bell, maſter, from Holland, reported the 8th day of January, 1767.

B. C. Collector.

And as to ſuch ſhips which do not report, &c. every land-waiter muſt have a general pocket-book delivered to him, wherein he is to enter all warrants directed to him for the delivery of any goods out of ſuch ſhips, with the particular execution thereof. The title of which book muſt be as follows:

This book, containing one hundred leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of all goods landed out of ſuch ſhips as do not report.

B. C. Collector.

In the landing, examining, and delivering all goods and merchandizes, it muſt be carefully obſerved,

1. That no goods may be landed or delivered without a proper warrant, and, if any goods are ſo landed, they are liable to ſeizure.

2. That no more goods may be delivered than what the land-waiters have perfect warrants for; and if, upon examination of ſuch dry goods as pay duty by tale or meaſure, the importer appears to have entered ſhort, the ſaid goods muſt be ſeized, and ſent immediately to his majeſty's warehouſe, in order to be proſecuted; but, in caſe of ſhort entries upon goods paying duties by weight or gauge, the land-waiters muſt give the merchant an account thereof in writing, that he may make a poſt-entry for the ſame, before ſuch goods may be permited to be taken off the keys, unleſs the quantity ſhort-entered be very ſmall; and then if the ſurveyor thinks fit to permit the goods to be carried away before ſuch poſt-entry be made, one of the land-waiters is to go immediately and enter the ſame in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, above ſtairs in the Cuſtom-houſe, that the collector may know the quantity and quality of the goods, in order to demand the duties of the merchant, which the land-waiters are to ſee poſted the next day at the furtheſt; though, in ſtrictneſs, the land-waiters ſhould not give any credit, of which they are to be frequently admoniſhed: and, in order to prevent their giving credit, the ſurveyor muſt, within fourteen days after the expiration of every month, deliver to the collector and comptroller a liſt of all ſhips cleared in the preceding month, with an account of the poſt-entries that were ſtanding out ſix days after the ſhips were cleared; who are to inquire into the reaſons thereof, and charge the officers concerned in giving ſuch credit, to tranſmit their anſwers to the commiſſioners, with their obſervations thereon.

*The form of the aforeſaid poſt-entry book may be as follows:*

*When poſted* N° 47 Lady-day quarter, 1767.

In the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Rotterdam.
Poſt on N° 17.
20th of February, 1767.
Juniper berries.

| | C. | qrs. | lb. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Delivered | 3 | 3 | 14 |
| Entered | 3 | 0 | 4 |
| Short | 0 | 3 | 10 |

C. D. Land-waiter.

27th of February, 1767.
In the Providence aforeſaid. Daniel Fuller.

N° 58 Lady-day quarter, 1767.

Poſt on N° 25

| | crop madder. C. | qrs. | lb. | old iron. tons | C. | qrs. | lb. | broken glaſs. C. | qrs. | lb. | pearl barley. C. | qrs. | lb. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Delivered | 23 | 2 | 7 | 5 | 17 | 3 | 14 | 23 | 1 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 7 |
| Entered | 20 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 00 | 0 | 00 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 0 |
| Short | 3 | 2 | 7 | 0 | 17 | 3 | 14 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 7 |

C. D. Land-waiter.

3. That the account of all goods muſt be taken in the proper books, at the time of examination, &c. and not in any other books or looſe papers.

4. That the marks and number of all caſks, &c. muſt be carefully obſerved, and placed to the proper merchant's account; and that each day's work muſt be compared with the account taken by the merchant, his ſervant, cooper, &c.

5. That goods are not to be brought to the ware-houſe without a bill of ſight, or other warrant, or the conſent of the ſurveyor, under his hand, in the land-waiter's book.

6. That upon any miſtake in taking the account of any goods, the land-waiters are not to eraſe their books, but, having ſtruck the pen through the errors, are to inſert the true figures, &c. and to write the reaſon thereof in their books.

7. That the land-ſurveyor muſt duly attend at the water-ſide, and frequently every day inſpect the land-waiters in the diſcharge of goods.

8. That after payment of the new duties, and before the delivery of any hides and ſkins liable to thoſe duties, the ſame are to be ſtamped with a proper mark (being an hammer) which, with ſome printer's ink, and a little box, have been ſent for that purpoſe; and, when the ſaid hammer or ſtamp is not in uſe, it is to be ſecured under the ſeparate locks of the collector and comptroller; but, for uſing the ſaid ſtamp, a block is to be prepared, which may be of elm, two feet and one-half high, about ten inches diameter at the top, and hollowed one inch and a half, which is to be filled up with lead, about five inches ſquare, in order to make it ſolid, and prevent the hammer's rebounding, and to keep the lead from ſpreading and cracking.

9. That after the payment of new duties, and before the delivery of linens chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, the ſame are to be ſtamped with the proper ſeal and ſtamp, with printer's ink; which ſtamp is to be lodged in the (joint) cuſtody of the collector and comptroller, and not to be delivered thence but to the land-ſurveyor, and land-waiter appointed to the ſhip, wherein there are any ſuch linens imported, as are liable to be ſtamped; and, after entry and landing, ſuch linens are to be ſtamped in their preſence by a weigher or porter, who is under oath and ſecurity; and the land-waiter is to keep an account thereof in his book, which is to be marked by the land-ſurveyor: and, when they leave off ſtamping, the ſaid ſtamp or ſeal is to be returned by the ſurveyor and land-waiter, into the joint cuſtody of the collector and comptroller, to be locked up under two different locks till wanted again.

10. That if, upon examination of any goods at the delivery, the merchant appears to have over-entered, either in any particular goods, or upon the whole entry, the following regulations muſt be obſerved, in order to procure the repayment of the duties for the goods ſo over-entered: and though he ſhould be over-entered on ſome goods, and ſhort-entered on others, yet ſuch ſhort entry muſt not be deducted from the over-entry, but a poſt-entry muſt be made for what is ſhort, and the over-entry muſt be obtained

tained by the regulations before mentioned, being as follows:

1. On the face of the warrant, at the bottom, muſt be certified the quantity of goods over-entered, thus:

The merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk.

B. C. } Land-waiters.
C. D. }

2. On the back of the warrant, the merchant, his ſervant, or agent, muſt make oath to the quantity of goods received, and the occaſion of the over-entry, thus:

James Croſs maketh oath, that neither himſelf [and if the goods were taken up by a ſervant or agent, there muſt be likewiſe added, nor A. B. the proprietor] nor any other perſon for him, or to his uſe, did to his knowledge or belief, receive any more than three hundred pounds of the ſilk within-mentioned, nor had any more landed out of the within-mentioned ſhip, and that this over-entry was occaſioned by a miſtake (or any other occaſion, as may be the caſe) in caſting up the invoice.

*Jurat'* 16 *die Martii, coram me*
D. E. Collector. Signed James Croſs.

Underneath which oath muſt be certified as follows:

Upon examination, as alſo *per* affidavit above, we find the merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk.

Certified the 16th of March, 1767. B. C. } land-
A. B. ſurveyor. C. D. } waiters.

Whereupon a certificate muſt be made out, in order to repay the duties for the goods ſo over-rated by the land-waiters. On the back whereof muſt be inſerted the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt for the ſame.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the ſecond certificate, muſt be diſcharged for ſo much goods as were over-entered, by writing off the ſame in the margin of the book: and the whole muſt be entered in particular books, to be kept by the collector and comptroller for that purpoſe.

11. That as all goods are to be entered as found, with regard to damage, &c. therefore, if, on examination of poundage, goods [11th rule of the book of rates, at the end of letter *a*], except tobacco, they appear to have received damage by ſalt-water, &c: whereby the merchant will be prejudiced; the collector, ſurveyor, and land-waiters, may make ſuch allowance as they think proper, though no allowance muſt be made in conſideration of the meanneſs of any goods: but, if the merchant is not ſatisfied with the allowance made, then the collector, and any other principal officer, may appoint two indifferent merchants, experienced in ſuch goods, on their oath, to adjuſt the allowance.

Whereupon the officers or nther perſons who have adjuſted the damages are to certify the ſame on the back of the warrant. Which allowance fnr damage, &c. muſt be made upon the keys, or in the king's warehouſe, immediately after landing the goods, and before taken into the merchant's poſſeſſion: and, in making theſe allowances, the quantity allowed for damage muſt not be deducted from the quantity ſhort (if any); but a poſt-entry muſt be made for ſuch ſhort entry, and a certificate for the repayment of duties of the goods allowed for damage, ſigned by the land-waiters. But before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the ſaid certificate, muſt be diſcharged for ſo much goods as were allowed for damage, by writing off the ſame in the margin in the book: and the whole certificate muſt be entered in particular books to be kept for that purpoſe, by the collector and comptroller.

12. That although no allowance is made to the importers of tobacco, in conſideration of any that is damaged or mean, yet, if on delivery, any part appears damaged, and the merchant is not willing to enter and pay, or ſecure the duties, he may either refuſe the whole, or ſeparate the damaged tobacco (but nnt the ſtalk from the leaf) by cutting off from the hogſheads, &c. ſo much as he ſhall refuſe to enter, &c. and any three or more of the principal officers may cauſe ſuch tobacco to be burnt: whereupon a certificate for an allowance, in conſideration of the tobacco ſo deſtroyed, muſt be made out, ſigned by the ſurveyor and land-waiters.

On the back whereof the merchant muſt give a receipt for the payment of the aforeſaid allowance.

But, before this allowance is paid, the ſame muſt be entered, in particular books to be kept for that purpoſe, by the collector and comptroller. *See* ALLOWANCE.

Land-waiters are not to be paid their ſalaries, till a certificate be produced from the ſurveyor, that they have not any poſt-entries ſtanding out. They are to aſſiſt at the ſhipping of corn and other goods, and to certify on debentures—to examine the ſhips contents, and compare them with the merchants endorſements on the cocket—to examine the ſhips and diſcharge the tideſmen—to preſerve and enter the warrants outwards—a book to be kept by them for the outward buſineſs—to aſſiſt the coaſt-waiters in examining foreign goods.

LANERK. The chief city of this ſhire is Glaſgow, and the beſt emporium of the Weſt of Scotland, though *Lanerk* is the county town; the country abounds with coals, peat, and limeſtone, but moſt advantageouſly with the lead mines belonging to the earl of Hopton, near which large pieces of gold have been found after haſty ſhowers, and lapis lazuli dug up without much difficulty.

Glaſgow is, in regard of its trade and grandeur, only inferior to Edinburgh, having a conſiderable number of merchants reſiding there, and no ſmall fleet of ſhips belonging to them, for executing their commercial projects, as well in America as elſewhere. Their ſhare in the herring fiſhery brings great advantages to the city, as they have a method in their cure that makes them equal to the Dutch ones; here are ſome ſugar-bakehouſes, a manufacture for plaids, and another for muſlins and various linens, of which large parcels are ſent abroad.

LANGELAND. *See* DENMARK.

LANGESUND, in Norway, a ſmall place, ſubject to the Cuſtom-houſe of Porſgrund, and affords ſome ſmall balks, but moſtly ſparwood.

L'ANGOUMOIS. *See* LIMOSIN.

LANGTALL, is a large village in Switzerland, famous for its ſales of linens, thread, hemp, and flax. The Swiſs merchants make very conſiderable purchaſes here of linens (as they come out of the looms) tape and laces.

LANGUEDOC, is eſteemed as one of the beſt cultivated provinces of the kingdom of France, and juſtly merits this encomium. Its inhabitants are numerous, diligent, ſkilful, and induſtrious; it enjoys the advantage of having a greater diverſity in its products, than any other province; yet this country, ſo well cultivated, and ſo well peopled, might raiſe a much greater revenue, ſupport a much greater number of inhabitants, and furniſh the ſtate with much larger ſuccours, if it underſtood to attract by a ſuitable culture all thoſe advantages which it is capable of procuring. It has plenty of corn and wool, but it might largely augment its crops of wine and oil, and expect a furer, more beneficial, and immediate ſale to theſe commodities, than they ever find, or can hope for from others; the growth of ſilk might alſo be greatly increaſed, and cotnn might be planted to advantage, and this further improved by eſtabliſhing manufactures of it; much more ſalt might be made, more mines wrought, and a great number of things might be added to the natural products of the country, for which the ſoil and ſituation is adapted: hnwever, we ſhall not enlarge on what this part of France might be made to produce, but now acquaint our readers with what its products and manufactures actually are.

This fruitful province, one of the largeſt, richeſt, and moſt agreeable of that kingdom, has two great ſalt marſhes, the one at Mardirac, the other at Sigean, both yielding vaſt quantities of that uſeful commodity. At Rieux, la Grange-des-pres, Lodève, Carcaſſonne, Linoux, Caſtres, Alby, Alet, St. Colombe, Lauclanet, Laiſſac, la Grace, les Saptes, Chalabre, Mazanet, Terriéres, la Caune, Bedarrieux, St. Sivian, Quiſſac, St. Hypolite, Bauzely, Vigan, Ganges, Saumennes, Anduze, Alais, St. Gervais, Sommieres, Gardonnenque, la Salle, Beziére, Aniane, and Beaucaire, are many woollen manufactures of cloths,

 ſerges,

ſerges, ratines, bays, crapes, druggets, linſey woolſey, and ſeveral other ſorts of ſtuffs: of the ſilken fabrics, the principal are at Toulouſe, Montpelier, Niſmes, Alais, and in ſome other towns and villages along the Rhone, where are made taffeties, tabbies, crapes, tarandines, brocades, damaſks, and ſome goods with a mixture of ſilk and wool, in which all the ſilk gathered in theſe parts is employed, being from twelve to fifteen hundred quintals in a common year. The verdigris made at Montpelier and its neighbourhood, and the cryſtal of tartar prepared at Aniane, are in great eſteem among ſtrangers. The dioceſe of Mirepoix has alſo mines of iron, coals, and jett; the iron is found and wrought at Courſouls, St. Colombe, Quillau, and at Beleſtat; the coal at Trimont, and at St. Benoiſt; and the jett at Lovan and Ralanet. Of hats the fabric is very conſiderable in theſe parts; they are made at Montpelier, Quiſſac, Sauve, St. Hypolite, Sumennes, Anduſe, Alais, Uſès, St. Geniez, la Salle, Niſmes, Clermont, Beaucaire, Valborgne, Mairvain, and Valarangue: cheſnuts and hemp are plenty in the Vivares; and in the dioceſe of Carcaſſone, all the inhabitants of the ſix boroughs, compoſing the little territory of Graiſſeſac, are nail-makers. The fabric of lace employs a good part of the workmen in Velay, and beſides the manufactures before-mentioned at Montpelier, there are made blankets, wax is whitened, and thoſe drams, called Roſſolis, compoſed in greater quantities than can be conſiſtent with their drinkers health: but to abbreviate the detail of this province's products, we ſhall excuſe giving a more particular account of them than the preceding; though in the following general one, we ſhall ſet down the value of the total produce and manufactures, and add what ſhare of it is ſuperfluous to the province's conſumption, and therefore ſent into others, and abroad.

| Merchandize and commodities of the growth and manufacture of Languedoc. | The price at which each article in trade is fixed, and may amount to in a common year. | The value of the goods and merchandizes, extracted for foreign parts, and other provinces of France. |
|---|---|---|
| Grain | Ls. 1200000 | 400000 |
| Wine | 830000 | 830000 |
| Brandy | 440000 | 440000 |
| Hungary water | 120000 | 120000 |
| Drams | 150000 | 150000 |
| Verdigris | 200000 | 200000 |
| Olive oil | 2000000 | 1000030 |
| Woad | 50000 | 25000 |
| Saffron | 100000 | 80000 |
| Prunes | 120000 | 60000 |
| Soude, or kale | 50000 | 30000 |
| Turnſol, or heliotropium | 15000 | 15000 |
| Cheſnuts | 150000 | 60000 |
| Wood | 300000 | 150000 |
| Staves and caſks | 60000 | 30000 |
| Silken goods | 1800000 | 1500000 |
| Cattle and wool | 1000000 | 600000 |
| Forged iron | 120000 | 8000 |
| Nails | 140000 | 60000 |
| Melting down old copper | 20000 | 10000 |
| Paper | 140000 | 100000 |
| Parchment | 15000 | |
| Cards | 60000 | 30000 |
| Soap | 105000 | 5000 |
| Whitening of wax | 150000 | 50000 |
| Linens | 30000 | |
| Laces for ſtays | 10000 | |
| Pilchards and other ſalt-fiſh | 100000 | 60000 |
| Lamb and kid ſkins | 800900 | 400000 |
| Gloves | 50000 | 30000 |
| Sheep, goat, and buck ſkins dreſſed into chamois | 258000 | 150000 |
| Glue | 50000 | |
| Drinking and ſaſh glaſſes | 20000 | |
| Plate glaſs | 30000 | |
| Laces of Puy | 60000 | 40000 |
| Fuſtians and dimities | 90000 | 60000 |
| Blankets | 230000 | 200000 |
| Hangings | 20000 | |
| Fine and ordinary ſtuffs | 4100000 | |
| Ditto cloths | 8450000 | 5300000 |
| Worſted ſtockings | 40000 | |
| Hats | 400000 | 150000 |
| Taffeties, ribbons, and Silk ſtockings | 900000 | 600000 |
| Coarſe ſilk ſtuffs | 80000 | 50000 |
| Confection of alkermes | 50000 | 50000 |
| Eels of Aigueſmortes | 35000 | 20000 |
| Sardignas | 30000 | 15000 |
| Garden ſeeds | 30000 | 15000 |
| | Livres 25198000 | Livres 13093000 |

LAPIDARY. This buſineſs is not very laborious, and is therefore fit for a boy who has no great ſhare of ſtrength, and no extraordinary education is neceſſary. The *lapidary* differs from the diamond-cutter only in his cutting none but ſtones of leſs value than the diamond: he works with an engine conſtructed on the ſame principles with the diamond-cutter; the beauty of his work alſo conſiſts in giving it its full luſtre, and cauſing it to make the greateſt ſhew; and, like the laſt-mentioned artiſt, he moſtly uſes the powder of diamonds for cutting or ſawing his ſtones, and poliſhes with emery, putty, and tripoly. The *lapidary* takes with an apprentice from ten to twenty pounds. A journeyman may earn from fifteen to twenty ſhillings a week; and it requires about fifty pounds to ſet up maſter. A *lapidary* denotes alſo one ſkilled in the nature of precious ſtones, or who deals in them.

LAPIS LAZULI, a ſort of ſtone from whence the celebrated colour, called *ultramarine*, is made.

This is one of the ores of copper, the baſis of which is a debaſed cryſtalline matter coloured with the elegant and beautiful blue, which this matter gives in our experiments to all alcaline liquors. It is a very hard and compact ſtone, inſomuch as to come into the rank of thoſe that take a high poliſh, and are not liable to be ſcratched by accidents; and therefore is worked into a number of different toys. It is found in detached lumps, uſually of the ſize of a man's fiſt, often ſmaller, and ſometimes of four or five pounds weight together. It is never covered with any coat or cruſt, but reſembles thoſe ſtones which have been waſhed off from whole ſtrata, and ſmoothed or rounded by accidents afterwards. It is of a naturally ſmooth and gloſſy ſurface, and its general colour is the elegant colour already mentioned; but this is variegated in a very beautiful manner with ſpots or clouds of white, and with veins of a fine ſhining gold colour. It has theſe variegations in different degrees, in ſeveral maſſes, and, in general, moſt to be valued, as it has leaſt of them; for, though very beautiful to the eye, they are foreign to all the uſes they are put to, except when it is cut as a gem. The white clouds or veins (for this matter is ſometimes, though more rarely, diſpoſed of in the laſt form) are uſually of a dead and opaque hue, but ſometimes they are bright and pellucid as cryſtal; this laſt ſtate of them adds greatly to the beauty of the ſtone: the yellow ones are always bright and gloſſy; they have been ſuppoſed by many to be veins of gold, and the ſtone has been therefore called a gold ore; but they are in reality only a marcaſite. Sometimes that gold-like matter is not diſpoſed in veins, but in ſpots and ſtars, and in this caſe the ſtone is the ſapphire of the ancients; for they knew the gem we call the ſapphire by a very different name, calling it the ſky-blue beryl: and deſcribing what they meant by the word ſapphire to be a ſtone opaque, of a fine blue, and variegated with ſpots of a gold colour in form of ſtars. All the variations of this ſtone are ſubject, beſides, to other accidental foulneſſes, and are ſometimes debaſed to the ſtate of a mere common blue copper-colour.

The *lapis lazuli* is found in many parts of the world; but that of Aſia and Africa, in both which countries it is frequent, is vaſtly ſuperior, both in beauty and real value, to the Bohemian and German kind, which is brought too often to us in its place. It is to be choſen heavy, of a fine cloſe texture, and of a deep indigo blue colour, with a little white matter about it, and with as few of the orna-

mental gold-coloured veins in it as poſſible, and ſuch as, when put in the fire, calcines without emitting any ſmell. We are ſenſible that theſe directions are contrary to thoſe of the people who want to cut it for ornamental works; but though they may eſteem it for its golden veins, it is much the worſe for them in regard to its medicinal uſe, and even for the painter's purpoſes. Its virtues in medicine are thoſe of a very violent purgative and emetic. Chemical writers give us proceſſes for magiſteries, tinctures, and elixirs of *lapis lazuli*; but they are wholly out of uſe: whatever may be the preſent credit of this beautiful ſtone in medicine, the painters however are indebted to it for one of the nobleſt colours they are acquainted with; their ultramarine being only a calcination of this ſtone. The German *lapis lazuli* does not anſwer well in this proceſs, and diſcovers itſelf by its calcining eaſier than the African or Aſiatic, and turning greeniſh. The Oriental kind calcines to a finer blue than it naturally has, and retains the colour for ever. After calcining the ſtone in a clear fire of charcoal, they grind it into an impalpable powder on a porphyry, and then mixing it up in a paſte, compoſed of pitch, wax, and oil, they work it about with the hands; and, finally, kneading this in a veſſel of clear water, as the powder ſeparates from the viſcid matter, it ſinks to the bottom: when all that is perfectly fine in this is worked out, they let the water be drained off, and dry the powder for uſe. What remains embodied in the paſte, is afterwards ſeparated, and makes a worſe kind than the former, though even the very meaneſt ultramarine is a very beautiful colour.

LAPIS *Medicamentoſus*, the medicinal ſtone, a compoſition of roch alum, litharge, colcothar of vitriol, armenian bole, and vinegar, boiled to the conſiſtence of a hard ſtone. It ſerves to faſten the teeth, preſerve the gums, dry up ulcers and wounds, and is uſed in injections and compoſitions for ſore eyes.

LARRES, a money uſed in the Maldives, of which five make a dollar.

LAST, ſignifies a burden in general, and particularly a certain weight or meaſure. As a *laſt* of pitch, tar, or aſhes, contains fourteen barrels. 23 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14. A *laſt* of hides or ſkins, twelve dozen. 1 *Jac.* I *c.* 23. A *laſt* of cod fiſh, twelve barrels. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. A *laſt* of herrings, contains twenty cades, or a thouſand; every thouſand ten hundred, and every hundred ſix ſcore. A *laſt* of cole-ſeed, is ten quarters and a half; and the like of oats. A *laſt* of corn, or rape-ſeed, is ten quarters; in ſome parts of England, they reckon twenty-one quarters to a *laſt* of corn. A *laſt* of wood, is twelve ſacks. A *laſt* of leather, is twenty dickers, and every dicker twelve ſkins. Of unpacked herrings, eighteen barrels make a *laſt*. A *laſt* of pilchards, is ten thouſand. A *laſt* of powder, is twenty-four firkins, every firkin weighing a hundred pounds.

LASTAGE, LESTAGE, *and* LESTING, a cuſtom exacted in ſome fairs and markets, to carry things bought where one will (according to Raſtall.) But in the 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 18. it is taken for the ballaſt or loading of a ſhip. *Laſtage*, ſays another author, is properly that cuſtom which is paid for wares ſold by the laſt, as herrings, pitch, &c. *Laſtage* was alſo uſed for garbage, rubbiſh, or ſuch like filth, as appears by *Clauſ.* 16. *Rich.* II. *dorſ.* 11.

LASTAGE *and* BALLASTAGE, regulated in the river Thames. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *See* BALLAST.

LAST, *and* HEEL-MAKER. This buſineſs requires ſtrength, but neither much ingenuity nor learning. Thoſe of this trade make laſts and wooden heels for the ſhoemakers, generally of birch, or ſome other ſoft wood. It is a laborious employment, though they are aſſiſted with a kind of engine, which is a large knife, fixed to a block by one end, in ſuch a manner as it can be moved up and down, and to the other end is fixed the handle. When they work, they hold the piece of wood upon the block, and, by raiſing the handle, apply the edge where they deſign to cut; then forcing it down with the hand, it is done with tolerable eaſe. It is but an indifferent buſineſs, in which from five to ten pounds is given with an apprentice, and thirty pounds will ſet up a maſter.

LATITUDE, *in* GEOGRAPHY, the diſtance of any place from the equator, meaſured in degrees, minutes, and ſeconds, upon the meridian of that place; and is either north or ſouth, according as the place is ſituated, either on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator. It is found at ſea, by having the ſun's or any ſtar's declination (by a proper table, and his meridian altitude) and that is found by a quadrant or aſtrolabe. From the horizon to the zenith, being ninety degrees, if from ninety you take the ſun's meridian altitude, the remainder will be the ſun's diſtance from the zenith; when, therefore, by obſervation, the ſun's meridian altitude is found, you are to conſider, whether the ſun hath any declination or not. If he hath none, but moves in the equinoctial that day, then the elevation of the equator will be equal to his meridian altitude; and, conſequently, his meridian altitude is the co-latitude; ſubduct therefore that from ninety, the remainder is the latitude of the place, which will be north, if the ſun be on the ſouth part of the meridian; and ſouth, when the ſun comes to the north of the meridian. It is the ſame thing with any ſtar in the equator. When the ſun or ſtar hath any declination, the zenith diſtance with that will give the latitude; for if the meridian altitude and declination be both the ſame way, i. e. both north, or both ſouth, the difference between them will be the latitude of the place, or the pole's height: only obſerve, that if the zenith diſtance exceeds the declination, the contrary pole will be elevated. If the declination be twenty-three degrees, thirty minutes north, and the zenith diſtance eighty degrees thirty minutes north, the latitude will be fifteen degrees north. But if the zenith diſtance be ſeventy degrees thirty minutes ſouth, and the declination twenty degrees ſouth, the difference will be fifty-one degrees thirty minutes to the latitude as before, only it will be north, becauſe the zenith diſtance exceeds the declination.

If the declination be north, and the meridian altitude ſouth, or vice verſa, i. e. one contrary to the other, then the ſum of the declination and the zenith is the latitude of the place. Indeed ſometimes the ſun or ſtar may have two meridian altitudes, as when the altitude and declination being the ſame way, the latter exceeds the former, and then the ſum of the co-declination, and the meridian altitude is the height of the pole, towards which the declination is. And you muſt obſerve, that whether the meridian altitude be north or ſouth, if that, and the co-declination together, be leſs than eighteen degrees, the ſun or ſtar will have two meridian altitudes in twenty-four hours.

LA TRINIDAD, TECOANTEPQUE, VATULCO, *and* ROALEJO, are places on the coaſt of the South Sea in Spaniſh America, between Panama and Acapulco, which ſerve for ports, where all the traffic of Guatimala, Leon, Quaxaca, Nicaragua, and ſome other provinces of New Spain is tranſacted, which conſiſt in cacao, vanillas, achiolt, or rocou (a dying herb) indigo, cochineal, hides, wheat, maiz, wool, ſugar, cotton, ſalt, caſſia, wax, and ſome other of the products of Mexico.

LAVATORY, *or* LAVADERO, a certain place in Chili and Peru, where gold is got from the earth by means of waſhing. In ſuch places where gold is expected, they dig deep into the earth, and ſo turn a ſtream upon the ſpot to facilitate this deſign. When they are got to the earth they want, they turn off the ſtream, and dig dry. This earth they dig up, and place it in a baſon like a ſmith's bellows, into which a little rivulet runs with great rapidity, diſſolving the earth, and carrying every thing away except the gold, which, by its weight, precipitates to the bottom, and mixes with a fine black ſand.

LAUDANUM, in pharmacy, a name given to divers preparations of opium, chiefly in a liquid form. *See* OPIUM.

LAUSANNE, the capital place of the Vaudois, near the Lake Leman, is more celebrated for the nobility who reſide here, and for the learned, who have adorned, and ſtill adorn its academy, than for the extent of its trade. There are but few parts that in equal limits encloſe ſo much gentry: and commerce would flouriſh here, as it is one of the fineſt and moſt fertile countries in Europe, if the nobility had not imbibed the falſe notion of its being derogatory to their honour.

At this place, however, are made ſome ratines, wove ſtockings, fine earthen and delft ware; but above all the book-

book-ſellers trade, and printers art, flouriſh here in a great degree, and are daily improved.

*Oucby*, on the borders of the lake, half a league from *Lauſanne*, and which ſerves for its port, is the landing-place for goods coming from Milan and Valais by Vevay. Here are halls built purely for the reception of merchandize, which may alſo be brought here from Geneva, if deſtined for Switzerland.

LAW. Traders in general are the principal perſons who ought to keep out of litigious broils, yet they are the moſt liable to be plunged into them, by reaſon of their conſtant dealings with great variety of people. We have, therefore, endeavoured, throughout this work, not only to give the ſtatute law in miniature, which has relation to the chief ſpecies of merchandizes, but alſo the determination in our courts of common law and equity, of the moſt curious mercantile caſes which have come before them, in order to guard traders againſt thoſe evils to which they are too frequently liable.

Beſides the common ſtatute laws of England, as alſo the *lex non ſcripta*, there are in ſeveral parts of England certain cuſtoms and uſages, which have the force of common law among thoſe people to whoſe property they belong; as Borough Engliſh, a cuſtom ſo called, not being in uſe out of England, where the youngeſt ſon or for want of ſons, the youngeſt brother is to inherit, the eldeſt being ſuppoſed to have learned the father's trade, and the youngeſt the leaſt able to ſhift for himſelf.

Beſides theſe, we make uſe of the civil and maritime laws in regard to divers commercial and naval occurrences; which law is exerciſed in the high court of admiralty as correſponding and agreeing with the laws of foreign nations, being ſuitable to the nature and negociations of the people that are ſubject to them: by this law, and the ancient cuſtoms thereof, a mutual intercourſe of commerce is maintained between nations, and ſhould, in trading ſtates, be preciſely and ſtrictly upheld and preſerved; yet the rights of the municipal laws of the kingdom ſhould, by no means, be infringed, but each juriſdiction reſtrained within its proper limits; which will be more advantageous to the trading intereſt of this nation, than ſuffering either of them to incroach upon, and ſwallow up and devour the other: and that law, which is univerſally regarded in all trading nations, ſhould ſeem the beſt calculated to determine all miſunderſtandings between the trading ſubjects of thoſe ſeveral nations, which have relation to traffic, or maritime concerns. Yet, in the leagues that are eſtabliſhed between nation and nation, the laws of either kingdom are excepted; and as the Engliſh merchants in France, or in any other nation in amity, are ſubject to the laws of that country where they reſide, ſo muſt the people of France, or any other country, be ſubject to the laws of England, when reſident here. 19 *Hen.* VII.

By the common law, merchants were always particularly regarded in this kingdom; but the municipal laws of England, or, indeed, of any realm, are not ſufficient for the ordering and determining the affairs of traffic, and matters relating to commerce, merchandizing being ſo univerſally extenſive, that it is impoſſible: therefore there is another law, called the law-merchant, which is a kind of ſpecial law, differing from the common law of England, proper for merchants, and is become a law of the realm, and all nations take ſpecial knowledge of this law; and the common and ſtatute laws of this kingdom leave the cauſes of merchants, in many caſes, to their own peculiar law, which is founded on cuſtoms and uſages immemorial. On this law, alſo, we have been pretty copious throughout our whole work.

There can be nothing more perplexing and vexatious to traders, than being unhappily involved in law-ſuits. To avoid which, or to prove ſucceſsful therein, nothing can be more conducive than method and regularity, which is the life of a trader's affairs in general. Thus the due arrangement and methodizing the original vouchers, which relate to a trader's tranſactions, for immediate reference, ſhould, by no means, be neglected; for, the books being of no authority in a court of judicature, without the original vouchers, theſe ought to be as regularly diſpoſed as the others, in the way they will admit of. Neglects of this kind, either by miſplacing, or loſing theſe teſtimonials of a trader's tranſactions, being productive of great confuſion in public buſineſs, order and regularity in all things cannot be too early made habitual to the young trader.

And, indeed, if a trader has any miſunderſtanding or law-ſuit with others, and has the beſt cauſe to defend, and employs the moſt ſkilful, as well as moſt upright counſel, ſollicitor, or attorney, yet, if he cannot produce authentic vouchers in his vindication, he will loſe his cauſe.

With relation particularly to the laws, which concern the various branches of the public revenue, traders, in general, ſhould not be remiſs in making themſelves acquainted with thoſe that may concern themſelves, leſt they ſhould incur the penalties thereby inflicted, or be injured by the officers, who may exceed their authority. Thus the merchant ſhould be well informed in the laws, relative to the buſineſs of the cuſtoms; variety of the eſſential whereof is given in this work, under the reſpective articles which they immediately concern. But they are ſo numerous, that it cannot be expected we ſhould give the whole, and at large, which would be more than to tranſcribe the ſtatutes at large. We have judged it ſufficient to give the practical trader ſuch an idea thereof, as may tend to induce him to look into thoſe, wherein his own private intereſt is concerned.

Theſe traders, who are liable to the exciſe laws in any peculiar branch, ſhould not be neglectful to become familiar with thoſe which concern their reſpective branches of buſineſs; as the ſalt or ſtamp duties, &c.

The neceſſity of merchants importers and exporters informing themſelves well in the laws relative to the cuſtoms in particular, will appear under that buſineſs wherever it occurs.

LAW OF MARQUE, (mentioned in *ſtat.* 27 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *cap.* 17.) From the German word *march*, i. e. *limes*, a bound or limit; becauſe they that are driven to make uſe of this law, do take the ſhipping or goods of that people of whom they have received wrong, and cannot get ordinary juſtice, when they can take them within their own bounds or precincts. *See* LETTERS, *of Marque.*

LAW-MERCHANT, (*Lex Mercatoria*) is become a part of the laws of this realm; for if there be two joint-merchants of wares, and one of them dies, his executor ſhall have the moiety; which is not ſo in the caſe of others not merchants. *Co. on Lit. f.* 182.

LAW OF THE STAPLE, (mentioned in *ſtat.* 27 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 2. *cap.* 22) is the ſame with law-merchant. *See* STAPLE.

LAZARETTO, or *Lazar-houſe*, a public hoſpital for the reception of the ſick-poor; and in ſome countries it is a detached edifice for perſons coming from places ſuſpected of the plague, to perform quarantine in. *See* BILLS *of Health.*

LEAD, *Plumbum*, in natural hiſtory, a coarſe metal, and of all others the ſofteſt and moſt fuſible, when purified.

*Lead* is the heavieſt of the metals, next after gold; it is indeed conſiderably lighter than quickſilver, but the want of malleality denying that ſubſtance a place in the claſs of metals, lead is among them the ſecond in weight. It is the ſofteſt of all the metals, eaſily flattened under the hammer, and ductile in a very great degree, though much leſs ſo than gold. Its colour is a pale bluiſh grey, it is very little ſubject to ruſt, and is the leaſt ſonorous of all the metals except gold, with which it ſeems nearly on an equality in regard to this property in its common ſtate; but Mr. Reaumur has diſcovered that, if caſt in the form of a ſegment of a ſphere, it has ſome ſound, when ſtruck upon; a property which gold does not acquire by being caſt in the ſame form.

*Lead* has been celebrated by the chemical writers for very great virtues in medicine; but, upon the whole, it ſeems to be a metal very cautiouſly to be given internally, and rather calculated for outward application. Its ore is poiſonous. The ſteam which ariſes from the ſurface where it is worked, infects the graſs of all the neighbouring places, and kills the animals that feed on it; and among the preparations of it is a ſalt, called ſaccharum ſaturni, which is by much its beſt form for medicine, and which is able to do great ſervice in hæmorrhages, and ſome other caſes; it is apt, however, to bring on cholics of a very violent kind, and

and ſo many other diſorders, that the remedy often proves worſe than the diſeaſe.

RED LEAD, *minium*. Melt lead in a broad earthen veſſel unglazed, and ſtir it continually with a ſpathula, till it be calcined into a grey powder; this is called the calx of lead. Continue the fire, ſtirring it in the ſame manner, and it becomes yellow; in this ſtate it is uſed in painting, and is called maſticot, or maſſicot: after this, put it into a reverberatory furnace, and it will calcine farther, and become of a fine red, which is the common minium, or red lead.

This is uſed externally on many occaſions. It obtunds the acrimony of the humours, allays inflammations, and is excellent in the cleaning and healing of old ulcers. It is uſed in many of the plaiſters and ointments of the ſhops.

WHITE LEAD. See CERUS.

BLACK LEAD, is found particularly in the lead mines in Cumberland, in heavy lumps, ſome of which are hard, gritty, and of ſmall value; others ſoft and of a fine texture. The hill in which it is found is a dirty brittle clay, interſperſed with ſprings, and in ſome places ſhivers of the rock, &c.

This mineral has none of the properties of metal; for it will not fuſe but calcine in an intenſe fire. Before its value was diſcovered, the farmers uſed it as thoſe of the ſouth counties do ruddle, to mark their ſheep. It is not the patrolæum, melanteria, nor pinguis of the ancients; nor does it agree with any deſcription in Pliny or Aldrovandus.

The lumps of black lead found in the rubbiſh ſeldom exceed half a pound in weight; but thoſe found in the mines are ſaid to weigh ſix or ſeven pounds. They work forward for it, and the pits reſemble quarries or gravel-pits.

LEAGUES, OR TRUCES, are either with enemies, friends, or neuters; and thoſe made with the former are for a limited time, or perpetual.

Perpetual, is where a peace finiſhes all diſputes, and reſtores a perfect amity between the contracting parties.

And treaties for a time are termed *truces*, which are alſo general, or particular.

General *truces* include all the ſtates of both princes, in regard to their ſubjects and commerce, whilſt particular ones are only for certain places, or certain perſons, with a limitation of their trade, and ſometimes go no farther than a bare ſuſpenſion of arms.

A *truce*, however, whether general or particular, is an agreement on a ceſſation of all hoſtilities, during the term ſtipulated, and ought not to be infringed or broken, on any account. It frequently is a parent of peace, as it allows room for conſideration, and to treat of it, and, beſides, affords opportunity for ſettling the jarring intereſts of princes, who are to be comprehended in it.

A general *truce* is ſometimes ſettled for ſo long a term, as to become equal to a peace, and ſuch are commonly made betwixt princes, equal in power, who are unwilling to quit any thing of their ſuppoſed right by peace, and yet deſire to live quietly in their preſent ſtate, and by this medium ſatisfy their point of honour. Such truces are likewiſe (from the foregoing conſiderations) leſs ſubject to a breach, than a peace that is made perpetual; as princes, who, by this latter, find themſelves aggrieved, will ſeek out plauſible reaſons to forſake or evade it; but, in the other, when the limited time is expired, they have only to renew, or excuſe it.

Some alliances are contracted for an enterprize, and for one ſole effect, in that part in which the allies are intereſted, and theſe are generally called leagues, and have been ſometimes here confirmed by act of parliament, and are ſuch agreements, as are always made by command of the ſupreme power; and theſe, as well as ſafe conducts are, or ought to be, of record, that is, enrolled in Chancery, that the ſubjects may know who are friends, and can have actions perſonal here, or who, on the contrary, can have none. 4 *Inſt.* 152. *Rot. Pat.* 4. *Hen.* V. *Num.* 4. *Coke* 4. *Inſt.* 156.

*Leagues* commonly are offenſive, and the ordinary cauſes for which princes and republics make them, are either to facilitate a conqueſt, or to ballance the power of an ambitious and enterpriſing neighbour; ſuch were thoſe entered into againſt the opulency and growing greatneſs of the Spaniards; and ſince, in oppoſition to the arms of Lewis XIV. after univerſal monarchy. But though leagues are generally offenſive, yet many are confined only to the defenſive part, and theſe entered into with the ſole views of guarding againſt the ſiniſter intentions, or attempts of any vicinal power, of which many inſtances might be produced.

LEAKAGE, in commerce, an allowance of 12 *per cent.* to merchants importing wine, out of the cuſtom thereof; and of two barrels in twenty-two of ale to brewers, &c. out of the exciſe.

LEAP-YEAR, the ſame with Biſſextile. *See* BISSEXTILE.

LEASE. Is a demiſe or letting of tenements, right of common, rent, or any hereditament unto another for term of years or life, for a rent reſerved. And a leaſe is either written, called a leaſe by indenture, or a leaſe parol. The party that letteth this leaſe is called the leſſor, and the party to whom it is let is the leſſee: and a leaſe hath in it ſix points: 1. Words ſufficient to import a demiſe. 2. A leſſee named. 3. A commencement from a day certain. 4. A term of years. 5. A determination. 6. A reſervation of rent.

A leaſe for years is eſteemed in law a middle kind of intereſt, between an eſtate for life, and a tenancy at will; for thoſe who hold large diſtricts and tracts of lands, being unacquainted with the arts of huſbandry and tillage, found it their intereſt to leaſe out their demeſne, which for want of care and cultivation, lay waſte, and afforded them little or no profit; and this way of letting for years was thought beſt to anſwer the deſign and intentions of the lord, as well as the expectations of the tenant; and if they had let them for life, this had given the tenants too great a power over the lord, becauſe then they would have a property in the freehold, and by ſuffering diſſeiſins, or feigned recoveries to be had againſt themſelves, might have ſhaken, or endangered the inheritance of the owner; and, on the other ſide, if they had leaſed their land only at will, few would have been willing to beſtow any great pains or induſtry upon ſo precarious a poſſeſſion, which the arbitrary will and pleaſure of a peeviſh lord might have defeated.

LEATHER, is the ſkin of ſeveral ſorts of beaſts, dreſſed and prepared for the uſe of the various manufactures, whoſe buſineſs it is to make them up, according to their different employments. The butcher, and others, who flay them off the carcaſes, diſpoſe of them raw or ſalted to the tanner, and tawyer; they to the ſhamoy, morocco, and other kind of leather dreſſers, who prepare them according to their reſpective arts, in order to vend them amongſt the curriers, glovers, harneſs-makers, chair-makers, ſhoemakers, book-binders, and all in any way concerned in the article of leather.

Leather has divers names, according to the ſtate wherein it is, and according to the different kinds of ſkins whereof it is prepared, and its peculiar qualities, when ſo prepared.

(1.) The ſkin is raw as it comes off the animal. (2.) Some are ſalted with ſea ſalt and alum, or with natron, which is a ſpecies of ſalt-petre, or white ſalt wort, to prevent corruption in keeping or ſending to diſtant tanneries during hot ſeaſons.

Skins dried with the hair on, are commonly thoſe of oxen and cows, or buffaloes, either tame or wild.—Moſt of thoſe in France come from foreign countries. The places which furniſh them with the largeſt quantity, are Peru, the iſle of St. Domingo, Barbary, Cape Verd iſles, the river Senegal in Africa, Muſcovy, Ireland, the iſland of Cuba. Thoſe of this latter place are the moſt eſteemed; they are called Havannah ſkins, from the name of the capital city of that iſland, whither they are carried, in order to be ſent to Spain, and from thence into other parts of Europe—After theſe ſkins are ſtript of their hair, they are ſold to the tanner. *See* TANNER and SKINS.

The three principal aſſortments of leather are tanned or tawed, and oil and allum leather, all which are dreſſed in ſome yards, as they are by Shipton and ſons of Watford.

If we reflect on the number of ſkins of all ſorts, which

this kingdom produces, the prodigious quantity of many kinds that are imported from Spain, Portugal, Ireland, and from our own colonies * in general, under the various denominations of hides, deer-ſkins, deer-pelts, half-dreſſed ditto, &c. if this be conſidered, and alſo that moſt, if not all of theſe are dreſſed here, many manufactured into a variety of things for our own conſumption, and very large quantities of the ſeveral ſorts of leather wrought and unwrought (tanned in particular) exported; it will be readily granted that leather is a ſtaple commodity, that may very juſtly be ranked in the firſt claſs of thoſe belonging to this kingdom.

* Our late accounts from South Carolina inform us, that they export from thence, in about twelve months, no leſs than three hundred and three hogſheads of deer ſkins, which, upon a modeſt computation, is ten thouſand ſkins.

It may be affirmed, with great truth, that the ſkins of our own production, and thoſe imported from our northern American colonies, when dreſſed in this kingdom, make the beſt leather in the world, and therefore is an article of very great importance to the trade of the nation; but, unleſs ſome proper regulations are made in relation to this branch of trade, we are in a fair way ſoon to loſe no inconſiderable part of it. For the king of Pruſſia has lately eſtabliſhed this manufacture in ſeveral parts of his dominions, which, with the conduct of France, in regard to the ſame, is like to do this kingdom no ſmall detriment in this particular.

By the large territories ceded to the crown of Great Britain in North America, by the definitive treaty, it is to be hoped we ſhall uſe every meaſure to obtain the ſtrict friendſhip and alliance of the Indian nations inhabiting there, in which caſe, we ſhall not want great plenty of ſkins to carry on this branch of traffic, at the cheapeſt rates, and thereby to improve in every part relative to the manufacture thereof, in the moſt extenſive manner.

The ſtaple for leather, where to be held, 27 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 1.

It ſhall have no impoſition without conſent of parliament, 45 *Edw.* III. *c.* 4. Ancient prohibition of the exportation of it, 27 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 1, 3. 27, 38 *Edw.* III. *c.* 6. 18 *ſt.* 1. *Eliz. c.* 9. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 54, 55.

Aliens ſhall not buy leather but in open market, 3 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 10.

The wardens of the curriers in London may ſearch for leather inſufficiently tanned. 3 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 10. 24 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7.

Liberty of buying leather granted to certain ſtrangers. 5 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7.

Shall be ſold only in open market. 24 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 1.

Directions for telling and cuſtoming leather. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14.

How ſtrangers are to convey leather from one port to another. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 4.

Exportation of leather reſtrained. 2 & 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 9. 1 *M. ſt.* 3. *c.* 8. 5 *Eliz. c.* 8. & *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2. 14 *Eliz. c.* 4. 18 *Eliz. c.* 9.

Artificers in leather may buy and ſell tanned leather. 3 & 4 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 6.

Buying of raw hides to ſell again untanned, prohibited. 3 & 4 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 9.

Artificers may buy tanned leather. 1 *M. ſt.* 3. *c.* 8. 1 *Eliz. c.* 8.

Leather ſhall be ſearched and ſealed. 1 *Eliz. c.* 9. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22.

Felony to export leather or tallow, 1 *Eliz. c.* 10. permitted by 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 5.

Sheep-ſkins tawed may be exported. 8 *Eliz. c.* 14.

Exporting of tallow and raw hides prohibited. 8 *Eliz. c.* 9.

Owners of ſhips, knowing the offence, to forfeit ſhip, &c. 18 *Eliz. c.* 9. *ſ.* 2.

None but tanners to ſell unwrought leather. 27 *Eliz. c.* 16.

How leather ſhall be wrought and curried. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. 9 *Ann c.* 11. *ſ.* 10. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 7.

None but artificers may buy leather. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22.

No perſon ſhall foreſtal hides, &c. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 7.

Saving of the rights of the univerſities. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 48.

This act not to extend to Wales. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 53.

This act not to extend to Scottiſh hides brought to Berwick. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 56.

Letters patent contrary to this act void. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 57.

No ſkinners to take ſervants who have not been apprentices. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 4.

Sheep-ſkins need not be ſearched or ſealed. 4 *Jac.* I. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 2.

Tanned leather ſhall not be ſold by weight. 4 *Jac.* I. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 3.

Sheep-ſkins and calve-ſkins dreſſed or undreſſed, and all manufactures of leather may be exported. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 10.

Leathers and hides of ox and calves not to be exported. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7.

Leather ſhall be ſold in open market only. 13 & 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 4.

Exportation declared a public nuiſance. 13 & 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 11.

This act not to prohibit the carrying of hides for the neceſſary uſe of any ſhip, &c. 13 & 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 12.

General liberty to export leather. 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 13. 1 *Will.* & *M. c.* 23. 9 *Ann, c.* 6. *ſ.* 4.

Leather curried ſhall be deemed made ware. 1 *Will.* & *M. c.* 33.

Tanned leather may be ſold by leatherſellers, &c. in their ſhops. 1 *Will.* & *M. c.* 33. *ſ.* 5.

Duties upon leather, parchment, &c. 9 *Ann, c.* 11. 10 *Ann, c.* 26, made perpetual, and part of the general fund. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7.

Hides to be marked on paying duty. 9 *Ann, c.* 11. *ſ.* 44.

Forging the marks, death without clergy, *ibid.*

Increaſe of the drawback upon leather exported. 12 *Ann ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 64.

Tawed ſheep-ſkins to pay the ſmaller duty. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 13.

Counterfeiting the leather ſtamps felony. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 9.

Hides to be kept ſeparate till ſurveyed. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 10.

Artificers may freely buy their leather, and cut it, and ſell it in ſmall pieces. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25.

Penalty on curriers neglecting to curry leather. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 4.

The ſtatute 1 *Ann, ſt.* 2. *c.* 18. extended to the manufactures of leather. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18.

Journeymen to perform the buſineſs they are engaged in. *Ibid. ſ.* 8. *See* DRAWBACK, HIDES.

LEATHER BREECHES MAKER, is a buſineſs ſprung from the glover, and is a trade, whoſe number of artizans has greatly encreaſed within theſe few years, and employs a great many hands in all parts of the kingdom, there being ſcarce a market-town, or village of any note, but ſome of this trade may be found therein: and it may be truly obſerved, that ſome of the preſent maſters of this buſineſs, in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, have brought it to ſo great perfection, that what was thought to be a garment fit to be worn only by the laborious, is become faſhionable, and univerſally worn, from the tradeſmen, to thoſe of the firſt rank in the kingdom; and may, with ſuitable encouragement, become a very profitable mercantile commodity, when exported to proper markets, the beſt London made leather breeches beginning to be eſteemed, and to be worn in many parts abroad, not excepting even ſome very hot countries.

The ſorts of leather breeches are various; ſome being made of deer, ſheep, and goat ſkins; others of calf, lamb, and beaver ſkins. The two firſt ſorts are the principal, the conſumption whereof is of more conſequence than may at firſt view appear. The deer-ſkin being chiefly imported from our colonies, and the only commodities (the half dreſſed ones in particular) the Indians have to exchange with our Indian traders in North America, for what they want of them; and as this commerce with the Indians may encreaſe, the import of deer-ſkins will do ſo in the like proportion; conſequently the price muſt fall, if a proper vent be not found; and, in that caſe, a ſtop may, in ſome meaſure, be put to that branch of our trade.

The conſumption of the ſecond ſort, i. e. the ſheep-ſkin,

is in ſome degree, an help to the woollen trade; for, if the fell monger cannot find a market for the pelt, its value will, of courſe, enhance the price of wool.

This being the caſe, may it not be worth conſideration to enquire how the conſumption may be effectually ſupported? In anſwer to which it may be ſaid, (1.) By the makers taking due care to manufacture them in the beſt manner, and ſell them as low as poſſible. (2.) By the merchants making trial of a ſmall quantity of thoſe ſorts, which are not periſhable, nor too low priced; which has been done, and good returns made for them: and, in order to encourage the maker, the exporter, and the foreign markets. (3.) By the parliament's taking off the drawback on undreſſed deer-ſkins, and giving ſuch a bounty, or allowing ſuch a drawback, on the exportation of buck, doe, and ſheep-ſkin breeches, as may appear nearly adequate to the duties, and the excife which the ſkins and leather have paid.

As the duties and exciſe are the great obſtruction to the exportation of leather breeches, it may be conducive to the general good, if our ſuperiors would pleaſe to conſider, that, as this article now ſtands, our politic rivals, the French, have, and do actually buy our deer-ſkins undreſſed, taking the drawback on exportation, and dreſs and manufacture them at home, and ſend them in breeches to a foreign market, where they have ſold very well (though inferior in many reſpects to thoſe that are made in London) which ſeems to be owing to our ill-judged impoſts, duties, and exciſes on leather. *See the article* LABOUR.

LEATHER-CUTTER *and* CURRIER, is a buſineſs in London of large extent, and is generally carried on by thoſe who were originally curriers; between whom and the worſhipful company of cordwainers in London, there was ſome years ſince a diſpute at law, concerning the right of cutting leather; which, after expending ſome thouſands of pounds, ended with each party's ſitting down with their own coſts. To curry a ſkin, is to finiſh it after it comes from the tanner; the art conſiſteth in cutting them to a proper ground, waxing, colouring, and making them fit for the uſe of ſeveral manufactures. It is deemed a good employment for maſter and journeyman, eſpecially as they now cut large quantities of bucks and buffs into ſoals for ſhoes and boots, and of calves leather for upper-leathers for ſhoes, and legs for boots, which they ſell to many ſhoemakers in town and country, wholeſale and retail, and deal largely in all the ſorts of uncut, tanned, and other leather. It is a buſineſs, that, in its preſent ſituation, requires a good capital; the tanner felling chiefly for ready money, and the returns generally conſiderable, with ſome * very large.

* There is one on Snow-Hill, London, ſaid to return near forty thouſand pounds *per annum*.

LEATHER-DRESSER. We have before obſerved, that leather might be divided into three aſſortments, i. e. tanned or tawed, oil and allum-leather; and the dreſſers into the like number. For the tanned or tawed leather, *ſee* TANNER. Thoſe who dreſs in oil and allum come under this article, and are called leather-dreſſers. The art of dreſſing ſkins in oil is a buſineſs of large extent, and very beneficial to this kingdom. To deſcribe every proceſs in this art is needleſs; it may be ſufficient to ſay, that when the ſkins are put into work, they are at firſt ſoaked, then thrown into the lime-pit, when taken thence are pulled and delivered to the friezer, then ſtruck with the oil and ſent to the mill; when they are milled ſufficiently, they are thrown into the drench to be ſcoured, (then by ſome ſcudded) which done, they are hung upon the hooks to dry; after which they are deemed leather, and when the proper officers have weighed and marked them, in order to eſtimate the exciſe duty thereon, they are fit for the market, or to be ſent to the reſpective proprietors. The ſorts of ſkins dreſſed in oil, are deer, ſheep, and lamb (ſome few goat, and others not worth mentioning) of which prodigious quantities are conſumed, when wrought into the different manufactures made thereof. It is a flouriſhing buſineſs in moſt parts of the kingdom; its profeſſors (thoſe eſpecially who dreſs their own ſkins) being men of large fortunes, and dealing for very conſiderable ſums: London, Briſtol, and Exeter, are the principal markets for oil-leather *, although there are others, and oil mills ſet up within theſe few years, in ſeveral parts of the kingdom.

* The oil they uſe is Newfoundland, i. e. cod's liver-oil, of which they conſume a great quantity.

Some of this buſineſs make from their pieces a large quantity of glue, which is judged to be the beſt that is; that made by Shipton and ſons at Watford in particular. It may, perhaps, be of ſervice to the farmer to know, that the fleſhings and ſhavings, made by friezing the ſkins, is a very rich manure.

The allum leather-dreſſer, is one that underſtandeth the manner of dreſſing ſkins in allum, of which there is a conſiderable conſumption; the art conſiſteth in properly ſoaking, liming, wringing *, and ſtriking them in a liquor, compoſed of water, ſalt, and allum, then drying them properly; which done, and the exciſe account taken, they are fit for the market. The ſorts of ſkins dreſſed in allum, are ſheep and lambs, and a large quantity of kid.

* Some ſorts are not wrung, nor any by ſome dreſſers.

LEATHER-DYER. This is an art of which there are but few in the trade; their buſineſs is to dye, colour, oil, and allum leather, for the manufactures, which they do of all colours, ſome of them to a very great nicety. This profeſſion hath ſuffered by black ram-ſkin breeches not being ſo generally worn now, as they were before the death of her late majeſty. The mourning for her occaſioning a large demand for black ram lambſkins, obliged the manufacturers to dye ſome ſkins that were not quite proper; and the dyer being preſſed to expedite them too faſt, were the true cauſes that many of them did not come up to the character they bore before that time: the conſequence of this was (and ever will be in ſuch caſes) a decline in their conſumption; notwithſtanding which, there is not ſo gnod or ſerviceable a commodity of the colour as black ram-ſkin breeches are, when made as they ought to be. We take notice of this as a caution to all manufacturers, to be careful how they vend an indifferent commodity, for the ſake of a preſent profit; for it will prove, in the run of trade, to be a future loſs, to all concerned in that manufacture; therefore this ſhould never be done, on any conſideration whatſoever.

LEATHER-PARER *and* GROUNDER is an art, by which its profeſſers give the finiſhing ſtroke to all ſorts of oil, allum, and ſome tanned leathers. It conſiſteth in bringing the oil leather to its proper face, by paring off the ſurface left on it by the dreſſer, and grounding it with a ſtone, compoſed or made of pieces of the pumice-ſtone; and in waſhing and grounding the allum and tanned leather, and making all fit for the uſe of the ſeveral manufacturers. It is a laborious art, that affordeth a good maintenance to the maſter, and good wages to the journeyman.

LEATHER-SELLER, is a buſineſs that is followed by many in this city, and ſeveral other parts of the kingdom. They buy large quantities of undreſſed deer-ſkins of the importers: oil, allum, and ſome ſorts of tanned leather of the dreſſers; all which they ſell to the manufacturers. It is a very genteel buſineſs; but their returns being large and ſlow (they buying all their undreſſed deer-ſkins with ready money, and giving large credit) it requires a very large capital to carry it on. In the city of London they are an incorporated company, &c. and generally have with an apprentice one hundred pounds, frequently more.

LEAVEN, whatever makes a body ſwell and ferment.

LEDGER. *See* BOOK-KEEPING.

LEE, at ſea, generally denotes the part towards which the wind blows.

LEE-SHORE, that on which the wind blows.

LEES, the groſſeſt part of wine, oil, &c. being the ſediment found at the bottom of the veſſel.

A kind of gravelly ſand is made of the lees of wine burnt and prepared, which is uſed by dyers, &c. And the vinegar-makers drive a great trade with lees of wine dried and made into cakes, out of which all the liquor has been preſſed.

LEEWARD ISLANDS, conſiſting of St. Chriſtophers, Nevis, or Mevis, and other Caribbee Iſlands. The firſt of theſe is about ſeventy-five miles in circumference, and lies in the latitude of ſeventeen degrees twenty-five minutes on this ſide the line. The Engliſh and French both took poſſeſſion

poſſeſſion of it the ſame day, and, in May 1627, divided it between them, continuing in perfect amity till the breaking out of the war, which deſtroyed the harmony; and our countrymen being more powerful than their neighbours, drove them off the premiſes, which by the treaty of Utrecht were confirmed to the crown of Great-Britain.

Their chief product is ſugar, (of which in a common year they make about ten thouſand hogſheads,) but like Barbadoes, this alſo yields ſome ginger, indigo, and cotton.

Nevis, or Mevis, was alſo ſettled by the ſame perſons, and within a year of the ſame time as St. Kits was, and is commonly the reſidence of the governor of theſe *Leeward Iſlands*; it is not above twenty miles in circuit, yet has maintained between thirty and forty thouſand whites and blacks, and produces about ſix thouſand hogſheads of ſugar.

Montſerrat was begun planting with Nevis, and ſeems to be near a circle of about three leagues diameter, more mountainous than any other of the Antilles, and yet ſo fruitful in the vallies and plains, as to produce from twenty-five hundred to three thouſand hogſheads of ſugar, (beſides ſome other of the commodities before-mentioned, natural to theſe iſles) and to ſupport about five thouſand white, and twelve or fourteen thouſand black people.

Barbuda was as early ſettled as either of the two laſt-mentioned iſles; but being different in its products, and having met with greater interruptions to its ſettlement, by frequent incurſions from the Caribbeans, there are not to this day two thouſand people at moſt in the iſland, though theſe are all white, as their ſole employ is huſbandry, for carrying on which themſelves are ſufficient without ſlaves; they raiſe corn, and feed cattle, with which they ſupply their neighbours.

Anguilla, (as it is falſely wrote) or Snake Iſland, (as it is more falſely tranſlated) is about ten leagues long, and three broad, ſomething eel-like, or ſerpentine in its ſhape, and all ſo level, that there is not a mountain in it. The firſt adventurers ſettled here in 1650, and finding this like Barbuda, fitter for raiſing corn and breeding cattle, than other productions, they brought their ſtock with them, and might undoubtedly, like the inhabitants of that iſland, have made a better improvement in their farming buſineſs than they have done, had not idleneſs lulled them into a ſlothful neglect of the means providence had put into their hands, of procuring a comfortable ſubſiſtence; but they content themſelves with a bare ſufficiency for nature's ſupport, though not through the inſtigation of any philoſophic principles, but as the reſult of a confirmed ſloth and lazineſs, which is as great as can be, and ſeems the influence of the air they breathe, as many from Barbadoes, and every other of the Caribbee Iſlands, have been infected with it on their arrival here; and it is carried to ſo high a pitch, that they live in a more lawleſs manner than even their predeceſſors, the Indians, ever did, having neither a miniſter nor magiſtrate among them; ſo little ſenſe or notion have they of government or religion.

They hardly amount to a thouſand people, and they have very little ſugar, and, we believe, no cotton, indigo, or ginger among them.

Antego, or Antigua, is about ſixty miles in circumference, and was granted by king Charles in 1663, to Francis lord Willoughby, governor of Barbadoes, on which he ſettled a colony in about three years time; it, however, afterwards, by ſome means, reverted to the crown. Its principal town is St. John's, conſiſting of about two hundred houſes; and Mr. Harris ſays, its inhabitants are reckoned about fifteen hundred; though we ſhould judge them to be more from the quantity of its products, as of ſugar only it is ſuppoſed to make ſixteen thouſand hogſheads, beſides a little ginger, indigo, and tobacco: the ſoil in moſt places is but indifferent, the heats are greater than in Barbadoes, &c. and the hurricanes more frequent and deſtructive.

It ſhould not be forgot that our iſland of Granada, and its dependencies the Granadillos, are free from hurricanes; to which alſo our iſland of St. Vincent is ſeldom expoſed. To judge of the true value, and to aſcertain the real importance of theſe iſlands, that are altogether now become ours, we muſt view and contemplate them in their different lights, from which they may every one of them become more or leſs, immediately or remotely, directly or indirectly, aſſiſting to the intereſt, increaſing the power and the commerce, extending the navigation, and thereby promoting the welfare of Great-Britain; or, in other words, conducing to the induſtry, the independency, and the happineſs of their fellow citizens, and fellow ſubjects, who are the inhabitants of this their mother-country.

To judge to what degree our new acquiſitions in the Weſt-Indies may be likely to anſwer theſe deſirable purpoſes, it will be requiſite to obſerve that general arrangement of things, which has ſince the peace of 1763, taken place in this part of the world. There is not now an iſland ſmall or great in the Weſt-Indies, the right to as well as the poſſeſſion of which, is not pretty clearly aſcertained, and this without introducing any new powers into America, which might have proved prejudicial to our intereſts. By thus adjuſting the ſettlements of different ſtates, an end is put, at leaſt as far as human foreſight reaches, to their ambitious views.

In virtue of this adjuſtment, many of our old plantations will avail themſelves of thoſe ſupplies of timber, from which they have been for many years precluded. The run-away negroes will not be able to ſhelter themſelves any more in uninhabited iſlands, and thoſe impediments to, and embarraſſments of our navigation, which have been often ſeverely felt, and in conſequence of which ſo many frequent and loud complaints have been made to almoſt every government in our colonies, will be removed, by the taking away of the cauſes.

By parting with Granada and its dependencies, the French have not only loſt the produce in ſugar, coffee, cotton, &c. of that iſland, which was not inconſiderable; with all title to thoſe improvements, which, as appears from their own authors, they were fully convinced might be made therein; and the advantage of thoſe ſafe and commodious ports; but likewiſe the facility which they derived from thence, of ſuccouring all their iſlands, even when we had ſuperior ſquadrons in thoſe ſeas; to which, for the future, they muſt, in caſe of war, be inevitably expoſed. By the ſame ſtep, they have deprived themſelves, on that ſide at leaſt, of the intercourſe they had with the Spaniards, and muſt hereafter run much greater hazards than formerly, in receiving, when their neceſſities require them, ſupplies of proviſions and military ſtores from the Dutch.

LEGHORN. *See* FLORENCE.

LEGUMEN, *legume*, in botany, a ſpecies of plants called pulſe, ſuch as peas, beans, &c. being ſo denominated, becauſe they may be gathered by the hand, without cutting, as corn uſually is. Mr. Ray reckons all thoſe plants that have a papilionaceous flower among the *legumens*.

LEICESTERSHIRE, is famous for ſheep with the largeſt wool in England, and though the quantity of it is very great, yet it is here employed in no other fabric than that of a variety of woven ſtockings; beſides which, their ſole manufacture is of felt, caſtor, and beaver hats. Its products are ſea-coal; and beans and peas abound here to a proverb. It ſends (jointly with Warwickſhire) above five hundred tons of cheeſe by land to London, and is ſuppoſed to produce above a thouſand tons more, ſold to Birmingham and other large towns, and ſent into Northamptonſhire, Hertfordſhire, &c. beſides two or three hundred tons remitted from thence to Stirbridge fair.

LEINSTER, a province in Ireland. This province is waſhed on the ſouth and eaſt by the ſea; has Munſter and Connaught on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; and Ulſter on the north; and is about three hundred and ſixty miles in circumference.

It has a temperate clear air, a ſoil fruitful in corn and paſture, and, though in ſome parts woody, abounds in general with cattle, fowls, milk, butter, cheeſe, fiſh, &c.

Its principal rivers are, the Barrow, Boyne, Liffy, Neur, Slaine, and May.

It is divided into the twelve following counties, viz.

I. *Louth county*, which has St. George's Channel on the eaſt; Monaghan and Eaſt-Meath on the weſt; Armagh and Carlingford Bay on the north; and Weſt-Meath on the ſouth-eaſt. It is the leaſt county in the kingdom.

*Car-*

*Carlingford* is one of the beſt harbours in Ireland, at the mouth of the Neur; but, the town being a little out of the way for buſineſs, the trade is not equal to the extent of the harbour. They uſe the coal-trade to Whitehaven, as alſo the fiſhing in the ſeaſon, which is the life of trade on all this ſide of Ireland, eſpecially north.

*Dundalk* is the ſhire-town, and has a good market, but little or no trade.

*Drogheda*, which ſtands on a bay of its own name, has a good harbour, but of difficult entrance. The town is populous, and has ſome trade to the North parts of England, and is ſupplied with coals from Whitehaven, which they ſend to all the country round.

II. The *county of Eaſt-Meath* has thoſe of Cavan and Louth on the north and north-eaſt; Kildare on the ſouth-weſt; Weſt-Meath on the weſt; with Dublin county and the ocean on the eaſt.

Trim is its chief, if not only town of note, but is not a place of any trade.

III. *Weſt-Meath*, ſo called in reſpect of its ſituation from the former, lies between the King's county on the ſouth, and Longford on the north, and runs weſt to the Shannon, which parts it from Roſcommon. It is well watered with rivers and lakes, but intermixed with bogs.

*Molingar*, which lies in the center, is the head of the county by act of parliament, and a market-town of conſiderable note and ſtrength.

IV. The *county of Longford* has Weſt-Meath on the eaſt and ſouth, Cavan on the north, and Roſcommon on the weſt.

V. *Dublin county* is waſhed on the eaſt by the Iriſh ſea, has the county of Kildare on the weſt, Eaſt-Meath on the north, and Wicklow on the ſouth.

*Dublin*, the metropolis of the whole kingdom, is pleaſantly ſeated on the Liffy, and is the grand mart, and the center of commerce for Ireland, eſpecially for the communication of trade with England; and though Corke is the chief port for trade to foreign parts, and for exportation of proviſion to the Weſt-Indies, a trade of great importance to Ireland; yet, that of Dublin is greatly ſuperior in this particular, viz. that by its great import of all kinds of merchandize from all parts, either directly, or by way of England, it has the chief part of the inland trade. The only misfortune of this city is, the deficiency of its harbour, occaſioned by the bar, where ſuch heaps of ſand are brought in by the tides, that it is difficult of entrance for loaden ſhips, except at ſpring-tides, and even then ſhips of great burden dare not venture in; nor, when they are in the haven, can any ſhip come to the key that draws above ſeven or eight feet water.

The city is ſupplied with coals from Whitehaven in Cumberland, and Swanzey in Wales, in ſuch great fleets, that it is common to ſee two hundred ſail of colliers in the road at a time.

VI. The *county of Kildare* has thoſe of Dublin and Wicklow on the eaſt, King's and Queen's counties on the weſt, Catherlough on the ſouth, and Eaſt-Meath on the north.

Naas is the ſhire-town, but Kildare the capital of the county.

VII. *King's county* has a part of Tipperary on the weſt, by which, and Queen's county, it is bounded on the ſouth, by Kildare on the eaſt, and Weſt-Meath on the north.

Bally Bay, in this county, is a well-ſituated thriving plantation, near the center of it.

VIII. *Queen's county* has King's county on the north and weſt, part of Kildare and Catherlagh on the eaſt, and Kilkenny and Catherlagh on the ſouth.

Port-Arlington, a ſmall town in the north part of the county, on the river Barrow, is reckoned a thriving plantation. But

Mountmellick, a well-improved town, is ſaid to be the beſt market in the county.

IX. The *county of Wicklow* has St. George's Channel on the eaſt, Kildare and Catherlagh counties on the weſt, that of Dublin and part of Kildare on the north, and Wexford county on the ſouth. A copper mine was diſcovered here not many years ago, at the expence of Mr. Wayne, and other gentlemen of Briſtol, which is like to bring them great profit for their undertaking.

The ſhire-town is Wicklow, at the mouth of the river Letrim; but it has not any trade, except what is managed in ſmall veſſels, and chiefly to carry proviſions to Dublin, for the haven is good for nothing. It is famous for the beſt ale of Ireland.

Dunlavin, is a fine Engliſh plantation, and a good market.

X. The *county of Catherlagh* has Wexford on the ſouth, part of Queen's county and Kilkenny on the weſt, part of Kildare and Wicklow on the north, and part of Wicklow and Wexford on the eaſt.

XI. The *county of Kilkenny* is bounded an the weſt with Tipperary, on the eaſt with Wexford and Catherlagh, on the ſouth with Waterford, and on the north with Queen's county. This county is adorned with more towns and caſtles than any other in the kingdom.

Kilkenny is a large, ſtrong, populous, and wealthy city, with as good a trade as any inland town of that kingdom.

XII. The *county of Wexford* has St. George's Channel on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, part of Catherlagh and Kilkenny on the weſt, and Wicklow on the north.

Roſs, on the borders of Kilkenny county, is a town of good trade, by means of its river, formed hy the conjunction of the Neur and Barrow, which brings up ſhips of very conſiderable burden to its key.

Wexford ſtands at the mouth of the river Slane: it is a large corporation, as well as the ſhire-town, and has a very good harbour.

LEIPSIG, is one of the greateſt trading towns in Germany; its ſituation is advantageous, for a place that has no river of conſequence near it. Magdeburg, which is ſituated on the Elbe, is fourteen German miles and a half diſtance, and merchandize is brought from Hamburg by that channel. What has diſtinguiſhed this city through a long ſeries of years, is the liberty of conſcience which has been indulged to all ſorts of people.

The wool which is collected in this city is an important article, and contributes much to the wealth of the citizens. They have ſome rich manufactures, and are much diſtinguiſhed for painted cloths, in imitation of tapeſtry. Wars and invaſions, with the want of œconomy at court, have much humbled the pride of the citizens, and reduced that luxury which the advantages of commerce had introduced amongſt them. The viſit which the king of Pruſſia made them is yet freſh in their minds; and the heavy contributions impoſed on them, ſit heavy at their hearts. In this place are three fairs kept annually, namely, New-year's day, Eaſter, and Michaelmas. Formerly theſe were all very conſiderable, but now that of Eaſter only. To theſe reſort Polanders, Hungarians, Bohemians, Pruſſians, and people from all parts of Germany; alſo French and Italians, and even Ruſſians come hither, and bring the produce of their reſpective countries. Magdeburg ſupplies it with tobacco, which is the growth of that place: ſo great aquantity of this article is conſumed in Germany, that a common poſtilion is ſaid to fill his pipe thrice in the ſpace of two German miles.

Accompts are kept here in dollars and goete groſchen, of which twenty-four make a dollar: a ducat paſſes for two dollars three quarters. Sundry coins are current, but the pure Saxon ſilver money is as hard to be found here as in Dreſden. The exchange on Amſterdam is ordinarily about one hundred and thirty dollars for one hundred rix-dollars current of the United Provinces. Their centner is one hundred and ten pounds, different from the Engliſh weight about two and a half *per cent.* Their ell is twenty-two inches and a half Engliſh.

Here are about forty thouſand inhabitants within the gates, of whicb ſixteen families are French refugees: the ſuburbs are filled with people.

LEITH-HARBOUR. By 27 *Geo.* II. power is given to the magiſtrates of Edinburgh to contribute two thouſand pounds, and likewiſe to receive contributions from other perſons, towards improving and enlarging this harbour, and erecting conveniencies for building, repairing, loading, unloading, and laying up of ſhips and veſſels, and for the building of warehouſes, wharfs, and keys; but, as no duty is laid on ſhipping by this act, we ſhall take no further notice of it.

LEMNIAN EARTH, *terra lemnia*, is a fat, viſcid, ſlippy clay, of a pale red colour. It is brought to us in little

little cakes or troches, marked with different characters. It has its name from the iſland of Lemnos, where it is dug.

This earth, when genuine, is a good medicine in dyſenteries, eroſions of the inteſtines, hæmorrhages of all kinds, and in gleets, ſeminal weakneſſes, and the fluor albus in women.

LEON, in Spaniſh America, produces ſugar, cattle, hides, pitch, roſin, and excellent cordage, beſides plenty of timber for ſhips, whereof more are built here than at any place in the South Seas.

LESPARSO, is ſituated in the Bay of Caldaria, two leagues from the ſea; it is the port to Carthage, a city of South America, in the province of Quimbaia, twenty-four leagues diſtant from it, and formerly had a good trade, but it is now reduced to ſome ſugar, hides, and proviſions for Lima.

LETTER-CASE-MAKER. The boy who is deſigned for this buſineſs, ought to have ſome ingenuity; but no more than a common education is neceſſary. Some of this trade make a great variety of ſorts, faſtened with locks and claſps of various kinds, together with travelling deſks, &c. This art has been lately much improved by Meſſrs. Richards and company, who have not only invented more commodious pocket-books, &c. but make ſilver and gold claſps, finely chaſed, others beautifully enamelled, and others of poliſhed ſteel and gold. The *letter-caſe-makers* in the common way, take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice. A journeyman gets from twelve to fifteen ſhillings a week; and may ſet up with fifty pounds.

LETTER-FOUNDER. This is a claſs of founders who are ſolely employed in caſting letters or types for the printers. It is an ingenious buſineſs, of which there are only three in London. Theſe letters are caſt at the end of pieces of metal about an inch long. Thoſe of every claſs and every ſize are formed in the following manner: the maſter founder cuts the letter in relief on the point of a ſteel punch, with the niceſt exactneſs; and then ſtriking the impreſſion upon a piece of copper, the letter is left indented in it; and this piece of copper, with this impreſſion, which is called the matrix, is placed in an iron mould, which being ſhut, the metal is poured in, and the letter caſt. The work is not hard, but attended with ſome inconvenience as to health, on account of their ſtanding all day over the hot metal, which is a mixture of lead, pewter, antimony, &c. They take with an apprentice ten, fifteen, or twenty pounds; and a journeyman may earn three ſhillings a day; but it is not a very eaſy taſk to commence maſter.

LETTER *of* ATTORNEY, is a writing authorizing an attorney, that is, a man appointed to do a lawful act in our ſtead. As a *letter of attorney* to give ſeiſin of lands, to receive debts, to ſue a third perſon, &c.

LETTERS *of* SAFE-CONDUCT. In all ſafe-conducts to be granted to any perſons, the names of them, of the ſhips, and of the maſters, and the number of the mariners, with the portage of the ſhips, ſhall be expreſſed. 15 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 3.

Merchants aliens may load ſhips of Spain, and other parts, adverſaries and enemies of the king, if the maſters, or merchants of ſuch ſhips, have letters patent of the king of his ſafe-conduct, making mention of the name of the ſhips, and of the maſters; and if any ſuch ſhip charged with ſuch merchandizes of ſuch merchants be taken upon this ſea, by the king's people, not having the king's letters patent, within the board of ſuch ſhips, at the day of the taking, nor that ſuch letters patent be in the Chancery inrolled, the takers may enjoy the ſame. 18 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 8.

All letters of ſafe-conduct to be granted to the king's enemies, or others, ſhall be inrolled in Chancery, before ſuch letters be delivered; and all letters of ſafe-conduct not inrolled before delivery, ſhall be void. 20 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 1. *f.* 2, 3, 4.

If any goods be taken by the ſubjects of the king upon the ſea, charged in any ſhip belonging to enemies, not having letters of ſafe-conduct inrolled, they that take the goods ſhall them enjoy.

The ſubjects taking ſuch ſhips, not having letters of ſafe-conduct within the ſaid ſhips, and bringing them within the realm, ſhall not be endamaged for ſuch taking, if they be ready to make reſtitution, within reaſonable time after knowledge is made to them of the letters of ſafe-conduct, inrolled in Chancery before the taking.

If any ſubjects attempt to offend upon the ſea, or in any port under the king's obedience, againſt any ſtrangers in amity, league, or truce, or by ſafe-conduct, the chancellor ſhall have authority to cauſe ſuch perſon to be delivered, and the goods or ſhip taken to be reſtored, &c. 31 *Hen.* VI.

There was formerly appointed in theſe realms a conſervator of ſafe-conducts, and the ſame perſon had alſo the care of truces. *See* PASSPORTS, LEAGUES, and TRUCES.

LETTERS *of Credit*, among merchants, a letter which a merchant or banker directs to his correſpondent in any country, ordering him to credit the bearer as far as a certain ſum. *See* BILLS *of exchange*.

LETTERS *of Licence*, in trade, a writing granted to a man who has failed, and is ſigned and ſealed by his creditors; whereby the debtor has a longer time for payment, and may go about his buſineſs without fearing an arreſt.

LETTERS *of Marque*, are extraordinary commiſſions granted to captains or merchants for repriſals, in order to make reparation for thoſe damages they have ſuſtained, or the goods they have been deſpoiled of by ſtrangers at ſea.

They ſeem to be always joined to thoſe of repriſe, for the reparation of a private injury; but, when the hurt of an enemy is ſolely intended under a declared war, the former only are granted to privateers, as will be ſhewn under that article.

Theſe commiſſions in the law have other appellations than repriſals or letters of marque, as *pignoratio*, *clarigatio*, and *androlepſia*; and though, by virtue of theſe, any capture they licenſe becomes legal, yet private authority will not juſtify the proceedings, as it only can be done by the power of that prince or ſtate, whoſe ſubject the injured perſon is, nor is the ſame grantable even by them, but where the ſuffering perſon has juſtice denied him, or illegally delayed. *Grot. de Jure Belli & Pacis, l.* 3. *c.* 2. *f.* 4, 5.

This cuſtom of repriſals is now become a law by the conſent of nations, and has been generally confirmed by an article in almoſt every treaty of peace that has, for ſome years paſt, been made in Europe, under its proper reſtrictions and limitations; as in that concluded with Spain the 13th of May, 1667, (art. 3.) that with France the 21ſt of July, 1667, (art. 16.) that with Holland of the ſame date, (art. 31.) that with Denmark the 11th of July, 1670, and almoſt all others made ſince; and it was conſtituted by them, grounded, according to the great Juſtinian, on the urgency of human neceſſities, as, without this, great licence would be given and tolerated for the committing of depredations and injuries, eſpecially if only the goods of rulers were made liable, who ſeldom poſſeſs any thing that the injured can come at for ſatisfaction; whereas the effects of thoſe private men, whoſe dealings in trade are various, may be catched for recompence, ſometimes with the greateſt eaſe, and freeſt from riſque or danger. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 27. *f.* 3. *Juſt. Inſt. de Jure Nat.*

And, as the benefit of this obligation was common to all nations, they which were at one time ſufferers, would at another time be eaſed by it, and princes are not only accountable for public injuries, but in prudence ſhould endeavour to prevent private ones, and, by ſetting the good example of protecting foreigners from wrongs, add ſtrength to their juſt demands of redreſs, whenever their own ſubjects have occaſion to requeſt it from them.

If therefore the injured party cannot obtain his definitive ſentence or judgment, within a fit time, againſt the perſon of whom he complains, or if there be a judgment given againſt apparent right and law, and no relief can be had from the iniquity of ſuch a decree, the bodies and moveables of the prince's ſubjects, who render not right, may be apprehended and taken. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 28. *ſect.* 5.

But in the proſecution of this there muſt be,

1. The oath of the party injured, or other ſufficient proof, touching the pretended injury, and of the certain loſs and damage thereby ſuſtained.

2. A proof of the due proſecution, for the obtaining ſatisfaction in a legal way.

3. The

3. The delaying or denial of juſtice.
4. A complaint to his own prince or ſtate.
5. Requiſition of juſtice, by him, or them, made to the ſupreme head or ſtate, where juſtice in the ordinary courſe was denied.
6. Perſiſtency ſtill in the denial of juſtice.

And all this preceding letters of repriſal, under ſuch cautions, reſtrictions, and limitations, as are conſonant to the law of nations, and ſubſiſting treaties, and as the ſpecial caſe ſhall require, may iſſue, not only by the *jus gentium* and *civile*, but by the ancient and municipal laws of the kingdom. *Mag. Char. c.* 30. the latter clauſe.

The repriſals grantable by the laws of England are of two ſorts, *ordinary* and *extraordinary*; the *ordinary* are either within or without the realm, and are always granted to Engliſh merchants who have ſuffered in their perſons or effects, and have had their goods ſpoiled, or taken from them, beyond the ſea, by merchants ſtrangers, and cannot upon ſuit, or the king's demanding juſtice for him, obtain redreſs; in ſuch caſe, the injured perſon proving, that he has proſecuted the offenders in a legal courſe, and had juſtice delayed, or denied him, he ſhall have a writ out of Chancery, to attach the merchants ſtrangers of that nation, or their goods here in England, the which is granted to the ſubject oppreſſed, not as a matter of favour, but of common right, by the lord chancellor, or keeper of England, who always, in ſuch caſe, hath the approbation of the king, or council, or both, for his ſo doing. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 29. *f.* 7.

The other *ordinary* repriſals, granted for reparation out of the realm, are always under the great ſeal of England, and cannot be revoked or annulled; and the reaſon is, becauſe the perſon injured hath petitioned, and hath, according to law, made out by proof his loſs, and no regard having been paid to letters of requeſt, ſent to the prince of the offender, nor reparation made; then the letters patent of repriſal (being ſealed) immediately create and veſt a national debt in the grantee, to be ſatisfied in ſuch manner, and by ſuch means, as the ſaid letters patent do direct, out of the goods and eſtates of his ſubjects who refuſe or protelate doing right; but, though theſe letters patents are unrevokable, yet, if the ſupreme power thinks the execution of them cannot well be effected, without endangering the peace of both ſtates, this may juſtly cauſe their reſpite till a more proper occaſion; for the ſtatute of 4 *Hen.* V. *c.* 7. does not reſtrain the king's prerogative and authority, which he had at the common law, in judging the conveniency and time when they ſhall be executed; and as the king hath the legiſlative power of peace and war, in a public treaty for the nation's good, they may be mortified and then revoked by the great ſeal, in purſuance of that treaty, and princes are always cautious in the framing and compoſing ſuch letters patent, ſo as they may not be reckoned a breach of the peace, which the granting them (for particular ſatisfaction) in the ordinary way, does not amount to. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 30. *f.* 8.

The *extraordinary repriſals* are by letters of marque, for reparation at ſea, or any place out of the realm, grantable by the ſecretaries of ſtate, with the like approbation of the king or council, or both; but they are only during the king's pleaſure, and to weaken the enemy during the time of war, and may, at any time, be revoked. *Ditto, p.* 32. *f.* 10.

But, before granting letters of marque, there gradually precede two or three letters of requeſt, and, according to the ſatisfaction, ſufficient or inſufficient, returned in anſwer, commiſſions are awarded or denied; and the prince or ſtate, whoſe ſubject the injured perſon is, ſhould not value his misfortune at ſo low a rate, as to refuſe him the former, for that would be to accumulate injuries, but ſhould likewiſe, if juſtice be denied, after ſuch requeſt, arm him with power to take ſatisfaction by repriſe, *vi*, *manu*, *& militari*. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 32. *f.* 11.

Subjects cannot by force hinder the execution even of an unjuſt judgment, or lawfully purſue their right by force, by reaſon of the efficacy of the power over them: but foreigners have a right to compel, which yet they cannot uſe lawfully, ſo long as they may obtain ſatisfaction by judgment; though, if that ceaſes, then repriſal is let in. *Ditto, p.* 33. *f.* 12.

Judgment is obtained either in the ordinary courſe, by way of proſecution, or ſuit, or appeal from the ſame, after ſentence or judgment given, to a higher court; or elſe in the extraordinary way, which is by ſupplication, or petition, to the ſupreme power; but we muſt underſtand that to be when the matter in controverſy is, *tam quoad merita quam quoad modum procedendi*; not doubtful; for, in doubtful matters, the preſumption is ever for the judge or court. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 33. *f.* 13.

But the repriſal muſt be grounded on wrong judgment given, in matters not doubtful, which might have been redreſſed in ſome ſhape, either by the ordinary or extraordinary power of the country or place, and the which was apparently perverted or denied: though, if the maſter be doubtful, it is then otherwiſe; for in cauſes dubious or difficult, there is a preſumption always, that juſtice was truly adminiſtered by them who were duly elected and appointed for that purpoſe.

And yet, in this latter caſe, ſome are of opinion, if it was dubious, and, if the judgment was againſt apparent right, the ſtranger oppreſſed is let into his ſatisfaction; and the reaſon is, becauſe the judge's authority is not the ſame over foreigners as over ſubjects, for the motive or cauſe above-mentioned. *Paulus Leg. Julia D. de Cond. indebitor.*

If an Engliſh merchant ſhall proſecute a ſuit in the ordinary courts of law beyond ſeas, and ſentence or judgment ſhall paſs againſt him, from which he appeals to the ſupreme court, and there the firſt judgment or ſentence is confirmed, though the complaint hath received a judgment contrary to right and equity, yet this will be no cauſe for letters of repriſal, though, perhaps, it may occaſion letters of requeſt (if the circumſtances and reaſons are ſtrong for the ſame) to have a rehearſing.

But, if an Engliſhman ſhall have right to recover a debt there, and the debtor is committed to the cuſtody of an officer till payment, and he wilfully lets the priſoner eſcape, who then becomes inſolvent, this circumſtance may occaſion letters of repriſal.

In England, if a foreigner bring an action perſonal againſt I. S. and the matter is found ſpecial or general, and the party prays judgment, and the court refuſes it, and then the defendant dies, and with him the action (the nature of it being ſuch) the party is here without remedy, and the ſame may occaſion letters of repriſal, if it be accompanied with thoſe circumſtances that evince an apparent denial of juſtice, i. e. putting it off from term to term without cauſe.

An Engliſhman proſecutes his right in the legal courts beyond ſeas, and the military governor oppoſes the proſecution, and by force conveys away the debtor, and his goods, and the ſentence or judgement is obtained: its ultimate end being execution, is, by the afore-mentioned means, fruſtrated, and may occaſion letters of repriſal.

If any perſon ſhall be murdered, ſpoiled, or otherwiſe damaged, in hoſtile manner, in the territories or places belonging to any king, to whom letters of requeſt are iſſued forth; and, if no ſatisfaction be made for the injury, letters of repriſal may be granted, as the petitioning parties are not in ſuch caſes compelled to reſort to the ordinary proſecution; but the prince of the country, againſt whom the ſame are awarded, muſt repair the damage out of his, or their eſtates, who committed the injuries; and, if that proves deficient, it muſt then fall as a common debt on his country. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 34. *f.* 15.

Such letters of requeſt generally allot a time certain for damages to be repaired, and, if not complied with, repriſals are to iſſue: thus, after the maſſacre at Amboyna, and other depredations committed by the Dutch on the Engliſh, his majeſty, in 1625, iſſued forth his letters of requeſt to the ſtates of Holland, for ſatisfaction within eighteen months, otherwiſe letters of repriſal ſhould be granted; and king Charles II. iſſued letters of requeſt to the ſaid ſtates, for ſatisfaction to be granted to William Courten, Eſq; for depredations made by their ſubjects on two of his ſhips; but, not obtaining it in the limited time, he granted to the partners and heirs of the ſaid Courten his letters of marque, in the form following: *Ditto.*

Charles II. by the grace of God, of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. to

all Chriſtian people to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting: whereas our loving ſubject, William Courten, Eſq; deceaſed, and his partners, *anno* 1643, by the depredation and hoſtile act of one Gailand, commander in chief of two ſhips belonging to the Eaſt-India company of the Netherlands, was, between Goa and Macao, in the ſtreights of Malacca, deprived, and moſt injuriouſly ſpoiled, of a certain ſhip, named the Bona Eſperanza, and of her tackling, apparel, and furniture, and all the goods and lading in her, upon a very hopeful trading voyage to China, which were carried to Batavia, and there all, *de facto*, without due proceſs of law, confiſcated. And that alſo in the ſame year, another laded ſhip of our ſaid ſubject, called the Henry Bonadventure, being come on ground near the iſland Mauritius, was there, both ſhip and goods, ſeized upon by ſome of the officers and miniſters, and others under the command of the ſaid Eaſt-India company, and utterly detained from the right owners. And whereas the ſaid William Courten, and his aſſigns in his life-time, uſed all poſſible endeavours to recover the ſaid ſhips and goods, and to procure further juſtice againſt the malefactors, and yet could obtain no reſtitution or ſatisfaction, whereby they became to be much diſtreſſed and utterly undone in their eſtates and credit: and that thereupon, and upon the moſt humble ſupplications and addreſſes of Francis, earl of Shrewſbury, and William Courten, Eſq; grandchild and heir of the ſaid William, deceaſed, Sir John Ayton, and Sir Edmund Turner knights, George Carew, and Charles Whitaker, Eſqrs; on the behalf of themſelves, and divers others, intereſted in the ſaid two ſhips, Bona Eſperanza and Henry Bonadventure, and in the eſtates of the ſaid William Courten, deceaſed, Sir Edward Littleton, baronet, and Sir Paul Pindar, knight, deceaſed, that we would take their caſe into our princely conſideration. We, out of a juſt ſenſe we then had, and ſtill have, of their unjuſt ſufferings in that buſineſs, both by our own letters under our ſign *manual*, to the ſtates general of the United Provinces, and by Sir George Downing, knight and baronet, our envoy extraordinary, to whom we gave ſpecial commano ſo to do, required ſatisfaction to be made, according to the rules of juſtice, and the amity and good correſpondence, which we then deſired to conſerve with them firm and inviolable. And whereas, after ſeveral addreſſes made to the ſaid ſtates general by our ſaid envoy, and nothing granted effectual for relief of our ſaid ſubjects, (whom we take ourſelves in honour and juſtice concerned to ſee ſatisfied and repaid) we lately commanded the ſaid Sir George Downing to intimate and ſignify to the ſaid ſtates, that we expected their final anſwer, concerning ſatisfaction to be made for the ſaid ſhip and goods, by a time then prefixed, and ſince elapſed, that we might ſo govern ourſelves thereupon, that our aforeſaid ſubjects might be relieved according to right and juſtice, and yet no ſatisfactory anſwer hath been given; ſo that we cannot but apprehend it to be, not only a fruitleſs endeavour, but a proſtituting of our honour and dignity, to make farther application, after ſo many denials and ſlightings. And whereas John Exton, doctor of laws, judge of our high admiralty court of England, upon our command, to certify to us the value of the loſſes and damage ſuſtained by the ſaid William Courten and partners, whoſe intereſt is now veſted in our loving ſubjects, Sir Edmund Turner, knight, and George Carew, Eſq; and partners, hath, upon full examination, and proofs thereof made by witneſſes in our high court of admiralty, reported and certified under his hand, that the ſame do amount to the ſum of one hundred fifty-one thouſand ſix hundred and twelve pounds.

Now know ye, that, for a full reſtitution to be made to them, for their ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, of which the ſaid William Courten, and the aſſigns of the ſaid William Courten, and partners, were ſo deſpoiled as aforeſaid, with all ſuch coſts and charges as they ſhall be at, for the recovery of the ſame, we, by the advice of our privy council, have thought fit, and by theſe preſents do grant, licenſe, and authorize, under our great ſeal of England, unto our ſaid ſubjects, Sir Edmund Turner, and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for, and on behalf of themſelves, and other perſons intereſted, as aforeſaid, to equip, victual, furniſh, and to ſet to ſea, from time to time, ſuch, and ſo many ſhips and pinnaces, as they ſhall think fit; provided always, that there be an entry made and recorded in the admiralty court, of the names of all ſhips and veſſels, and of their burden and ammunition, and for how long time they are victualled; and alſo of the name of the commander thereof, before the ſame or any of them be ſet forth to ſea; and with the ſaid ſhips and pinnaces, by force of arms, to ſet upon, take, and apprehend, any of the ſhips, goods, monies, and merchandizes, of the ſtates general, or any of the ſubjects inhabiting within any their dominions or territories, whereſoever the ſame ſhall be found, and not in any port or harbour in England or Ireland, unleſs it be the ſhips and goods of the parties who did the wrong. And the ſaid ſhips and goods, monies, and merchandizes, being ſo taken, and brought into ſome port of our realms and dominions, an inventory thereof ſhall be taken, by authority of our court of admiralty, by the judge or judges thereof, for the time being, upon proof made before him or them, that the ſaid ſhips, goods, wares, merchandizes, or money, did belong to the ſtates general, or any of the ſubjects, as aforeſaid, that they ſhall be lawful prize to the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, to retain and keep in their, or any of their poſſeſſions, and to make ſale, and diſpoſe thereof in open market, or however elſe, to their, and every of their beſt advantage and benefit, in as ample manner as at any time heretofore hath been accuſtomed by way of reprizal, and to have and enjoy the ſame as lawful prize, and as their own proper goods: ſo that "neither captain, maſter, nor any of the company, that ſhall ſerve in his own perſon, or ſhall promote and advance the ſaid enterprize, in manner and form aforeſaid, ſhall, in any manner of wiſe, be reputed, or challenged, for any offender againſt any of our laws. And that alſo it ſhall be lawful for all manner of perſons, as well our ſubjects as any others, to buy the ſaid ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, ſo taken and apprehended, by the ſaid captains, maſters, and others, and adjudged as aforeſaid, without any damage, loſs, hindrance, trouble, or moleſtation, or incumbrance, to befal the ſaid buyers, or any of them, in as ample and lawful manner, as if the ſhips, goods, wares, and merchandizes, had been come, and gotten by the lawful traffic of merchants, or of juſt prizes in the time of open war." Provided always, that all ſhips, goods, and merchandize, taken by virtue of this our commiſſion, ſhall be kept in ſafety, and no part of them waſted, ſpoiled, or diminiſhed, or the bulk thereof broken, until judgment hath firſt paſt, as aforeſaid, that they are the ſhips and merchandizes of the ſtates general, or their ſubjects as aforeſaid. And if by colour of this our commiſſion, there ſhall be taken any ſhips, goods, or merchandizes, of any of our loving ſubjects, or the ſubjects of any prince or ſtate in good league or amity with us (except the ſtates general, or their ſubjects, as aforeſaid) and the goods therein laden, ſold, and embezzled, or diminiſhed, or the bulk thereof broken, in any place, before they ſhall be adjudged to belong to the ſtates general, or ſome of their ſubjects, as aforeſaid, that then this commiſſion ſhall be of no ſufficient authority to take the ſaid ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, or to warrant, or to ſave harmleſs, ſuch as ſhall receive, buy, or intermeddle thercin; but that both the prizes ſo taken, and the ſaid ſhip of war, ſhall be confiſcated to our uſe. "And further, we do hereby declare, that it is our will and pleaſure, that this our commiſſion ſhall remain in full force and power, to all intents and purpoſes, until the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, ſhall, by virtue thereof, have, by force of arms, apprehended, taken, ſeized, recovered, and received, from the ſtates general, or their ſubjects, one hundred fifty-one thouſand ſix hundred and twelve pounds, according to the appraiſement to be made by ſufficient appraiſers, upon oath, nominated and authorized in our ſaid court of admiralty, of all ſuch ſhips, goods, wares, and merchandizes, as ſhall be taken from the ſaid ſtates general, or any of their ſubjects, by virtue of this commiſſion, or ſhall other ways receive ſatisfaction of the debt aforeſaid, by compoſition to be made between thoſe of the Eaſt-India company of the Netherlands, and the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid. Notwith-

withſtanding it ſo happen, the preſent difference between us and the ſtates general, depending upon general repriſals, may be agreed and compoſed, and that in the interim a peace may and goood correſpondence be renewed between us and the ſaid ſtates general; in which caſe, nevertheleſs, it is our will and pleaſure, that in the execution of this our commiſſion, no violence ſhall be done to the perſons of the ſaid ſubjects of the ſaid ſtates general, but only in caſe of reſiſtance; and that after, in cold blood, the ſubjects of the ſaid ſtates general, if hurt or wounded, ſhall be uſed with all convenient office of humanity and kindneſs. And further, our will and pleaſure is, that, although it ſhall happen, that all hoſtility between us and the ſtates general, and our reſpective ſubjects, ſhall ceaſe, yet this our commiſſion ſhall remain, and be in full force and power to the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, by virtue thereof to apprehend, take, and ſeize, by force and arms, ſo many of the ſaid ſhips and goods of the ſtates general, or any of their ſaid ſubjects, as, beſides the ſaid ſums before-mentioned, ſhall countervail, ſatisfy, and pay all coſts and charges, as the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators or aſſigns, as aforeſaid, ſhall, from time to time, make proof, to have diſburſed and paid, towards the equipping, manning, paying, furniſhing, and victualling of the ſaid ſhips, ſo licenſed and authorized as aforeſaid, by this our ſaid commiſſion, to be equipped, manned, furniſhed, and victualled, by the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, for the purpoſes aforeſaid." And our will and pleaſure is, and we do hereby require our judge or judges, of our high court of admiralty for the time being, and all other officers of the admiralty, and all other our judge or judges, officers, miniſters, and ſubjects whatſoever, to be aiding and aſſiſting to the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid, in all points in the due execution of this our royal commiſſion, and to proceed to adjudications, and adjudge all ſhips, merchandizes, monies, and goods, by virtue thereof to be taken, according to our princely intention, hereby ſignified and expreſſed, and to take care that this our royal commiſſion be duly executed, and favourably interpreted and conſtrued, in all reſpects, to the benefit and beſt advantage of the ſaid Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, as aforeſaid. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed theſe our letters to be made patent. Witneſs ourſelf, at Weſtminſter, the 19th day of May, in the ſeventeenth year of our reign.

*By the* KING.

It is not the place of any man's nativity, but that of his domicil and abode; not of his origination, but of his habitation, that ſubjects him to repriſe; the law doth not ſo much conſider where he was born, as where he lives; therefore, if letters of repriſal ſhould be awarded againſt the ſubjects of the grand duke of Tuſcany, and a native of Florence, (but denizened or naturalized in England) ſhould have a ſhip, in a voyage to Leghorn, taken, the capture is not lawful, nor can ſhe be made a prize: yet, by the laws of England, a natural-born ſubject cannot diveſt himſelf of his allegiance, though he happens to be commorant, or a dweller in the enemy's country. *Ditto* p. 40. *ſ.* 16.

It does not appear from any precedents, that repriſals can be granted on misfortunes happening to perſons or their goods, reſiding or being in foreign parts in time of war there; for, if any misfortune happens, or is occaſioned to their effects, or to their perſons, they muſt contentedly ſit down under their loſs; it being their own fault that they would not fly or quit the place, when they foreſaw the country was expoſed, or would be ſubject to the ſpoil of ſoldiers and devaſtations of the enemy. *Ditto p.* 41. *ſ.* 17.

By right, there are many perſons exempted, and thoſe whoſe perſons are ſo privileged have alſo protection for their goods, ſome by the law of nations, ſome by the civil law, others by the common law; among which the ambaſſadors, by the laws of nations, their retinue and goods, are exempt, coming from him who awarded repriſe; the law of nations not only provides for the dignity of him that ſends, but alſo the ſecure going and coming of him that is ſent. *Ditto p.* 41. *ſ.* 18.

Travellers through a country, whoſe ſtay is but ſhort, and a merchant of another place, than that againſt which repriſals are granted, although the factor of his goods was of that place, are not ſubject to repriſals.

When ſhips are driven into port by ſtorm or ſtreſs of weather, they have an exemption from the law of repriſals, according to the *jus commune*, though, by the law of England, it is otherwiſe, unleſs expreſly provided for in the writ or commiſſion; but, if ſuch ſhips fly from their own country to avoid confiſcation, or for ſome other fault, and are driven in by ſtreſs of weather, they may in ſuch caſe, become ſubject to be prize; though it is unlawful to make ſeizure in any ports for repriſals, but in that prince's who awarded them, or in his againſt whom the ſame is iſſued; for the ports of other princes or ſtates are ſacred, and the peace of them not to be violated or diſturbed, but juſtly to be obſerved and maintained. *Ditto p.* 42. *ſ.* 19.

If any ſhip carrying letters of repriſe attacks a veſſel, and ſhe refuſes to yield, ſhe may be aſſaulted and entered; and, if it falls out, though by accident, that ſome of thoſe who reſiſt are ſlain, the fault will lie at their own doors, for endeavouring to hinder the execution of what is right, and which the law both approves and warrants. *Grot. de Jure Belli. lib.* 3. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 4.

By the law of nations, *ipſo facto*, the dominion of the things taken by thoſe to whom letters of marque are granted become the captors, till the debt and coſts, that is, the original damage and ſubſequent charges, are ſatisfied, which being done, the reſidue ought to be reſtored. So the Venetians uſed their equity, having taken the ſhips of Genoa: they did not ſpoil any of the lading, but preſerved the ſame very carefully till the debt was paid, which done, an entire reſtitution of the things was made, without any diminution. *Greg. lib.* 9.

When, perhaps, for the fault of a few, a debt becomes national, by reaſon of which the goods of the innocent become liable (if taken) for ſatisfaction, in ſuch caſe the perſon ſo ſuffering, is entitled to contribution for his relief, being put to the whole burthen, where more are bound to the ſame thing.

Yet, when depredations have happened to foreign merchants, our kings (on complaint) have often iſſued commiſſions to enquire of the ſame; and it was ſo done upon the petition of ſome Genoeſe merchants, who complained againſt the inhabitants of the iſle of Guernſey, for a depredation in taking away and detaining their merchandize and goods to a very great value, out of a ſhip wrecked by tempeſt near that iſle, and the commiſſioners were empowered to puniſh the offenders, and to make reſtitution and ſatisfaction for the damages. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 46. *ſ.* 28. *Pat.* 26. *Edw.* III.

The like complaint was made by the merchants of the duke of Bretagne, of certain depredations committed by the ſubjects of the king of England, who iſſued forth the like commiſſion, to give them reparation and damages for the ſame; ſo that if the ſubjects of the king of England ſhould have their goods taken by way of repriſe for the ſatisfaction of ſuch debt or damage, they may have the benefit of the like commiſſions, to make themſelves whole out of the eſtates of the offenders. *Pat. de An.* 6. *H.* V.

LETTERS *Numeral*, thoſe uſed inſtead of cyphers, in order to expreſs numbers, as, C, D, I, L, M, V, X.

LETTERS *Patent*, or *overt*, writings ſealed with the great ſeal of England, whereby a man is authorized to do or enjoy any particular thing.

*Letters patent* conclude with *teſte meipſo*; charters with *his teſtibus*.

LETTERS *of Reſpite*, letters iſſued out by a prince, in favour of honeſt unfortunate debtors, to give a breathing while to them againſt too rigorous creditors. *See* BANKRUPTCY *in France*.

LEVANT-TRADE. Though the Turks are no traders, but rather diſcouragers of trade, yet, as they poſſeſs ſo great a part of the world, and ſome of the moſt fruitful, and productive of the beſt and choiceſt merchandizes, it will always induce the European parts of the world to ſend their merchants amongſt the Turks, to traffic with them.

The Turks themſelves, by their indolence and haughtineſs, deſpiſing manufacturing, and not improving the product which they enjoy, in many places, muſt neceſſarily be obliged to purchaſe of other nations the things they ſtand in need of, which naturally encourages the merchants of other nations to come among them.

Thoſe that ſettle among them from the Eaſtern part of the world, are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; thoſe from the Weſtern parts are chiefly Venetians, Engliſh, French, and Dutch, with ſome Jews alſo, chiefly Italian.

The principal places of trade, on this ſide the Turkiſh dominions, reſpecting Europe, where the ſaid merchants reſide, are Conſtantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Alexandretta, or Scanderoon, Alexandria, Tripoli, Antioch, and the iſlands on the coaſt.

There are ſome Chriſtian merchants in moſt of the iſlands belonging to the Turks, viz. at Cyprus, Candia, Rhodes, Zant, Cephalonia, and in moſt of the inhabited iſlands of the Egean Sea, or Archipelago [*See* ARCHIPELAGO.] Theſe merchants are generally French, though there are ſome Jews.

This commercial eſtabliſhment, by the way of factories, among the Turks, take the ſame altogether, is, in one general acceptation, called with us, the *Turkiſh trade:* the manner of which trade is this, viz. the merchants of England, France, and Holland, chiefly furniſh the Turks with fine woollen cloths, dyed ſcarlet, crimſon, purple, blue, and green; the firſt three in grain, and as rich in colour as poſſible, which raiſes their value.

The Engliſh, beſides their cloth, ſend block-tin, lead, clock-work and watch-work, both in gold and ſilver; and, all put together, the value formerly was upwards of three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, one year with another.

The returns which the Franks (for ſo the European Chriſtian merchants are called in Turkey) made from the Turks, and which are the product of the Turkiſh and Perſian dominions, are as follow, viz.

*Raw ſilk:* this, though the chief return of the whole trade, is not all the immediate produce of the grand ſeignior's dominions, but of the Perſians alſo: it is brought from the country where it is produced to Aleppo, and from thence to Scanderoon, where the merchants trade for it.

The ſilk, thus brought in raw bales from Perſia, is *ſherbaff*, the Perſian word for raw ſilk, or, perhaps, for ſilk in general. When this ſherbaff ſilk is landed here, and comes into the hands of our manufacturers, it is called by a name of their own, *legee*. Beſides this, the Levant or Turkey merchants import another ſort of raw ſilk, which they call *white ſilk*, and our workmen *belladine*. This is ſhipped either at Cyprus or Scanderoon, on board the ſame Turkey ſhips that bring the other ſorts of ſilk, but is produced in ſeveral diſtant parts of the Turkiſh dominions, as at Cyprus, at Antioch, and at Tripoli; that is, in the country adjacent to the ancient Syria, and in ſeveral of the iſlands of the Archipelago. The ſame ſort of ſilk is alſo ſhipped off at Smyrna.

This iſland ſilk is generally the product of the iſlands of Andros, Naxos, Zea, Thermia, Syra, Santorini, &c.

The quantity of ſilk imported formerly from theſe places, and as comprehended under the denomination of the Turkey trade, has been calculated at between three and four hundred thouſand pounds weight, one year with another. That we may not ſpeak without book, the reader may take the following account, drawn from our Cuſtom-houſe books.

*Turkiſh ſilk imported in the port of London, in the ſeveral years* 1720, 1722, and 1723.

| | |
|---|---|
| *Anno* 1720 | 399,688 lb. |
| *Anno* 1721 | None imported, the plague being that year in Turkey and France. |
| 1722 | 374,401 lb. |
| 1723 | 329,983 lb. |

*Note*, Every pound weight in this account contains twenty-four ounces. The importations for ſome years after correſponded pretty much with this proportion, except, that, upon ſome occaſions, the trade met with an interruption, as in the time of the plague, and on occaſion of war. What is the ſtate of the Turkey trade at preſent, compared with what it has been, we have not room to ſhew under this head; and, therefore, ſhall be obliged to refer to the article TURKEY TRADE; under which, with what here ſaid, will be comprehended whatever is needful, in order to form a right judgment of this commerce, and of what may be further requiſite to render it more beneficial to this nation in particular. To proceed,

The other importations are,

2. *Wool and yarn.*
- Carmania wool, and wool of the iſlands.
- Grogram yarn, } that is, goats hair, ſpun or
- Mohair yarn, } twiſted.
- Cotton wool, } from almoſt all the iſlands of
- Cotton yarn, } the Egean Sea.

3. *Gums, ſuch as gum*
- Dragant,
- Sandrac,
- Senega,
- Arabic,
- Sarcocolla.

4. *Manufactures.*
- Perſian ſilks,
- Carpets,
- Burdets,
- Calicoes, from the iſlands of Siphanto, Paros, &c.
- Cordovans,
- Shargreen-ſkins.

5. *Drugs, dye, ſtuffs, earths, &c.*
- Galls from Syria,
- Coffee from Mocha, by Alexandria,
- Balm,
- Natural balſam,
- Rhubarb from Perſia,
- Sal ammoniac,
- Turmeric from Perſia,
- Incenſe,
- Pumices from Santorini,
- Storax { Calamita / Liquida } from Samos,
- Scammony,
- Myrrh,
- Manna,
- Galbanum,
- Sena,
- Aloes hepatica,
- Olibanum,
- Zedoary,
- Eſquinethes,
- Hypoaſtri,
- Aceatrice,
- Oker,
- Emery-ſtone, } all at Samos,
- Bolus, an earth, } all at Samos,
- Adrachne, } all at Samos,
- Valonia, or velani, from the iſland of Zea,
- Coloquintida,
- Euphorbium,
- Mirabolans,
- Hypecacuahna, } from Paris and Egypt,
- Frankincenſe, } from Paris and Egypt,
- Maſtic, from Scio and Naxos,
- Opium, *cum aliis*

6. *Liquids.*
- Viſney,
- Arac,
- Jallap,
- Orange flower-water,
- Vermecelli,
- Turpentine.

7. *Seeds.*
- Wood-ſeed,
- Clover-ſeed,
- Garden-ſeeds,
- Rice.

8. *Fruits.*
- Figs,
- Piſtachas,
- Raiſins of Smyrna,
- Pomegranates.

9. *Woods.*
- Box-wood,
- Cypreſs-wood,
- Fuſtic,
- Ebony,
- Walnut-tree.

Theſe are the principal productions with which the merchants of Europe trade among the Turks in this part of Aſia: the number of drugs may, perhaps, be greater than what are here mentioned; but theſe are the moſt conſiderable.

The chief articles are the ſilk, which comes from Georgia and Perſia, the wool, the hair, and the galls.

The cotton, as well in wool as in yarn, and alſo moſt of the goats hair, is the product of the iſlands on the Aſian ſide of the Archipelago, and thoſe alſo of the European ſide. Some of the ſilk likewiſe comes that way to us, from Lea, Andros, Timor, Paros, Argenter, Naxos, Santorini, Syra, Thermia, and many others. Alſo from the iſland of Mycone come ſome goats hair and cordovans.

Theſe ſerve for the bulk of the trade; the others, perhaps, are equally uſed in their kind, but not of equal value in general commerce.

As the Turks have little or no trade but what is, as it were, forced by the Europeans and others, ſo they have but few ſhips, compared to the extent of their naval dominions: the chiefeſt of their ſhipping is among the Grecian iſlands, and theſe are ſuch as belong to the Greeks of thoſe iſlands, not to the Turks. Alſo in the Morea and in the Black Sea they have ſome ſhipping; but for the traffic between Egypt and the Port, they generally hire Engliſh, Dutch, or Venetian ſhips upon freight.

The Venetians, indeed, trade with the Turks in the Morea, and in the gulph of Theſſalonica, and to ſome of the iſlands; and, as thoſe countries are full of Greeks, and other Chriſtian inhabitants, they carry them proper manufactures, ſuch as wrought ſilks, fine linen, bone-lace, and all ſorts of haberdaſhery for the women, who delight to go gay, eſpecially in the iſles. They carry back in return, according to the productions of the place, currants, raiſins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, cotton, ſilk, &c. This is the reaſon, perhaps, why Venice is the magazine for the ſcarlet drugs, from whence they are ſent over the whole Chriſtian world.

The produce of the iſlands is exceeding great, and aſſiſts the Turks in making returns for the goods they buy of the European merchants: for the Turks are either ſuch ſtrangers to correſpondence, or ſuch enemies to all the world but themſelves, that they have no ſuch thing as exchange; ſo that, to balance their trade, they are frequently at a great loſs if the balance runs againſt them. It is true, it may be in their favour in one place, and the contrary in another, whereby they may ſometimes bring one part to make good another; but they cultivate no epiſtolary correſpondence, no regular poſts going from one place to another; ſo that moſt trade and buſineſs is executed by meſſages and expreſſes, ſuch as *charoux* for the government, or by ſhipping; and as for money returned from place to place, it muſt be carried all in ſpecie. Much leſs have they any aſſurances for the riſque of trade, or any of the uſual conveniencies of commerce that other nations have.

LYDEN is well known for its univerſity, and great antiquity. It is alſo remarkable for a conſiderable manufactory of woollen cloth, which, however, for ſome years paſt, has very much decreaſed, partly owing to the decay of the Perſian trade carried on by the Armenians, which equally affects the ſilk manufactories of Amſterdam *. There is a conſiderable number of ſtudents here from all parts of Europe, and the univerſity is of great reputation. The gardens about it are extremely fruitful, and land bears a prodigious price.

* It appears that the Dutch were jealous of the Engliſh trade through Ruſſia to Perſia, and that Mr. De Dieu applied in 1745 for the ſame privilege as the Britiſh ſubjects then enjoyed, in order to obtain an ample ſupply of ſilk. At preſent the great decline nf this branch of trade, is owing to the troubles in Perſia.

LICHEN CINERIUS TERRESTRIS, aſh-coloured ground liver-wort. Mr. Ray was the firſt who gave a diſtinct account of this plant, reckoning it among the *lichens*. Dr. Williams has lately more exactly deſcribed it *(Hiſt. Muſc.)* and put it into the tribe of the moſſes, calling it *lichenoides digitatum cinereum lactucæ foliis ſinuoſis*. The great Dr. Mead (from whoſe late elegant Treatiſe on Poiſons we have extracted this remark) informs us, that this plant grows in all countries; and that it has been brought over from America along with the Peruvian bark; that it is to be found at all times, but ought to be gathered from autumn to winter, as being at that time in its greateſt vigour. It is a warm diuretic, of a diſagreeeble and nauſeous taſte, but remarkable for its virtue in the cure of the bite of a mad dog.

LIEGE, *a principality and biſhopric*. This country is bounded on the weſt by Brabant; Namur, and part of Hainault on the ſouth; by the foreſt of Ardennes, and part of Luxemburg on the eaſt; by Luxemburg alſo, by Limburg, part of the dutchy of Juliers, and by Pruſſian Guelderland; and on the north, by Dutch Brabant, and part of Guelderland.

The air is very temperate, and the country fruitful; and its mountains have quarries of marble, and mines of lead, iron, and brimſtone, beſides pit-coal in abundance. Its chief rivers are the Maes, Demer, Jecker, and Weſer.

DINANT, is ſeated between a ſteep rock and the Maes, which makes it enjoy a pretty good trade, particularly in manufactures of braſs and iron.

MALMEDI, is a ſmall town, moſtly inhabited by leather-dreſſers, or woollen-dreſſers.

STAVELO, is another ſmall town, the inhabitants of which drive a pretty good trade in woollen cloth, and other ſtuffs, and chiefly in a great quantity of leather carried here.

SPAW, *or* SPA, is ſituated on the little river Weſe, ſo ſurrounded with mountains, that you cannot ſee it till you are almoſt in it. It is from the Pouxhon, or Pohon Spring, in the market-place here, that they draw that prodigious quantity of water that is tranſported into foreign countries, eſpecially into England and Holland, ſealed up in bottles with the town ſeal. The people of the town employ themſelves in making boxes for ladies toilets, ſnuff, and other boxes, varniſhed after the manner of China wares, which they ſell to the company as they go from the wells.

VERVIERS, on the ſame river, has a very flouriſhing manufactory of woollen cloths, ſaid to be nothing inferior to thoſe made in England, or Holland; ſo that their trade extends all over Germany, and even into the weſt of Europe, Italy, and Turkey.

Near this town ſtands the borough of *Hodimont*, where they alſo make a great quantity of woollen cloths.

LIGHT-HOUSE. A *Light-Houſe* is a marine term for a tower, commonly advantageouſly ſituated on an eminence near the ſea coaſt, or at the entrance of ſome port or river, for the guidance of ſhips in dark nights, by the illumination of a fire or candle burnt on the top of them. The firſt we read of was called *Pharos*, from the Greek word *Phos*, in Latin, *Lumen*, Light, and *Orao*, Latin, *Video*, to ſee, and this was ſo ſuperb a fabric, as to be reckoned one of the ſeven wonders of the world, and to give a general name to all ſucceſſive ones; it was built by Ptolemy Philadelphus, on a ſmall iſland in the Nile's mouth, near Alexandria in Egypt, and is ſaid to have coſt that king eight hundred talents. It is recorded to have been built ſquare, upon four pillars of glaſs reſembling crabs, three hundred cubits high, on which a fire was nightly burnt, to warn approaching pilots of thoſe dangerous coaſts, and by this means direct them to ſhun the riſks they were expoſed to; but, tho' this was ſo juſtly celebrated both for its uſe and magnificence, it was equalled, if not exceeded, in fame, by the renowned Coloſſus of Rhodes, which ſerved for the ſame purpoſe. This inanimate monſter was a brazen ſtatue of Apollo, ſet up at the entrance of that iſland's harbour, with its feet reſting on the two ſhores; it was about forty-two yards high, and its ſtride ſo great, that the largeſt ſhips ſailed into the port between its legs: this gigantic figure was dedicated to the ſun, and its prodigious ſize may be aſcertained by the dimenſions of its little finger, which, it is ſaid, few men were able to embrace. It was the work of Chares, a diſciple of the celebrated ſculptor Lyſippe, who was twelve years in perfecting it, and is reported to have coſt forty-four thouſand pounds ſterling, though we ſhould imagine this to be very far ſhort of its value, as, when broken to pieces, it loaded nine hundred camels; it remained erect for the ſpace of 1360 years, and was then thrown down by an earthquake, in which proſtration it continued for a long time, till the Saracens became maſters of the iſle, and ſold it to a

Jew, who quickly deſtroyed this maſter-piece of art, to accommodate his removing it by the means of the aforementioned animals.

The tower of Cordon on the river Bourdeaux, the Phare of Meſſina, the lanthorns at Genoa, Barcelona, &c. are reſpectively ſerviceable to the ſhips uſing thoſe parts, as ours on Scilly, the Eddyſtone, Caſkets, Portland, Dungeneſs, Forelands, Skerries, &c. (beſides the floating light at the Nore) are to navigation in a more extenſive manner.

That on the Eddyſtone was begun by its ingenious projector, Mr. Henry Winſtanley, of Littlebury, in the county of Eſſex, Gent. in the year 1696, and, after great labour and expence, was finiſhed in ſomething more than four years, though a much leſs ſpace of time would have ſufficed, had not the many difficulties of ſtormy weather, hardneſs of the rock, tides, and other impediments he had to ſtruggle with, protracted the work, and rendered his firſt lodgment, or foundation of the building, to be very hazardous and troubleſome. However, a perſon of Mr. Winſtanley's enterprizing genius was not to be intimidated by the impediments that preſented to obſtruct the proſecution of his intended fabric; but he watched every ſpurt of fair weather, and ebb of the ſea, as well to commence as to carry it on, and happily run through his toils by concluding it in the aforeſaid time, though the light was put up on the fourteenth of November, 1698, and thenceforward was inhabited. It ſtood till the twenty-ſeventh of November, 1703, when Mr. Winſtanley, unfortunately being in it, found he had been building his tomb, as that dreadful ſtorm laid the rock once more bare, and buried both him and his works in the ſea; a plain proof of the deficiency of human contrivance, and of the inſecurity of the beſt projected fabrics, when providence interferes. Its rebuilding was begun in July, 1706, by John Rudyerd, gent. a light put up therein, and made uſeful July twenty-eight, 1708, and finiſhed compleatly in 1709, ſince which it has withſtood the tempeſts it is expoſed to, firm and ſecure.

This lighthouſe bears from Plymouth (or the entrance of the ſound) S. and by W. and from Ram-head S. and half a point eaſtwardly, and is diſtant from the anchoring in the aforeſaid ſound, four leagues, and from Ram Point, about three leagues and a half, this being the neareſt ſhore to the ſaid houſe; and the iſle of Mayſtone bears from the lighthouſe about N. E. and is alſo four leagues diſtant ſouth. And all ſhips, coming from the eaſt or weſt to Plymouth, have much the ſame advantage of the light, all the rocks near this houſe are on the eaſtwardly ſide, and ſtretching north, but moſt ſoutherly, and all are covered at high-water; but, on the weſt ſide, any ſhip may ſail cloſe by the houſe, there being twelve or thirteen fathoms water, and no hidden rock; though, towards the E. and by N. about a quarter of a mile diſtant from the houſe, there lies one that never appears but at low ſpring tides, and is the more dangerous, as it is little known.

The ſea ebbs and flows at this rock on ſpring tides nineteen feet, and then at high-water all the rocks are covered, though a ſmooth ſea; and it is high-water at the ſame time as at Plymouth: but it runs tide and half-tide; ſo that it runs eaſt three hours after it is high-water, and yet the ſea falls lower; and it runs weſt three hours after it is low-water, and yet the ſea riſeth.

At low tides (eſpecially ſpring-tides) three great ranges of rocks appear very high, and lie almoſt parallel, ſtretching towards the S. E. and N. W. the houſe ſtanding the weſternmoſt of all. The afore-mentioned hidden rock is a full cable's length from all theſe others, and lies as aforeſaid.

There is always a family living in it to tend its light, and the following acts have been made for its management and ſupport, viz.

By 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 20. from the placing a light uſeful for ſhipping in Eddyſtone lighthouſe, there ſhall be paid to the maſter, wardens, and aſſiſtants, of Trinity-houſe of Deptford Strond, by the maſters and owners of all Engliſh ſhips and barks, which ſhall paſs by the ſaid lighthouſe (except coaſters) one-penny *per* ton outward-bound, and one-penny *per* ton inward-bound, viz. of the merchants one moiety, and of the owner the other moiety; and of all ſuch aliens ſhips as ſhall paſs by the ſaid lighthouſe, two-pence for every ton of the burden of the ſhip; and every coaſter, paſſing by the ſaid lighthouſe, ſhall pay two ſhillings for each time: the ſaid duties to be collected by ſuch perſons as the ſaid maſter, &c. ſhall appoint, in ſuch port whence ſuch ſhip ſhall ſet forth, or where ſuch ſhip ſhall arrive, before they load or unload; the ſaid duties to be recovered by action of debt, &c.

The duties in the act 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 20. directed to be paid by any ſhip paſſing by Eddyſtone lighthouſe, ſhall be paid for every ſuch ſhip, as well thoſe belonging to her majeſty's ſubjects, as ſtrangers, which ſhall paſs by the ſaid lighthouſe, from, or to, any port, and ſhall be received of the maſter of ſuch ſhip, in any part of Great-Britain or Ireland, and may be recovered in any of her majeſty's courts of law. 8 *Ann. c.* 17.

No Cuſtom-houſe officer ſhall make out any cocket or other diſcharge, or take any report outwards, for any ſhip, until the duties granted by the ſaid act, and payable by the maſter of ſuch ſhip, ſhall be paid; and that ſuch maſter produces a light-bill, teſtifying the receipt thereof.

It ſhall be lawful for every perſon authorized by the Trinity-houſe, to go on board any foreign ſhip, to receive the duties, and, for non-payment, to diſtrain any tackle belonging to ſuch ſhip; and, in caſe of any delay in payment, for three days after diſtreſs, it ſhall be lawful for the receivers of the ſaid duties to cauſe the ſame to be appointed by two perſons, and to ſell the ſaid diſtreſs.

This act, and alſo the ſaid former act, ſhall be public acts.

The following act is concerning the lighthouſe built on the iſland Skerries, in confirmation of letters patent, granted to William Trench, Eſq; for building it, and recovers the ſame duties, as the preceding one, though all the others receive but half.

There are alſo ſome erected for the ſervice of private ports, as at Ilfordcombe, on St. Bee's Head, near Whitehaven, &c.

All the powers and duties granted in letters patent, bearing date at Weſtminſter, the 13th of July, 13 Anne, to William Trench, Eſq; deceaſed, for erecting a lighthouſe on the iſland or rock, called Skerries, near Holy Head, in the county of Angleſea, ſhall have continuance for ever, 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. ſubject to a proviſo, as to the maintaining of the light-houſe in the letters patent contained, and to the truſt in the act mentioned, and ſhall be veſted in Sutton Morgan, clerk, who married the only ſurviving child of the ſaid William Trench.

The ſaid Sutton Morgan, his heirs and aſſigns, may demand of maſters and owners of every ſhip, or bottom, paſſing, croſſing, or ſailing, in or through St. George's Channel, by Holy Head, or Wicklow, to or from any foreign port, or which ſhall paſs or croſs the ſaid channel, to or from any place in Great-Britain ſouthward of Holy Head, from or to Wicklow, or any place northward thereof in Ireland, or that ſhall paſs, croſs, or ſail, from any place northward of Holy Head, and ſail between Holy Head and the Calf of Man, or any way in St. George's Channel to the ſouthward of Dublin, and likewiſe from all coaſters, paſſing to or from any place in Great-Britain north of Holy Head, from or to any port, &c. ſouth thereof, one penny per ton coming into, and the like ſum going out of the ſaid ports in Great-Britain or Ireland, and double ſuch duties for any foreign ſhip.

Ships loaded with coals in Great-Britain, north of Liverpoole for Ireland, or the greateſt part of their loading being coals, and paſſing from Great-Britain to Ireland, ſhall only pay one voyage in every year, the ſame to be paid the firſt voyage yearly, before clearing out of the Cuſtom-houſes, either in Great-Britain or Ireland.

In conſideration of the benefit the pacquet-boats, ſailing betwixt Holyhead and Dublin, receive by the ſaid light-houſe, the poſt-maſter general ſhall pay to the ſaid Sutton Morgan, the annual ſum of 50 l. without fee, quarterly.

If any perſon, having the command of any ſhip, ſhall refuſe to pay the duties, it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid Sutton Morgan, his heirs, &c. to ſeize any goods of any maſter or owner of ſuch ſhip, and to keep the ſame till the duties are paid; and, in caſe of delay in payment three days after ſuch ſeizing, he may cauſe the ſame to be appraiſed by two ſworn appraiſers, and afterwards ſell the goods.

Nothing herein ſhall charge any of his majeſty's ſhips of war.

The ſaid Sutton Morgan ſhall be freed from the payment of five pounds *per annum*, quit rent, reſerved by the letters patents.

This act ſhall be a public act.

*Little Cumray Light-houſe.*

By 29 *Geo.* II. the truſtees are empowered to erect a light-houſe on the iſlands, at the mouth of the river Clyde, and to fix ſuch beacons, buoys, land or ſea marks, on any place in the frith, as they ſhall think neceſſary for rendering the navigation more ſafe and convenient.

The maſter or owner of every veſſel, bound outwardly on any foreign voyage, paſſing the light-houſe, to pay one penny ſterling per ton, and one penny per ton paſſing inwards from any foreign voyage to the northward, whether they paſs by the middle paſſage between the iſlands of Little Cumray and Bute, or by the eaſt-ſide of Little Cumray, or between the iſlands of Bute and Arran, and whether they diſcharge in the Clyde or not; every foreign veſſel to pay two pence per ton inwards and outwards; every veſſel of thirty tons or upwards, trading to or from any part of Great-Britain only, to pay two q. per ton every time they paſs; and for every veſſel of fifteen tons, under the ſame reſtriction, two pence per ton per annum; the year to commence from June twenty-fourth, and the payment for the current year to be made before clearing the port.

On refuſal to pay the duties, the truſtees have power to diſtrain any part of the tackle of the ſhip, and ſell the ſame, returning the overplus. *See* BEACONS.

LIGHTER-BUILDER. The boy deſigned to be put apprentice to a lighter-builder, ought to have many of the qualifications of the ſhip-builder; and it is abſolutely neceſſary, that he ſhould have a ſolid judgment, and a natural turn of mind for the buſineſs. He muſt have ſtrength of body, and a good ſtock of money, if he propoſes to ſet up maſter, and may be bound at fifteen years of age. Thoſe of this buſineſs take ten pounds with an apprentice, and give fifteen ſhillings a week to their journeymen. Five hundred pounds at leaſt is neceſſary to enable a young man to ſet up for himſelf.

LIGNUM VITÆ, where exempt from duties. 1 *G.* II. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 5.

LILY of the valley, *lilium convallium*, in botany. The *flores lilii convallis*, are little white flowers, hollow, and ſhort; compoſed each of a ſingle petal, hollowed ſomewhat in form of a bell, and divided lightly into five or ſix ſegments at the mouth. They ſhrivel up, and become brown in drying; while freſh, they have an extremely fragrant ſmell, but this they loſe alſo with their colour, and with theſe a great part of their virtues in this preparation; ſo that they ſhould always be uſed either freſh-gathered, or preſerved in proof ſpirit; but in this laſt caſe, the ſpirit muſt be uſed with them, otherwiſe a great part of their virtues will be left in it.

They are preſerved by ſome in ſugar, in form of a conſerve, and by others are made into a ſyrup by means of a ſtrong infuſion; but neither of theſe ways are ſo good as the diſtilling of a rectified ſpirit from them in a *balneum vaporis*, and repairing this with freſh flowers three or four times: the ſpirit will then be fully ſated with their fine eſſential oil, very fragrant, and poſſeſſed of all their virtue. Some people make their eſſence of ambergreaſe with this ſpirit of lilies of the valley inſtead of plain ſpirit of wine. It is much the more fragrant for this, and is eſteemed a very great cordial, and provocative to venery. None of theſe forms, however, are in the ſhops; the flowers are only known there as ingredients in two or three compoſitions.

LIMA, called alſo by the Spaniards *Ciudad de los Reyes*, is the capital of Peru, and ſeated two leagues from the South Sea, being a place of the greateſt trade in all this part of America. The riches of Peru and Chili are brought here from the ports of La Conception and Arica, where they are collected; and the greateſt part of the goods that arrive from Europe at Porto-Bello and La Vera Cruz, are alſo brought here from the one, by the ſhips of Panama, and from the others, by thoſe of Acapulco. The inland commerce of this city is not leſs than its foreign one; and if it maintains this latter with all the places on the South Sea coaſts, from Chili to New-Spain; its home traffic is equally extenſive, as it does not only ſpread to all the provinces that compoſe the empire of Peru, but to all the other kingdoms of Southern-America, even to Buenos Ayres, and Carthagena on the North-Sea.

The trade of *Lima* is carried on, partly by Spaniards, and partly by Indians. Theſe latter have more liberty here than in any other place of the king of Spain's dominions, on payment only of a ſmall tribute twice a year. It is theſe that do all the ſervile work, and are the ſole mechanics and huſbandmen, the Spaniards thinking it beneath them to ſtoop to ſuch offices, and only engage in the more valuable branches of trade, ſuch as gold and ſilver, ſilks, European cloths, &c. with which, and indeed with every conveniency of life, this city is ſo well ſupplied, as would induce a belief, that this plenty could only be the product of the country. The gold comes here from Chili, New-Caſtile, Cuſco, and ſome other provinces of Peru; the ſilver from the mines of Potoſi, and thoſe of Oruco, Tarapaca, and Chocolocora; and the quickſilver from Europe and Juancabeluca, forty leagues from Lima. They get the country ſtuffs from Quito, and from the maritime towns, which are in the neighbourhood of their capital. The wines are broguht them from Arequipa, Yea, Piſca, and Naſca; as the cattle are from Xaura, Cuſco, Caneto, and Guemangua. The ſugar, ſweetmeats, ſyrups, and preſerves, are made at Jamanga and Guara. The wheat, flour, and maiz, come from this ſame place, Varancas, and the villages near to Lima; dry fiſh from Peita; carpenters wood from Guayaquil, though cut on the ſide of Gallo, near to it; and ſalt from the ponds of Guara, &c. Oil and olives from almoſt all the ports of the coaſts betweeen Arica and Lima. Pearls are brought from the pearl iſlands in the South Sea, and part from Panama, of the fiſhery of Rancherie (alſo formerly of Margarita) in the North Sea; and precious ſtones are found in many rocks, mines, and rivers of Peru.

All the gold and ſilver mines are ſo rich and abundant, that, as it is aſſerted, the king of Spain has in leſs than fifty years received for his one-fifth, of only thoſe of Potoſi, one hundred and eleven millions of dollars. *See* CALAO, PERU.

LIMBURG, in the Auſtrian Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north and eaſt by the dutchy of Juliers; on the ſouth by a ſmall part of the dutchy of Luxemburg, and by the country and biſhopric of Liege, which ſurrounds it alſo on the weſt.

It has excellent mines of iron, and one of copper; the ſoil is very fruitful in wheat, fruits, and fuel.

The chief rivers are the Maes, Gueule, Weſe, and Bowine.

*Neau*, called *Eupin* by the inhabitants, though but a borough, is more conſiderable than many cities, both for the number of its inhabitants, which amount to about four thouſand, and for its trade. They make here woollen cloths, which are ſaid to be as good and fine as thoſe made in England, eſpecially the ſcarlet, blue, and black. They have a conſiderable trade of them throughout the country, and eſpecially in Germany.

LIME, *calx*, a white, ſoft, friable ſubſtance, prepared of ſtone, marble, chalk, or ſome other ſtony ſubſtance by burning in a kiln.

There are two kinds of *lime* in common uſe in England, the one made of ſtone, and the other of chalk, whereof the former is much the ſtrongeſt.

That which is made of ſoft ſtone of chalk, is the fitteſt for plaiſtering of ceilings, and walls within doors; and that made of hard ſtone, is fit for ſtructures or buildings, and plaiſtering without doors, that lie in the weather.

And that which is made of a greaſy clammy ſtone, is ſtronger than that made of a poor lean ſtone; and that which is made of a ſpongy ſtone, is lighter than that made of a firm and cloſe ſtone; that is again more commodious for plaiſtering, this for building.

Before the ſtones are thrown into the kiln, they are to be broken to pieces; otherwiſe the air contained in their cavities, being too much expanded by heat, makes them fly with ſo much violence, as to damage the kilns.

Alberti and Pa... ſay, that lime will not be ſufficiently burnt in leſs than ſixty hours; and Alberti gives us the marks of well burnt lime to be as follows, viz. that its weight is to that of the ſtone in a ſequialterate proportion; that it is white, light, and ſonorous; that, when ſlaked, it ſticks to the ſides of the veſſel. To which Boeckler adds, that, when ſlaked, it ſends forth a copious thick ſmoke; and Dicuſſant, that it requires a great deal of water to ſlake it.

The beſt lime in the world, on being long expoſed to a damp air, will moulder away into a powder, and loſe all its virtue; but this the more ſlowly, as it was originally the better made. The lime, when in its perfect and unaltered ſtate, as newly taken from the kiln, is called *calx viva*, or quick-lime; that which has lain in the air, till it has fallen to powder of its own accord, is called *calx extincta*; and that which has been thrown into water, and the powder it has fallen into afterwards waſhed with ſeveral freſh waters, is called *calx lota*. Quick-lime is burning and corroſive, and is never given internally, but is ſometimes uſed in external applications, as made into paſte with orpiment, or with ruſma, and uſed as a depilatory. The *calx lota* is no longer a corroſive, but a powerful deſiccative; and the lime-water is of great ſervice internally in all cutaneous eruptions, in the cure of obſtinate ulcers, and for diſeaſes of the lungs. It is generally to be continued a conſiderable time for this purpoſe.

The preparations of lime in uſe in the ſhops are, 1. The ſimple lime-water, juſt mentioned. 2. The *aqua calcis minus compoſita*, the leſs compound lime-water. 3. The *aqua calcis magis compoſita*, or more compound lime-water. 4. The *cauſticum commune fortius*, the common ſtronger cauſtic. 5. The *cauſticum commune mitius*, the common milder cauſtic; and, 6. The *aqua phagedænica*, or phagedænic water.

LIME and *lemon-juice*, to what duties liable. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

LIMERICK in Ireland, is a fertile country and well inhabited, being mountainous towards the weſt, and the reſt plain. *Limerick*, the capital, is an elegant, rich, and populous city, whoſe trade is very conſiderable; for though its diſtance from the ſea is about fifty miles, yet ſhips of burden may come up to the very walls, and in ſome years it has had belonging to it ſeventy-one veſſels (with 3443 tons.)

LIMITS *of the ports of London.* *See* KAY.

LIMOSIN *and* L'ANGOUMOIS. Theſe two provinces, though under one direction or receipt of cuſtom, are very different in the nature of their ſoil and products; the *Angoumois* yields a ſufficient quantity of wheat, wine, and all ſorts of excellent fruits, whilſt the *Limoſin*, on the contrary, is cold and ſteril, has but few wines, and thoſe bad, hardly any wheat; ſo that rye, barley, and cheſnuts, commonly ſerve for bread, to nouriſh the inhabitants.

Both the one and the other province have a great number of paper-mills, whoſe fabric is in great repute for the preſs, though very little for writing.

The manufactures of woollen ſtuffs are very trifling in theſe provinces; however, there are a few ſtuffs, ferges, eſtaminas, coarſe cloths, &c. made at Limoges, Angouleme, St. John d'Angely, Nerac, Rochefoucault, Stentereune, Cognac, St. Leonard, Brives, and at Tulle.

The ſaffron cultivated in the Angoumois is no ſmall object of the country's trade; for although it is not ſo good as that of the Gaſtinois, a great quantity of it is ſold at Bourdeaux to foreigners; and the bringing up of horſes for ſale, chiefly at the fair of Chaſlus, cloſes the commerce of theſe provinces.

LINCOLNSHIRE, though one of our largeſt counties, is deſtitute of any manufacture, as the inhabitants ſell their wool unwrought to their neighbours, and principally employ themſelves in the grazing trade, and fatting cattle, with which London markets are plentifully ſupplied; it alſo ſends up annually (jointly with the iſle of Ely) from Hobbeich, about twenty-five thouſand firkins of butter, on the river Cam to Cambridge, and from thence to London by land-carriage; and there is likewiſe brought yearly in the ſame manner to the ſaid city from Spalding and Peterborough about two thouſand firkins, being the produce of the fens.

LINE, in geography and navigation, denotes the equator, or equinoctial line, which is a circle the ſun deſcribes on the 21ſt of March, and 21ſt of September. The line on the earth is an imaginary circle, anſwering to that in the heavens; it divides the earth, from eaſt to weſt, into two equal parts, and is equally diſtant from the two poles: ſo that thoſe who live under the line have the poles always in their horizon. The latitudes commence from the *line*.

LINEN. What *linen* is needs no definition, it being ſo well known. There are variety of ſorts, the chief materials of which are cotton, flax, and hemp.

It is difficult to ſay with certainty to whom the invention of this manufacture is owing; perhaps the original idea proceeded from that admirable phænomenon of the ſpider's web. To deſcribe the ſeveral ſorts would be as needleſs as tedious.

*Linen* is a commodity of univerſal uſe, from the prince to the meaneſt ſubject, and a commodity that cannot be ſupplanted by any thing elſe near ſo commodious and agreeable for thoſe uſes to which it is applied. The uſe of the Indian cotton cloth has been often attempted for ſhirting, but to no purpoſe; and muſlins for women's head-cloths and ruffles, &c. in place of cambric, but without ſucceſs. Some aſcribe this to a fondneſs the Engliſh nation have for French faſhions; a conceit which, in too many inſtances, is moſt highly detrimental to the trading proſperity of this nation, and which ought, by all poſſible means, to be diſcouraged: but there is found, by long experience, to be a ſubſtance and firmneſs in cambric which gives it a preference to muſlins, for variety of uſes.

The linen trade of Europe is chiefly in the hands of the Ruſſians, Germans, Swiſs, Flemings, Hollanders, and French.

A nation may be drained of its wealth, and undone by foreign trade, if it takes more goods from other nations for home-conſumption than it ſends out, and pays balance in gold and ſilver; and therefore every wiſe adminiſtration will watch carefully over thoſe branches of commerce where the balance is againſt them, and encourage thoſe where the balance is on their ſide.

The balance of trade and money tranſactions between England and thoſe foreign linen countries is againſt England; and, by reaſon of the high duties impoſed by them upon Engliſh woollen goods, and other incumbrances on the importation and ſale of them, the balance of trade is greatly in their favour, more eſpecially if the total balances of thoſe linen countries be conſidered in a conjunctive and aggregate light; becauſe we have not diminiſhed our imports of foreign linens in the like proportion as thoſe nations have diminiſhed in their imports of our woollen and other merchandizes; and the attempts to eſtabliſh more and more new manufactures of their own, among the European powers, muſt inevitably increaſe the evil upon us, provided we do not take every meaſure to promote an adequate compenſation for the loſſes in trade with which we are daily threatened, by almoſt every power of Europe in their turn.

The aſſize of doulas and lockeram, 21 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14. 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4. againſt deceit in linen cloth, 1 *Eliz. c.* 12.

Duties on linen imported. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 6, 7. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 12.

Boielapps to be entered *ad valorem.* 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 16. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 8.

Linen, &c. may be imported from Ireland free. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 39. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 8. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſect.* 6.

Duty on Scotch linen. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 45.

Scotch linen prohibited to be imported into Ireland. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 4.

Iriſh linen may be exported to the plantations. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 8. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21.

Provided that no ſhip break bulk till notice to the governor, &c. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 2.

Six-pence duty on forty ells of linen cloth exported. 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 53.

A duty on printed linen imported, &c. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 66. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 5, &c. 19. made perpetual, and part of the general fund. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7.

Penalty of a hundred pounds and pillory on ſelling linens with counterfeit ſtamps. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 97.

Imported linens and Britiſh to be marked. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 97.

Duties on Britiſh linens and ſilks. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 69. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 7.

The duties laid by 12 *Ann. c.* 9. made perpetual by 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. And part ſubſcribed into South-Sea ſtock, and reſidue mortgaged to the Bank, by 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3.

Regulations of the linen manufacture in Scotland. 10 *Ann. c.* 21. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 20. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 26. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31.

Exemption of European linen, &c. from the two-thirds ſubſidy. 7 *Ann. c.* 7. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 21.

Lawns and white ſtriped linens, &c. not to be charged. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 19.

Perſons printing from home to pay the duties firſt. 1 *G.* I. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 21.

Linſeed may be imported here. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 38.

Britiſh linen, &c. to be exported free. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 39.

Iriſh linen may be exported to the plantations. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21.

Stealing linen from bleaching grounds, felony without clergy. 4 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 16. Repealed, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 4. and judge impowered to tranſport offenders.

A bounty on coarſe Britiſh and Iriſh linen exported. 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 2. 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25.

Penalties on counterfeiting the ſtamps on linen. 17 *G.* II. *c.* 30.

Penalties on fraudulent entries of Britiſh or Iriſh linen. 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 4.

Directions for preventing the fraudulent exportation of foreign linens. 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24.

The bounty on exported linen to be paid out of the old ſubſidy, and replaced out of the next ſupplies. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 31. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 42. *ſ.* 28.

The duties on foreign linen yarn altered. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 46. Taken off for fifteen years. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 15.

Grant of three thouſand pounds annually for nine years for encouraging the manufacture of linen in Scotland. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20.

Bounty on Britiſh and Iriſh linen exported. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15.

Penalty of making a falſe oath. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 11.

Duty on linen yarn. By 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 2. was granted from 25 March, 1752, without limitation.

This branch is to be paid into the Exchequer, ſeparate from all other branches of the revenue, ſubject and liable to the ſame uſes and purpoſes as the duties by this act repealed. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 48. *ſ.* 5.

After 25 March, 1752, all duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, before payable on the importation of Dutch, French, Spruce, Muſcovia, and all other foreign raw linen yarns, and of unwrought incle, ſhort ſpinnel, and all other whitened or bleached yarns, are repealed, and in lieu thereof are to be paid the following duties, viz.

| | The duty. |
|---|---|
| French, Dutch, Muſcovia, or Spruce raw linen yarns for every pound weight | 0 0 1 |
| Whitened or bleached linen yarn, known by the name of unwrought incle, or ſhort ſpinnel, and all other whitened or bleached linen yarn, for every pound weight | 0 0 3 |

Of the manufacture of any place not belonging to the crown of Great-Britain.

To be collected, raiſed, and levied, in the ſame manner, and with the ſame authorities and powers, and under the like regulations, reſtrictions, penalties, and forfeitures as the rates, duties, ſubſidies, and impoſitions, by this act repealed. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 4.

| On exportation. | Not drawn back. |
|---|---|

But by 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 13 and 14. during the ſpace of fifteen years from 24 June, 1756, any raw or brown linen yarns made of flax, namely, Dutch yarn, French yarn, and Spruce or Muſcovy yarn, or any other foreign raw or brown linen yarns, made of flax, imported into this kingdom in Britiſh-built ſhips, navigated according to law, and being regularly entered and landed, are free of duty.

LINEN-DRAPER. The youth who is to be put apprentice to this buſineſs, ought to have a genteel education, as his ſtock, when he ſets up, will intitle him to be one in the firſt rank of tradeſmen, and as a polite behaviour is abſolutely neceſſary to his ſucceſs as a ſhop-keeper: his buſineſs, however, only requires his writing a fair expeditious hand, and his being well verſed in arithmetic. He may be bound at between fourteen and fifteen years of age; and during his apprenticeſhip he ſhould endeavour to obtain a perfect knowledge of the linen manufacture in general, and the difference between the various fabrics and the properties of the different kinds of linen. The maſters take from one hundred to four hundred pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get from twenty to forty pounds a year and his board; but it will require nine hundred or a thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter in a genteel retail ſhop.

LINLITHGOW, *or* WEST LOTHIAN. This country in general abounds in corn-fields, meadows, and green hills, which afford paſturage for large flocks of ſheep and other cattle; the rivers and neighbouring ſeas abound with fiſh; and here is plenty of coals for fuel and exportation; at Preſton Pans, and elſewhere, are made great quantities of ſalt. At *Linlithgow* is a large manufacture of linen, and the water is experienced to be of ſuch an extraordinary nature for bleaching, as to induce many people to bring their linen for whiting here, to the no ſmall advantage of the place.

LINSEED, in pharmacy, a ſmall flat ſeed, of an oblong or oval figure, broad and obtuſe, or rounded at one end, and terminating in a point at the other: it is of a bright brown colour, with ſome faint caſt of reddiſhneſs in it. We have it from our own fields, where the plant which produces it is cultivated for that purpoſe, beſides this occaſional one of producing a ſeed for the ſervice of medicine.

*Linſeed*, bruiſed and ſteeped in water, gives it very ſoon a thick mucilaginous nature, and communicates much of its emollient virtues to it. It is anodyne, attemperating, and of great ſervice in ſuppreſſions of urine, from inflammation and heat; it invelops the acrid ſalts of the urine, and prevents their vellicating and wounding the tender parts, and in ſome degree ſupplies the mucus of the bladder, when abraded and worn off. It is to be given in decoctions or infuſion on theſe occaſions, and the infuſion is not to be made too thick or mucilaginous; for in that caſe it loads the ſtomach, and breeds flatulencies in the inteſtines.

The oil drawn from the ſeed, by expreſſion, is of excellent ſervice in coughs, pleuriſies, and many other caſes; it opens the bowels, promotes expectoration, and either taken by the mouth, or given in clyſters, is a noble remedy for pains in the bowels, and even in the *paſſio iliaca*.

Great care is to be taken to have this oil genuine, and properly prepared; it ought to be freſh drawn for medicinal purpoſes, and that without the aſſiſtance of heat. It is, in this caſe, of a very good taſte and ſmell; but if the heat has been uſed in the expreſſion, or if it has been kept too long, it grows rank and offenſive, and is apt to nauſeate the ſtomach: in this caſe, if better cannot be had, a great part of the ill flavour may be taken off by ſhaking it thoroughly ſeveral times over in a large bottle, with freſh quantities of warm water.

*Linſeed.* How exempt of the two-third ſubſidies. 7 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 24. May be imported duty free. 3 *Geo.* I. *ſ.* 38.

LINTZBOURG, a town of Switzerland, in the neighbourhood of Aran, is ſituated on a little river, and has a manufactory for printing linens; cotton is ſpun here, and a large quantity of cloth made of that commodity in this bailiwick, which is one of the richeſt, and the moſt conſiderable in the canton, where is alſo a fabric of hats, and woollen knit ſtockings.

LIQUIDAMBRA, *liquid amber*, the reſin. Liquid amber is a reſinous juice, which flows from a large tree, deſcribed by Mr. Ray, growing in New Spain, Virginia, and South America. This juice, which is at firſt of the conſiſtence of turpentine, but by keeping grows hard like reſin, is of a yellow colour inclining to red, of a hot aromatic taſte, and fragrant ſmell, not unlike that of ſtorax heightened with a little ambergreaſe.

LIQUORICE. The powder of this root, of which conſiderable uſe is made in medicine, is often mingled with flour, and we fear too frequently with ingredients not quite ſo wholeſome. The beſt ſort is of a browniſh yellow colour, (the fine pale yellow being generally ſophiſticated) and of a very rich ſweet taſte, much more agreeable than

that

that of the green root. The extract of liquorice is rarely to be met with in the ſhops, in perfection: the makers of this commodity, both at home and abroad, are either very ſlovenly in its preparations, or deſignedly mix with it ſand and other impurities. This extract, when made with due care, is exceedingly ſweet, not at all bitteriſh or nauſeous, but more agreeable in taſte than the root itſelf; it entirely diſſolves in water, without depoſiting any feces.

Liquorice grows wild in many parts of France, Italy, Spain, and Germany. We have it not wild with us, but we cultivate it in great abundance in Yorkſhire and many other parts of the kingdom; and by the good order we keep the ſoil in, produce better roots, longer, evener, and more ſucculent than are to be had from any other part of the world. The reſt of Europe is in great part furniſhed by what grows about Bayonne and Saragoſſa in Spain.

Liquorice is an excellent medicine in coughs, and all diſorders of the breaſt and lungs. It obtunds the ſharpneſs of acrid and ſalt humours. It is alſo recommended againſt diſorders of the kidneys and bladder, and is ſaid to take off the ſenſe of pain in many terrible complaints. It is an ingredient in almoſt all decoctions and ptiſans, in which it is eſteemed for obtunding acrimony, and for giving the whole a very pleaſant taſte, and drowning the worſt flavour of the other ingredients.

*Liquorice juice*, the impiſſated juice of the common liquorice root, is brought to us in rolls, or cakes, covered uſually with bay leaves from Spain and Holland, from the firſt of which places it obtained the name of Spaniſh juice. It is to be choſen firm but not tough, hard, and when broken, of a fine ſhining ſurface, ſuch as perfectly melts in the mouth, and does not taſte of burning, nor leaves any harſh or gritty particles between the teeth.

The manner of preparing it in Spain is this: they take up the roots in the month of July; they clean them perfectly as ſoon as taken out of the earth, and then hang them up in the air till nearly dry; after this they cut them into thin ſlices, and boil them in water till the decoction is extremely ſtrong; they then preſs it hard out to obtain all the juice they can from the root. They ſet this decoction by to ſettle a little, and when it has depoſited its coarſeſt parts, they pour it off into veſſels, in which they evaporate it over a fire, ſtrong firſt but milder afterwards, till it becomes of the conſiſtence of a thick extract; they then let the fire go out, and, when the extract is ſo cool that they can handle it, they take out large parcels of it at a time; and, working them well in the hands, they roll them out into long cylindric maſſes, which they cut into ſuch lengths as they pleaſe, and rolling them over a parcel of half dried bay leaves, they pick up enough of them for a covering, which are in that condition laid in the ſun till perfectly dried. There is great nicety required, at the end of the evaporation, to get the extract to a proper conſiſtence without letting it burn. It is this the Spaniards are famous for. A great deal of liquorice juice is made in other places, but it is in great part either under boiled, and conſequently ſoft, or is burnt.

Liquorice juice has the ſame virtues with the root it is produced from. It is a very famous remedy among the common people for coughs and all diſorders of the breaſt and lungs. It is commonly taken alone, holding a ſmall piece of it in the mouth till it gradually melts there; but the more agreeable way of taking it is in form of lozenges, of which there are many kinds which it is the baſis of; in theſe it is mixed with other pectoral ingredients, and has the advantage of melting more eaſily in the mouth than in its own form. It is alſo an ingredient in the theriaca and ſome other of the compoſitions of the ſhops.

*Liquorice*. To what duties liable, 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2 *c.* 4 *ſ.* 43, 44, 45.

LIST, in the cloth manufactory, the border of the ſtuff, &c. bounding its width on each ſide.

All cloths and ſtuffs of ſilk, cotton, or wool have liſt, relating to which ſeveral regulations have been made.

LITHARGE, a metalline ſubſtance, formed of the ſpume of lead.

This preparation, or as it may be more properly called recrement of lead, is of two kinds, differing in colour, though in no other quality: the ancients, as well as ourſelves, obſerved this difference, and called the one, as we do, litharge of gold, and the other litharge of ſilver. This recrement of lead is not prepared by a formal proceſs on purpoſe; it is collected from the furnaces where ſilver is ſeparated from lead, or from thoſe where gold and ſilver are purified by means of that metal; but in the furnaces uſed for either of theſe purpoſes, it is generally run into lead again to ſerve for the ſame or other uſes. The litharge ſold in the ſhops is produced in the copper works where lead has been uſed to purify that metal, or to ſeparate ſilver from it. Of all the various metalline and mineral ſubſtances which are ſeparated from gold or ſilver by means of lead, there is none but copper which remains embodied in, and intimately joined with, that metal after ſcorification: the others being either not all received into the body of it, or, if they are, being either deſtroyed before ſcorification; or finally, if they remain mixed with it longer, they ſplit and deſtroy the veſſels. The recrement produced from this combination of lead with copper is our common litharge. It is of a yellower or redder colour, as the fire has been more or leſs ſtrong; and is always compoſed of a multitude of thin flakes reſembling the ſpangles of talc, in thoſe foſſils called micæ or glimmors.

The greateſt quantities of litharge are brought from Sweden, Germany, and Denmark. Poland furniſhes ſome, as does alſo our own country; but the Dantzick kind is eſteemed the moſt valuable. The beſt litharge is that which is moſt calcined and of the livelieſt colour. Litharge on the whole is properly lead vitrified, either alone or with a mixture of copper.

Litharge is ſoluble in oil and all other unctuous ſubſtances, and thus diſſolved it makes the baſis of a great part of the ointments and plaiſters of the ſhops. It is drying, abſtergent, and ſlightly aſtrictive, and hence it is of great uſe in cleanſing ulcers, and diſpoſing them to incarnate.

LITHOCOLLA, or LITHOCOLLUM, a kind of cement uſed by lapidaries to faſten precious ſtones, in order to cut them.

It conſiſts of reſin and brick duſt. For diamonds they uſe melted lead, putting them therein before it be quite cold. For other cements they mix marble duſt with ſtrong glue, and, to faſten their ſparks, they add the white of an egg and pitch.

LITHUANIA, the great dutchy, in Poland. This large country has greater Poland and Pruſſia on the weſt; part of Muſcovy on the eaſt; Livonia, the Baltic ſea, and part of Muſcovy on the north; Red Ruſſia, Volhinia, and Podolia, on the ſouth; and the Ukraine on the ſouth-eaſt. It's chief rivers are the Boryſthenes, or Nieper, Dwina, and Niemen.

The air is generally thick and foggy, becauſe of its many woods and lakes; it is not ſo fruitful as Poland, yet has plenty of wax, honey, mead, pitch, tar, and timber, and abounds with black cattle, ſheep, ermins, ſables, and all manner of furrs. But their greateſt trade of export is to Holland, &c. with their pitch, tar, and timber, for which they receive woollen cloth, ſalt, and wines.

Vilna, the capital of a palatinate ſo called, is a large populous town, with a good trade, but chiefly carried on by foreigners, the natives being poor and lazy.

Grodno ſtands partly on a hill, by the river Niemen. Some reckon it the metropolis of Lithuania. The houſes are generally of wood and very mean; but it has a good trade, the merchandizes of ſeveral parts of Lithuania being tranſported from hence to Dantzic.

Kowno, near the influx of the river Niemen into the Wilna, is a well built town, and much frequented by German merchants.

Mohilow, ſeated on the Nieper, is a large, well-built, and populous city, its market is much frequented by the Muſcovites, who tranſmit their furrs from hence into Poland and Germany.

LIVER *of Antimony*, the ſame which the chemiſts call *crocus metallorum*, a preparation of antimony, made in the following manner:

Take of antimony one pound, nitre fourteen ounces, and common ſalt two ounces; powder them finely and mix them well: ſet a crucible in the fire, and, when it is red-hot, put in the mixture. by a ſpoonful at a time; when all is in, ſhut the door of the furnace. Let the matter ſtand in a ſtrong fuſion half an hour; then take it from the fire, caſt it into a well greaſed mortar.

Its operation is emetic; but the infuſion of it, in white wine or canary, is generally uſed, one ounce of the crocus

in powder, being put into a quart of wine; which is given from an ounce to four ounces.

LIVERPOOLE-HARBOUR. By 8 *Ann. c.* 12. the mayor, &c. and common-council of Liverpoole, ſhall have power to make a wet dock or baſon, with wharfs, ſluices, and canals, upon the ground ſet apart for that purpoſe.

There ſhall, from the twenty-fourth of June, 1710, for one and twenty years, be paid unto the ſaid mayor, &c. for every veſſel (ſhips in her majeſty's ſervice excepted) coming into or out of the ſaid port, with any merchandize, (the limits whereof are as far as a place in Hoyle lake, called the Red-ſtones, and from thence all over the river Merſey to Warrington and Froſham Bridges) by the maſters of ſuch ſhips, the duties herein after deſcribed, viz. for every ſhip trading between the port and St. David's Head or Carliſle, for every ton 2d. for every ſhip trading between St. David's Head and the Land's-End, or beyond Carliſle to the Shetlands, or to the Iſle of Man, for every ton 3d. for every ſhip trading to Ireland, for every ton 4d. for every ſhip trading to Norway, Denmark, Holſtein, Holland, Hamburgh, Flanders, or any part of France, without the Streights of Gibraltar, or Jerſey, or Guernſey, for every ton 8d. for every ſhip trading to Newfoundland, Greenland, Ruſſia, and within the Baltic, Portugal, and Spain, without the Streights, Canaries, Madeiras, Weſtern Iſles, Azores, for every ton 12d. Such duties to be paid at the time of ſuch ſhips diſcharge at the Cuſtom-houſe, ſo as no ſhip ſhall be liable to pay the duty but once for the ſame voyage, both out and home.

All ſhips liable to the payment of the duties ſhall be meaſured by taking the length of the keel as ſhe treads on the ground, and the breadth to be taken within board by the midſhip beam, from plank to plank, and half that breadth for the depth, then multiply the length by the breadth, and the product by the depth, and divide by ninety-four.

After the ſaid term of twenty-one years, there ſhall be paid to the mayor, &c. one fourth part of the duties before mentioned, &c.

Nothing in this act ſhall charge any ſhip, which ſhall be forced into the harbour, and ſhall unlade in order to repair and relade; nor to charge any ſhip which ſhall ſell in the harbour any part of her lading, only in order to refit or victual.

This act ſhall not charge any ſhip belonging to, or bound to, or from the port of Cheſter, in caſe ſuch ſhip ſhall neither load nor diſcharge within the limits of the port of Liverpoole.

The act of 8 *Ann. c.* 12. for making a dock at Liverpoole, and an act of 3 *G.* I. (not printed) whereby the duties were farther continued for fourteen years, are farther continued for thirty-one years, by 11 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 32. *ſect.* 2.

Every ſhip trading from Liverpoole to Gottenberg, or any other place in Sweden, without the Baltick, ſhall be charged with the duty of 8d. per ton.

After the ſaid term of thirty-one years, ſo long as the dock, and other works ſhall be kept in repair, there ſhall be paid to the mayor, &c. and their ſucceſſors, one fourth of the duties before-mentioned.

LIVERY-LACE-WEAVER. The livery-lace-weavers are thoſe who weave the trimming for the cloaths of livery ſervants; which are done in a variety of patterns, according to the fancy of the maſters, and are made of ſilk or worſted, and ſometimes of both mixed. This buſineſs requires ſome ingenuity; and is one of the beſt branches of weaving to a journeyman. They take from five to ten pounds with a lad, who, when out of his time, may get from twelve to eighteen ſhillings a week. A very little will ſet up a working maſter, as their materials are found by the worſted-men, or lace-men, their employers.

LIVERY-MEN OF LONDON. In the companies of London, livery-men are choſen out of the freemen as aſſiſtants to the maſters and wardens in matter of counci, and for better government; and if any liveryman refuſe to take upon him the office, the lord mayor and aldermen may fine him, and bring an action of debt for the ſum. 1 *Mod. Rep.* 10.

LIVES. *See* ANNUITIES.

LIVONIA. The poſſeſſion of this vaſt province was a long time diſputed between the Muſcovites, Polanders, and Swedes; but by the treaty of Oliva, in 1660, it was divided between the two laſt powers, to which a third may be added, viz. the dukes of Courland, who enjoyed a ſhare of it, under the protection of Poland. But the war in the North, begun in 1669, afreſh deſpoiled the Swedes of it, after divers events equally glorious to Charles XII. king of Sweden, and Peter Alexowitz, grand duke of Muſcovy; though more fortunate in the end to this laſt, who has remained in the poſſeſſion of all Swediſh Livonia, a treaty of peace having finally decided the rights of theſe princes.

This peace, concluded after the death of Charles XII. (killed at the ſiege of Chriſtianſtadt) having adjudged Livonia to the Czar, thereby in a manner rendered him maſter of the trade of the Baltic, in opening to him the ports of Riga, Revel, Narva, and Pernaw, whoſe commerce is of ſo much the more importance, as not only the goods of the country, but a large quantity beſides, are brought here from Ruſſia and Poland in the ſummer, by the rivers on which three of theſe cities ſtand; and in the winter by ſledges.

Riga, capital of the province, is built on the Dwina, which after traverſing a part of Lithuania and Livonia, falls into the Baltic Sea, two leagues below the city, where their ſhips may get up to, if their draught of water does not exceed twelve feet, otherwiſe they muſt be diſburdened.

The fitteſt time for this trade is that of the two fairs, held yearly in May and September, where moſt purchaſes are made in rix-dollars, tho' ſome in exchange for goods brought there; but this buſineſs is ſomething troubleſome to ſtrangers, as they are not ſuffered to unload their ſhips, till after having ſold their cargoes to the burghers; and would be much more ſo, were it not that this law is often evaded by the goods being cloaked under borrowed names, lent for the lucre of a commiſſion.

The few goods loaded for Riga, conſiſt in Rheniſh and French wines (hardly four hundred barrels of the latter) ſpice, ſalt (of which from five to ſix thouſand laſts fell here yearly) ſugar, tobacco, vinegar, paper, ſome fruit, and mercery ware, tho' all theſe in ſmall quantities. The returns which the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, get from hence, are very conſiderable, the principal being furrs, of which there are annually brought down the Dwina more than a thouſand boat-loads, beſides what come in the winter on ſledges.

The maſts from Livonia (which are very valuable) alſo oak planks for ſhipping, ton and pipe ſtaves (in great abundance) deal boards, wheat, hemp, flax, and their ſeeds, eſpecially the laſt for ſowing and oil, pitch, tar, wax, tallow, and excellent aſhes fnr glaſs or ſoap.

Revel is almoſt equidiſtant from Riga and Narva: it was for ſome time among the number of the Hanſiatick towns, but renounced their alliance in 1550. Its trade is always very great, but not like what it was before the Engliſh had diſcovered the port of Archangel in the White Sea, and when it was the magazine of the greateſt part of the Ruſſian products. Its preſent exports and imports are near the ſame with thoſe of Riga.

Narva, upon a river of the ſame name, not leſs than the Elbe, has enjoyed for a long time the privileges of the Hanſiatick cities, having been almoſt ruined, and its trade ceaſed for near a century; it did not begin to recover its credit till after the middle of the ſeventeenth. Olearius remarks, that in 1654, there arrived here at leaſt ſixty Dutch veſſels, which loaded more than the value of five hundred thouſand crowns in goods, ſince which time it has conteſted a ſuperiority in trade with Riga itſelf, and carried it againſt Revel.

The neighbourhood of Novogorod and Pleſkou, trading cities of Muſcovy, from which laſt Narva is hardly forty leagues diſtant, makes that of all this vaſt empire eaſy to it; and it is the paſſage by which almoſt all the merchandizes which go even to Muſcow are tranſported.

The commodities proper for Narva, or thoſe in which foreigners inveſt their returns, are the ſame as at Riga and Revel, and therefore need no repetitions.

Pernaw, a ſmall city on a river of the ſame name, was formerly occupied in no other commerce than that of wheat, which drew here ſome foreign veſſels to load it; but ſince the means has been found of bringing down the river a quantity of maſts, (not leſs valuable than thoſe

of Norway) and a good deal of other wood, its trade is greatly increaſed; and ſince 1680, the Dutch have annually ſent here more than ſixty ſhips, inſtead of five or ſix, that they conſigned here before. Few goods are wanted here, and almoſt all the trade is carried on by the intervention of old rix-dollars.

LIVRE, a French money of account, conſiſting of twenty ſols, each containing twelve deniers. The *livre* is of two kinds, Tournois and Pariſis.

*Livre Tournois* contains twenty ſols Tournois, and each ſol twelve deniers Tournois.

*Livre Pariſis*, is twenty ſols Pariſis, each ſol Pariſis being worth twelve deniers Pariſis, or fifteen deniers Tournois: ſo that a livre Pariſis is worth twenty-five ſols Tournois, becauſe of the rate of money, which was one-fourth higher at Paris than at Tours.

LIXIVIUM, a lye, or water impregnated with the ſalts of burnt vegetables.

What is left after the evaporation of ſuch a liquor, is called a *lixivious ſalt*.

*Lixiviums* are of great uſe in medicine, bleaching, ſugar-works, &c.

LOADMANAGE, is the hire, ſometimes ſo called, which the pilot of a ſhip receives of the maſter, for conducting the ſhip up the river, or into port. *See* PILOT.

*Petty loadmanage* and *primage* are due to the maſter and mariners for the uſe of his cables and ropes to diſcharge the goods, and to the mariners for loading and unloading of the ſhip or veſſel; it is commonly about twelve-pence *per* ton. 32 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14.

If the ropes break in hoiſting of goods out of the ſhip into the lighter or boat, the maſter muſt anſwer if the goods be damnified or loſt. *Leg. Oleron. cap.* 10.

But, if the ropes break at the crane in taking them out of the lighter (although, till they are landed, they are not out of the maſter's cuſtody) yet the wharfinger ſhall anſwer.

LOAM. The common ſuperficial earth, conſiſting of clay with a ſmall admixture of ſand. It alſo denotes a ſort of mortar made of a reddiſh earth, by tempering it with mud, water, ſtraw, &c.

LOANGO. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

LOBSTERS, may be imported by natives or foreigners, and in any veſſels, notwithſtanding 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 24. 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 10. Penalty on taking lobſters on the coaſt of Scotland between May and September. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 4.

LOCK-SMITH. The boy, who propoſes to be of this buſineſs, ought to have a tolerable ſhare of ingenuity, and a good degree of ſtrength; but he requires no other education, but the common one of reading, writing, and ſome little knowledge in accompts. The *lock-ſmith* makes the keys, wards, ſprings, and plates himſelf, and employs the founder in caſting braſs caſes and knobs. The niceſt part of his art is his tempering his ſprings. He takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, on his being firſt out of his time, may perhaps earn nine or ten ſhillings a week; but, as he increaſes in ſtrength and experience, he may be able to get fourteen or fifteen ſhillings; or, with about thirty or forty pounds, he may ſet up for himſelf.

LODESMAN, a kind of pilot, eſtabliſhed for the ſafe-conduct of veſſels in and out of harbours, or up and down navigable rivers. *See* PILOT.

LOG, a ſmall triangular piece of board uſed on board a ſhip; into one end of which a convenient quantity of lead is caſt, to make it ſwim upright; the other end being faſtened to the log-line.

LOG-LINE, a line faſtened to one end of the log, and wound round a reel.

This line is generally divided into certain ſpaces, which are, or at leaſt ought to be, ſuch a proportional part of a nautical mile (ſixty of which make a degree of a great circle) as half a minute, the time allowed for the experiment, is of an hour. Now a common nautical or ſea mile, according to an experiment of our countryman, Mr. Richard Norwood, with which the French nearly agree, is equal to 6120 Engliſh feet, which being divided by 120, the half minutes in an hour, gives fifty-one feet for the diſtance between each diviſion on the log-line. Theſe diviſions or ſpaces are called knots, becauſe at the end of each diviſion there is a piece of twine with knots in it reeved between the ſtands of the line; whereby the number of diviſions or knots that run off the reel, during the half minute, are readily counted.

And, becauſe it is requiſite that the log be out of the eddy of the ſhip's wake before they begin to count, therefore, theſe knots or ſpaces begin at the diſtance of ten fathoms, or ſixty feet from the log, at which point, for the more ready diſcovering it, there is faſtened a piece of red rag.

The log-line being thus prepared and wound upon a reel, heave the log over board from the poop, and as ſoon as the log is out of the ſhip's eddy, or the red rag at your hand, let your aſſiſtant run the half-minute glaſs; then veer the line from off the reel (which eaſily turns, as the ſhip ſails from the log) till the half-minute glaſs is run out, at which time ſtop the line, and the number of knots intercepted between your hand and the red rag, will ſhew how far the ſhip has run in that time, and, conſequently, her rate of ſailing. For ſince the diſtance, comptehended between each knot, bears the ſame proportion to a nautical mile as half a minute does to an hour; therefore, as many knots as are run out in half a minute, ſo many miles will the ſhip ſail in an hour; ſuppoſing her to move with the ſame velocity, during that time.

But as many accidents attend a ſhip during a day's ſailing, ſuch as the variableneſs of the winds, the different quantity of ſail carried, &c. it will be neceſſary to heave the log at every alteration; but if none of theſe alterations be perceptible, yet it ought to be conſtantly hove, at leaſt every hour. As the log-line is apt to ſtretch and ſink, and the half-minute glaſs to alter, they ought to be often examined, and, when found amiſs, rectified.

The generality of our ſeamen, upon a ſuppoſition that ſixty of our Engliſh miles are equal to a degree of a great circle, make the diſtance between knot and knot but forty-two feet; but as this ſuppoſition is evidently falſe, it were greatly to be wiſhed that they would conſtantly uſe the former limitation, being in every reſpect as eaſy, and much more ſure and certain; and the rather, as they are at the ſame time obliged by experience to ſhorten the half-minute-glaſs nearly four ſeconds, which is nothing leſs than correcting one blunder by another.

LOG-BOARD, a table divided generally into five columns; in the firſt of which is entered the hour of the day; in the ſecond, the courſe ſteered; in the third, the number of knots run off the reel each time of heaving the log; in the fourth, which way the wind is; and, in the fifth, obſervations of the weather, variation of the compaſs, &c.

LOG-BOOK, a book ruled in columns like the log-board, into which the account on the log-board is tranſcribed every day at noon; from whence, after it is corrected, &c. it is entered into the journal.

LOGWOOD, in natural hiſtory, a kind of wood much uſed in dying.

*Logwood*, or *lignum Campechianum*, is a wood of a very denſe and firm texture. It is brought to us in large thick blocks or logs, and is the heart only of the tree which produces it, the bark and ſofter part being ſeparated from it. It is very heavy, and remarkably hard. It is not eaſily cut; but it ſplits readily in a longitudinal direction, its grain running regularly that way. Its colour is a deep and ſtrong red, and its taſte aſtringent and auſtere, but with a remarkable ſweetneſs in the mouth, like that of *terra Japonica*.

*Logwood* is to be choſen in large thick pieces, ſound, and of a good colour. The tree which produces it is one of the *arbores ſiliquoſæ floribus papilionaceis* of Mr. Ray. It grows both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, but no where ſo plentifully as on the coaſt of the bay of Campechy. They cut it in ſpring, when it is full of ſap, at which time they find it eaſy, after they have cut the trunk and larger branches into lengths, to ſplit off the blea, or ſoft outer wood and bark; and then they lay up the reſt for drying.

It has been long known among the dyers; but it is only of late that it has been introduced into medicine: it is found to be an excellent aſtringent, and is given in form of extract for diarrhæas with very great ſucceſs.

By the definitive treaty of 1763, the logwood trade is ſettled as follows, in the XVIIth article of the ſaid treaty, "His Britannic majeſty ſhall cauſe to be demoliſhed all the fortifications which his ſubjects ſhall have erected in the

Bay

Bay of Honduras, and other places of the territory of Spain in that part of the world, four months after the ratification of the preſent treaty: and his catholic majeſty ſhall not permit his Britannic majeſty's ſubjects, or their workmen, to be diſturbed, or moleſted, under any pretence whatſoever, in the ſaid places, in their occupation of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood. And for this purpoſe they may build without hindrance, and occupy without interruption, the houſes and magazines which are neceſſary for them, for their families, and for their effects: and his catholic majeſty aſſures to them, by this article, the full enjoyment of thoſe advantages and powers on the Spaniſh coaſts and territories, as above ſtipulated, immediately after the ratification of the preſent treaty."

We find that, at length, this long conteſted point, reſpecting the logwood trade, is ſettled by treaty, which it never was explicitly before. For the Spaniards would never before acknowledge, that we had any right to cut logwood in the Bay of Honduras; but by the ſaid article, the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty are permitted to cut, load, and carry away logwood from the ſaid bay; and wherever elſe they had erected fortifications, upon condition only of their demoliſhing ſuch fortifications.

LONDON. The city of London ſhall have their old liberties and cuſtoms. 9 *Hen.* III. *c.* 9.

None but freemen ſhall keep inns in the city. *St. Civ. Lond.* 13 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 5.

None ſhall be brokers in London but thoſe who are admitted and ſworn by the mayor and aldermen. *St. Civ.* 13 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 5.

The mayor, &c. of London, &c. ſhall be tried by foreign jurors, on an indictment for not redreſſing errors. 28 *Edw.* III. *c.* 10.

Victuals may be freely ſold in London. 31 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 10.

The mayor, &c. ſhall have the rule of fiſhmongers, butchers, and poulterers. 13 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 1. *cap.* 10. 7 *Rich.* II. *c.* 11.

Privilege granted to thoſe of London to ſell victuals by retail. 42 *Edw.* III. *c.* 7.

The mayor ſhall have the conſervation of the Thames and Medway for preſerving the ſalmon. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 9.

Of the breaches in the Thames. 4 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 15. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18.

The aldermen ſhall continue in their offices, till removed for reaſonable cauſe. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 11.

The mayor, &c. not liable to the penalty of 28 *Ed.* III. *c.* 10. for an erroneous judgment. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 12.

Merchants of London free to pack their cloths. 1 *H.* IV. *c.* 16.

Any freeman may put his child apprentice in London, notwithſtanding the ſtatutes. 8 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 11.

Freemen of London may carry their goods to any fair or market, notwithſtanding their by-laws. 3 *Hen.* VII. *cap.* 9.

Power to the mayor, &c. where they find ſprings, to lay pipes, &c. for the convenience of water. 35 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 10.

For paying tithes in London. 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 21. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 12.

Attaints of untrue verdicts in London ſhall be tried in London. 37 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5,

Dangerous tribes prohibited in the high ſtreets. 19 *C.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 21.

Aldermen in London to have the ſame power as juſtices of peace. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 15.

Rates for wharfage and cranage. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 21.

Dimenſions of wharfs from London-Bridge to the Temple. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 14.

Hoys, &c. may carry inland proviſions within the port of London without cocquets. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 26.

Freemen impowered to diſpoſe of their effects, notwithſtanding the cuſtom. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 17.

All perſons inhabiting in London, ſubject to the juriſdiction of the Court of Conſcience. 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10.

LONDON *Aſſurance.* *See* INSURANCE.

LONG-BOAT, the largeſt boat belonging to a ſhip. It ſerves to bring goods, proviſions, &c. to or from the ſhip, to land men, to weigh the anchor, &c.

LONG-BOW-STRING MAKER. Though this is the name of one of the city companies, and might have been formerly a conſiderable trade, it now only exiſts in name.

LONGITUDE *of the earth*, denotes its extent from weſt to eaſt, according to the direction of the equator.

LONGITUDE *of a place*, in geography, its diſtance from ſome firſt meridian, or an arch of the equator intercepted between the meridian of the place and the firſt meridian.

LONGITUDE, *in navigation*, the diſtance of a ſhip or place, eaſt or weſt, from another, counted in degrees of the equator. If this diſtance be counted in leagues, miles, &c. or in degrees of the meridian, and not in thoſe proper to the parallel of latitude, it is uſually called departure.

Since the difference of longitude between any two places is equal to the arch of the equator, intercepted between the two meridians paſſing through the two places; which is analogous to the quantity of time that the ſun requires to move from the meridian of one place to that of another; or, in the language of the Copernicans, that is elapſed between the application of the meridian of one of the places to the ſun and the meridian of the other; for ſince the ſun finiſhes his diurnal revolution in the ſpace of twenty-four hours, or, which is the ſame thing, ſince the revolution of the earth about her own axis is performed in the ſame time, it follows, that in every hour there paſſes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of three hundred and ſixty degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to fifteen degrees; in two hours, one twelfth part, or thirty degrees; and, in any greater or leſſer part of time, a proportional greater or leſſer part of the equator; whence it follows, that if the difference of longitude, or arch of the equator intercepted between the meridians paſſing through any two places, be known, the difference of the times of the day in thoſe two places is known alſo; and, conſequently, the hour in one place being known, the hour in the other place is known alſo; and, on the contrary, if the difference between the times at any two places be known, the difference of longitude between thoſe two places is known alſo, by reducing the difference of the times into degrees and minutes, allowing fifteen degrees to an hour, &c.

Hence it is that, if two or more places lie under the ſame meridian, the hour in one will be the ſame with the hour in the other; and, on the contrary, if in two or more places the hour be the ſame, thoſe places lie under the ſame meridian.

And, becauſe the ſun in all places conſtantly riſes in the eaſt, he muſt neceſſarily apply himſelf to the meridian of the eaſternmoſt place firſt, and, conſequently, in that place that lies to the eaſternmoſt, the noon happens ſooneſt, and the hour of the day or diſtance of the ſun from the meridian at any other time muſt be greateſt.

Whence it appears, that if by any contrivance whatſoever, the hour of the day at the ſame point of abſolute time in two different places can be obtained, the difference of longitude between thoſe places is alſo known; and by comparing the times together, it is eaſy to pronounce which place of the two lies to the eaſtward or weſtward of the other. Wherefore if two or more perſons can view the ſame appearance at two or more places, and pronounce the ſame at each place when ſuch appearance was viſible; or if the time when any notable appearance ſhall happen at any place be predicted, and the time when that appearance was viſible at any other place was determined; theſe times, being compared together, will give the difference of meridians, or difference of longitude between the two places.

A reward for diſcovering the longitude at ſea, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 16. Directions for aſcertaining the longitude and latitude of the ports and head-lands, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 39. Farther directions for diſcovery of the longitude, 26 *G.* II. *c.* 25. 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 18. Encouragement given to John Harriſon to make known his invention for diſcovery of the longitude, 3 *Geo.* III. *c.* 14. For explaining and rendering more effectual the ſaid acts of 12 *Ann.* and 26 *Geo.* II. 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 20.

LONTHOR, *or* LANDTHOR. *See* BANDA ISLES.

LOOKING-GLASS, a plain glaſs ſpeculum or mirror, which, being impervious to the light, reflects its rays, and ſo exhibits the images of objects preſented to it.

For the manner of preparing and grinding looking-glaſſes, *ſee* POLISHING *and* FOLIATING.

LOOM, a weaver's frame, whereby ſeveral diſtinct threads are wove into one piece.

Theſe are of various kinds, according to the various materials that are to be wove.

LOOM-MAKER. The boy to be bound to this trade ought to be pretty robuſt, and about fifteen years of age; he ſhould have ſome ingenuity; but no other education is neceſſary, beſides that required for every mechanic. The *loom-maker* is, in ſome degrees, both a ſmith, joiner, and carpenter, and is employed in making weaving-looms, throwing engines for ſilk-throwſters, and ſeveral other engines for mechanic uſes. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get from ten to fifteen ſhillings a week; or, with fifty pounds, may ſet up maſter.

LORINER, *or* BIT-MAKER. The *loriner* makes bits and all the iron-work belonging to a bridle, together with the ſtirrups. It is an ingenious and laborious branch of the ſmiths buſineſs; and the beauty of the work conſiſts in filing and poliſhing. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn from ten to ſixteen ſhillings a week; or, with about one hundred pounds, may ſet up maſter.

LORRAIN. *See* BAR.

LOT, contribution or duty. *See* SCOT.

LOT, *or* LOTH, is the thirteenth diſh of lead in the Derbyſhire mines, which belongs to the king.

LOTTERY, a kind of game at hazard, common in England, Holland, and France, in order to raiſe money, which is appointed by public authority of parliament with us, and conducted by commiſſioners nominated for that purpoſe.

It conſiſts of a certain number of blanks and prizes, which are drawn out of a kind of wheel, of which there are two contrived; the one containing the numbers, and the other the correſponding blanks or prizes.

A lottery for one million on the duty of ſalt, and an additional exciſe. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *ſ.* 34.

*Lotteries* declared public nuiſances, and prohibited. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 17. 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 56. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 109. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 43. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 36.

Offenders to pay coſts to proſecutor. 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 56. 8 *Geo.* I *c.* 2. *ſ.* 37.

Selling chances of tickets in public lotteries prohibited. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 43.

Sales by way of lottery prohibited. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 36.

Penalty on publiſhing foreign lotteries. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. *ſect.* 4.

Of ſelling or procuring chances in foreign lotteries. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 29.

Additional penalties on lotteries. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28.

Sale of lands by lottery void, and the lands forfeited. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 4.

Not to affect any eſtate in lands, &c. held by allotment. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 11.

Not to extend to royal palaces, where the king reſides. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 10.

Lottery annuities. 16 *Geo.* II *c.* 13. *ſ.* 10. 28 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

Laws againſt private lotteries extended to Ireland. 29 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 2. *ſect.* 26. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 22.

LOUISBOURG. *See* CAPE BRETON.

LOUIS D'OR, a French coin firſt ſtruck under the reign of Louis XIII. in 1640.

They have at different times riſen from ten livres to forty and upwards, only that in the laſt coinings the weight was augmented in ſome proportion to the price, which, in the former reign, was never regarded.

On one ſide is the king's head and name, and on the other a croſs conſiſting of eight L's cantoned with crowns, with this legend, "Chriſtian regnat, vincit, imperat." The ordonnance makes it twenty-three carats and one fourth value, and allows an abatement of the eighth part of a carat.

There are alſo white *louis's*, or *louis's d'argent*, of ſixty and thirty ſols, which we call French crowns and half-crowns, as alſo of 15, 5, and four ſols, on one ſide of which is the king's head, and on the other the arms of France, with this legend, "Sit Nomen Domini Benedictum." In this coin there are allowed two grains abatement in the weight, and ſometimes eight grains.

LOUISIANA, *or* MISSISSIPI, is a vaſt extend of country of more than one hundred and eight leagues, lying in North America, between Canada, Carolina, Mexico, and the ocean. It was in theſe newly diſcovered lands, that the famous colony was eſtabliſhed, which, after the year 1717, engroſſed the attention of all Europe, and ſet the major part of it madding after their example, to the ruin of many thouſand families: however, we ſhall here conſider it in its preſent ſituation, and give an account of the real trade that is now ſubſiſting; regardleſs of the chimerical and ideal advantages, ſome of its moſt ſanguine adventurers at firſt propoſed from it. *See* BUBBLE.

The chief ſettlement of this colony, or, more properly ſpeaking, the capital of all the country, and centre of its commerce, is the city to which the name of *New Orleans* was given, to preſerve the memorial of the regency of that prince, under whoſe protection and auſpices it was founded. Its ſituation is on the ſide of a river, near enough the ſea to have the conveniency and facility of loading and unloading the ſhips, and at a ſufficient diſtance to avoid its bad air and neighbourhood, when irritated. The trade carried on here was much the ſame as at Canada; and ſome Indians had aſſured the French, that higher up in the country, mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, and ſteel, were to be found; of which two laſt metals, Mr. Savary ſays, there were never any ſamples ſeen in America; though, with ſubmiſſion to his better judgment, we muſt contradict this aſſertion, as there is plenty of iron in New England and Nova Scotia, and may probably be in ſome of our Weſt-Indian plantations. Theſe mines are, however, yet undiſcovered; but the true riches of the country conſiſt in that great quantity of cattle, with which the plains and foreſts of Louiſiana are filled, viz. horſes, aſſes, bulls, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs, of which the Indians make a great ſlaughter in their excurſions, and bring both fleſh and ſkins to the colony, and there exchange them for trifles. The ſupplies from France, proper for this colony, were the ſame as for the iſlands; with the exception, that to what the country produces towards the ſupport of its inhabitants, muſt be added, ſome flour, corn, rice, pulſe, and all that can contribute to ſuſtain ſo numerous a colony; and the merchandize fit for the trade with the Indians, are coarſe woollen blankets, ſerving for cloaths, Limburg cloths, white and red, and cloaks ready made of them; ordinary hats, knives, hatchets, and pickaxes, ſmall mirrors, glaſs beads, and vermillion.

The ports, poſts, and eſtabliſhments, which the French here occupied (for lately they exchanged this colony with the Spaniards for their part of Hiſpaniola) are ſixteen, viz. the Iſle Aux Vaiſſeaux, Biloxi (or Fort Louis) New Orleans, Manchac, Natches, Natchitoches, Yaſous, Illinois, Ouabache, Iſle Dauphine, Fort de Conde, Alibamons, the Bay of St. Bernard, the river Aux Cannes, Padoucas, and Miſſoures. This country produces rice, indigo, cotton, tar, pitch, but moſtly tobacco.

LUBECK. *See* BALTICK.

LUCCA, is a ſmall republic in Italy, upon the river Serchio, five leagues from Piſa; it is celebrated for its fine ſilk manufactories, particularly thoſe of velvets, damaſks, ſattins, and taffeties; here are likewiſe ſold a large quantity of raw ſilks, as alſo of oils and olives, which latter are eſteemed the beſt in Italy, and double priced.

LUCERNE, is a town built to the north of the lake, at the part where the Ruſs iſſues, which enters the Aar, below Bruck, in its way to the Rhine; here are divers manufacturcs of hempen, flaxen, and cotton cloths, fuſtians, cotelines, woollen knit ſtockings, and ſpinning of cotton throughout all the canton, which abounds in grain and paſturage. It alſo breeds large herds of cattle, with which the natives drive a great trade, as they do in cheeſe for the Milaneſe, from whence the Swiſs receive in return large parcels of rice.

This town has an advantageous and convenient ſituation, as being on the grand rout to Italy, by way of Monte St. Godard. And the goods which have croſſed the Alps are tranſported from hence, by the lake and river Ruſs, to the

the Rhine, which conveys them to the ocean. The ſmall cantons that want corn, provide themſelves here with great facility, the lake waſhing thoſe of Uri, Schwitz, and Underwald.

LUSTRE, the gloſs appearing on ſtuffs, &c. and it likewiſe denotes the compoſition or manner of giving that gloſs.

Silks are gloſſed by waſhing in ſoap, then clear water, and dipping them in cold allum-water; cloths and ſtuffs, by preſſing. The luſtre of black taffety is given by twice brewed beer boiled with orange or lemon juice; that of coloured taffeties, with water of gourds diſtilled in an alembic. Curriers gloſs their black leather, firſt with barberry juice, then with gum arabic, ale, vinegar, and Flanders glue, boiled together: for coloured leather, they uſe the white of an egg beat in water.

Hats have a luſtre given them with common water, ſometimes a little black dye is added. The ſame luſtre ſerves for furrs; for very black furrs there is by ſome prepared a luſtre of galls, copperas, Roman allum, ox's marrow, &c.

LUXEMBURG, a dutchy in the Auſtrian Netherlands, is bounded on the north by the biſhopric of Liege, a ſmall part of Limburg, and the territory of Strablo; on the eaſt, by the country of Eyffel, and the electorate of Treves; on the ſouth, by Lorrain, or rather now by French Luxemburg; and, on the weſt, it extends to the river Maes. The climate here is mild and temperate; but the ſoil is not equally fruitful every where; but it abounds with game, as ſtags, deers, hares, &c. There are iron mines here, which furniſh almoſt all Germany with that metal.

Chief rivers are the Moſelle, Owitz, Sour, and Semoy.

Luxemburg is the capital of this province.

Arlon, ſituate near the ſpring-head of the river Semoy, was formerly a conſiderable place, very well peopled; but having ſuffered very much by the wars, and being diſmantled, it is now only a borough. Baſtogne, near the foreſt of Ardenne, is ſo well peopled, has ſuch a good trade, and is ſo well built, that the people of the country call it Paris in Ardenne; though it is conſiderably decayed from what it once was.

Vandren has a conſiderable trade in woollen cloths, with which they furniſh the whole province. There are alſo here a great many tanners. The adjacent hills produce ſome wine, pretty much like the Moſelle wine.

Saint Viſt has a good trade in cattle, and is the ſtaple town of the whole province, it lying in the great road to Liege, Cologne, Treves, and other cities in Germany.

Grave Macherin is a ſmall, but a pretty town, the inhabitants of which have a good trade of Moſelle wine, which grows plentifully on the neighbouring hills.

LUXURY. It has been generally imagined, that luxury is a great cauſe of the increaſe of commerce: that it has enlarged the ſcene, and occaſioned an increaſe of ſeveral of the productions of the earth, is beyond diſpute. Hence the uſe of tobacco, ſugar, tea, ſpices, and other commodities, which are of very little real benefit to mankind, and yet are become great articles of commerce all over the world. But theſe have been attended alſo with improvements of eſſential ſervice, particularly that of manufactures, which being now ſpread over the whole earth; the ſkins of beaſts, which were formerly the great article of cloathing, are not worn, except in very cold countries, or as a rich and coſtly dreſs. Theſe have been exchanged for the manufactures of wool, and other materials much beyond what the animals furniſhed in the ſimple manner of life of our forefathers: ſome of theſe, indeed, had hardly any cloaths at all. But to come down to the preſent time, France has now near thirty times the quantity of woollen cloth, to what ſhe manufactured in the beginning of this century. And England, already ſo far advanced, has made vaſt improvements. In the laſt century calculators valued our wool at two millions, now they reckon near four millions. The ſame wool manufactured is now computed worth twelve millions; whereas, it then amounted to eight millions only.

But as things neceſſary, and in their nature good, are become common, and ſupplied in a great profuſion, that which was magnificence is no longer ſo: numerous improvements, however, being added, it takes that name again. When theſe improvements are carried to an exceſs beyond what our fortunes, and duties of life will bear, it becomes luxury; and luxury is in its nature ruinous. We ſee even the lower claſſes of mankind have acquired a taſte of many things, not only beyond the ſimplicity of life which nature dictates, but alſo beyond what their circumſtances will bear. Theſe new paſſions craving their object, an equal pace muſt be kept by induſtry, and the productions of the earth. All exceſſes require great labour to ſupport them. The people of a country who live very high, to uſe a vulgar expreſſion, are apt to light their candle at both ends; that is to ſay, they are apt to conſume too much, and work too little. Hence they are alſo more ſubject to misfortunes, becauſe that will appear as a misfortune under ſuch circumſtances, which otherwiſe would not be regarded. There is a medium, if we paſs beyond it, we prepare for ruin. Luxury and corruption have ever been the deſtruction of ſtates; and nothing can be more plain than this, that there would be little or no corruption, if there was no luxury.

LYONNOIS, FOREST, *and* BEAUJOLOIS. Very little ſilk is gathered in the firſt of theſe diſtricts, and yet Lyons is one of the cities, where the greateſt commerce in this rich merchandize is carried on. All the ſilks brought in from the Levant, Perſia, Meſſina, Italy, Spain, &c. for the uſe of France, ought to be carried to Lyons, as to a ſtaple, and from thence ſent to Paris, Tours, and the other ſilk manufactories of the kingdom.

The products of theſe three provinces for trade, are, 1. Hemp. 2. Wine. 3. Vitriol, ſaffron, and copperas, 4. Coals, which are conſumed in the manufacturing arms, and other works of iron.

The fabrics are principally of ſilk, and that of the materials neceſſary to its perfection, of which that carried on at Lyons, has for many years paſt been the moſt conſiderable, not only in France, but in any other part of Europe. Mr. Savary ſays, that there is yearly imported of ſilk, gold, and ſilver, in this manufacture, to the amount of eleven millions of livres; that the preparation of theſe materials to fit them for uſe, and their working up, ariſes to better than three millions; the ſales made of them to above three millions more; and that of the ſeventeen millions which theſe three ſums amount to, foreigners pay near one-third, in time of peace, when trade flouriſhes.

This might be very true when Mr. Savary wrote; but the weaving and dying arts are ſince brought to great perfection in many parts, more eſpecially among us, that large deductions muſt be made from the preceding calculations, and the balances conſiderably altered from what they were then, to what they are now.

The *Lyonnois* manufacture is not confined to any two or three different ſorts of ſilks, but is general, producing gold and ſilver brocades, and rich ones without either of theſe metals, damaſks, ſattins, velvets, mohair, taffeties, and almoſt every other ſpecies made elſewhere. The fine-drawing, and making the gold and ſilver thread, our author ſays, employs a thouſand marks of gold, and five million livres of ſilver yearly; and here are alſo made ſome fuſtians, dimities, and a conſiderable trade carried on in the book-ſelling way. Other parts of theſe provinces are noted for their different products, as St. Eſtienne and St. Chamont for hardware and ribbands, Roche for cheeſe, Beaujolois for linens, and various ſorts of paper, made in many parts of them, which altogether render theſe parts very conſiderable in the commercial way.

# M.



M, A liquid conſonant, and the twelfth letter of the alphabet.

M. in preſcription, ſignifies a *maniple* or *handful*; and at the end of a receipt it imports *miſce* or *mingle*.

M. among the ancients, was a numeral letter, ſignifying a thouſand. When a daſh was added at the top of it, as $\overline{M}$, it ſignified a thouſand times a thouſand.

MACAO. Although the city of *Macao* is not to be reckoned among the moſt conſiderable ones of China, either for grandeur or number of inhabitants, yet it merits a particular regard, on account of the reputation that it has always held among thoſe where the Portugueze have been eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt, and ſtill poſſeſs there; as alſo becauſe it is the firſt where the Europeans opened the trade of this great empire, and which it enjoyed alone near two ages, that they were permitted to come and trade in it.

This famous city is ſituated in a peninſula of the Oriental ocean, on the coaſt of the province of Canton, to which it is joined by a ſlip of land, at forty leagues by ſea diſtant from its capital, where the Portugueze ſettled the beginning of the ſixteenth century.

Before the Chineſe were familiarized with theſe new comers, who, under pretence of trading, were already poſſeſſed of the ſtrongeſt cities of India, and their fleets maſters of the Eaſtern ſeas, it was only permitted the Portugueze to come annually with their goods to the deſart iſle of Sanchan, and there to open ſhop in huts, made in haſte, of the boughs of trees and turfs, without being licenſed to build any houſes. Their credit increaſing, they advanced to *Macao*, ten leagues from Sanchan, where they afterwards improved what opportunities offered, to ingratiate themſelves, and obtained permiſſion to build houſes and magazines, and to encompaſs their new town with a ſingle wall.

The Dutch, jealous of the China trade, where they could not be received, attempted to drive theſe Portugueze out a hundred years after their eſtabliſhment; but, having miſſed their aim, their enterprize only ſerved the better to ſecure their enemy's ſettlement, as the Portugueze laid hold of this occaſion to obtain the liberty of fortifying their habitation, which was granted, as they were better liked for neighbours than the Dutch.

The fortifications of this place are fine and regular, and the Portugueze have now built three forts, on as many eminencies, or little mountains, always guarded by a ſtrong garriſon, and defended, as is ſaid, by two hundred pieces of cannon.

The iſthmus, which joins the peninſula of Macao to the continent, is ſhut out by a ſtrong wall, built croſs it, that has a gate in the middle, by which all the Chineſe may come in, and go out; but no Portugueze may paſs it, on pain of death: it is at this gate, where the emperor of China's officers are paid the cuſtoms of importation and exportation, on all the goods, proviſions, and fruits, which are brought to, or carried out of, Macao by land. All the Portugueze trade was at firſt ſhut within the circuit of the city, where they received their merchandize, and where the junks from Canton, and the other maritime provinces of China, came to take them in exchange for their ſilks, ſtuffs, and other Chineſe manufactures and products.

Afterwards, ſome merchants of Macao had permiſſion (for it was not indifferently granted to all) to go twice a year to the fairs at Canton, and purchaſe what they thought proper, who generally left orders for ſuch goods as they ſhould want the next voyage, that they might be making during the time between the two fairs, which, if they ſpent there, it was always aboard their ſhips, as well for their own ſafety, as to avoid the extreme miſtruſt and inſolence of the Chineſe; and they were obliged to pay large ſums to the viceroy for leave to trade.

It was with theſe goods they carried from Canton, and thoſe that the Chineſe junks brought to Macao, or what came in by land, that the Portugueze formerly compoſed all thoſe rich cargoes that they yearly ſent to Japan, the Manillas, and all the parts of India from Goa to China, where they carried their trade to, before the Dutch came to interrupt them.

At preſent, this trade is almoſt reduced to nothing, and they enjoyed but few advantages from the treaty they made in 1680, with the court of Pekin, by which it was agreed, that they only ſhould tranſact the whole commerce of China, excluſive of all other nations; this privilege having laſted not quite five years, as the ports of this vaſt empire were opened in 1685, to all thoſe who would come to trade there. *See* CHINA.

MACASSAR. *See* MOLUCCA ISLES.

MACE. The ſecond coat or covering of the nutmeg.

It is a thin and flat membraneous ſubſtance, of an oleaginous nature, a yellowiſh colour, extremely fragrant, and of a pleaſant, but acrid and oleaginous taſte. It is to be choſen new, not dry, and of a fragrant ſmell, tough, oleaginous, and of a good yellow.

Mace abounds with the ſame ſort of oil that is found in the nutmeg, but it is thinner in the mace, and is in a greater quantity. If the oil be ſeparated by diſtillation, what comes firſt over, is thin and limpid like water, and is of the moſt fragrant ſmell; what follows this is yellowiſh, and ſomewhat thicker; and, finally, a third kind comes over, if the fire be made more violent, which is reddiſh; and all three of theſe are ſo fuſible and volatile, that if they are not kept in veſſels very cloſe ſtopped, they will great part evaporate into the air, all their finer parts flying off. An oil may alſo be drawn from mace, in the ſame manner as from nutmeg by expreſſion; it is afforded in a larger quantity this way, than from the nutmeg, and is of a ſomewhat ſofter conſiſtence.

Mace is carminative, ſtomachic, and aſtringent; it poſſeſſes all the virtues of the nutmeg, if taken in a larger doſe; and people have become delirious, for ſome hours, after an immoderate uſe of it. The oils of mace and nutmeg, whether prepared by diſtillation or by expreſſion, are ſo much of the ſame nature, that they may be indiſcriminately uſed for one another on all occaſions. They give eaſe in cholics, and often, in nephritic caſes, taken internally from one drop to five or ſix of the diſtilled oil, or an equal quantity of the expreſſed; and externally, they are of uſe to rub up paralytic limbs; they alſo aſſiſt digeſtion, and will often ſtop vomitings and hic-coughs, only by being rubbed on the regions of the ſtomach. The nurſes have a cuſtom of applying oil of mace, by expreſſion, to children's navels, to eaſe their gripes, and that often with ſucceſs; and we are aſſured by authors of credit, that rubbed on the temples, it promotes ſleep. The oils, by diſtillation, are very properly added to the ſtronger cathartics in form of pills, and prove excellent correctives.

MACEDONIA; its boundaries are Servia and Bulgaria on the north; Bulgaria and the Archipelago on the eaſt; Levadia on the ſouth, and Albania on the weſt. It is rich in divers mines of gold, abounds with corn, paſture, cattle, veniſon, and in ſome parts it produces wine and oil. Here are many rivers and mountains, but none very remarkable, except Athos.

The Turks divide it into three parts, viz. Jamboli, which extends, from the gulph of Salonichi on the ſouth, to the borders of Romania on the north-eaſt and north, having Macedonia Proper on the weſt, and the Archipelago on the eaſt.

*Macedonia-Proper* has Jamboli on the eaſt, Comenolitari on the ſouth, Albania on the weſt, and Bulgaria on the north.

*Comenolitari*, is the moſt weſtern and ſouthern part of Macedonia.

*Solonichi*, or *Salonica*, the metropolis of all Macedonia, and the ſeat of a Turkiſh præfect, ſtands at the bottom of a gulph, to which it gives its name. It is one hundred and fifty miles diſtant from Sofia in Bulgaria towards the ſouth, two hundred and ſixty from Conſtantinople to the weſt, one hundred and ſixty from the iſthmus of Corinth to the north-weſt, and one hundred and forty from the neareſt coaſt of the Adriatic Sea to the eaſt. In the neighbourhood of it, towards the weſt, runs the river Vardar, which abounds with fiſh, and the banks of which are adorned with beautiful trees.

MACHINE, in general, ſignifies any thing that ſerves to augment, or to regulate moving powers: or it may be defined any body deſtined to produce motion, ſo as to ſave either time or force.

Machines are divided into ſimple and compound.

The ſimple machines are the balance, lever, pulley, wheel, wedge, and ſcrew; the compound are conſtituted of ſeveral ſimple ones combined together. The latter are innumerable as well in their form as their application.

A people without commerce may ſafely refuſe to admit ſtocking-looms, ſawing-mills, throwing engines, weaving or ſpinning-engines, mills for ſtriking files, cutting watch-wheels, making nails, and all the variety of inventions produced by a rivalſhip amongſt nations contending for commerce, and private men for orders.

Commercial ſtates muſt have their eyes on their neighbours, and, if they deſign to engroſs foreign markets, muſt provide for the cheapneſs of labour at home; goods muſt be made cheap to render them of general uſe abroad and at home. Engines for ſhortening buſineſs ought to be rejected, or not admitted in commercial ſtates, when the commodity is not at all ſold abroad, when it affects not the price of labour, and when the machines would leſſen our home markets, more than increaſe our foreign ones.

MADAGASCAR might be, as well for the abundance of its rich products as for its happy ſituation in the route to India, one of the moſt famous iſles for trade in the univerſe, if the ferocity of its inhabitants, and the intemperature of the air and ſun, in the places where the Europeans were at firſt ſettled, had not diſcouraged their continuance. It is ſituated over-againſt and along that part of the continent of Africk, which the kingdoms of Sofala, Moſambique and Melinda compoſe, from whence it is diſtant in ſome places a hundred, and in others but ſeventy or fewer leagues.

The European commodities fit for the trade of this iſle, are painted linens, ſilver, copper, and pewter, rings and bracelets, a quantity of mercery and hard ware, ſeveral ſorts of glaſs beads, particularly blue, red, white, green, yellow, and orange colour, brandy, Spaniſh, and French wine, carnelians long and olive ſhaped, red and white, large braſs wire, and ſmall chains of ditto, nails of all ſizes, and divers tools, both for the ſmith and joiner, as well as locks, hinges, &c.

The goods to be had there in exchange conſiſt in ſeveral ſorts of gum, ſuch as gutti tacamahaca, various ſpecies of dragon's blood, &c. different woods, wax, raw hides, ſugar, tobacco, pepper, cotton, indigo, ambergreaſe, incenſe, benzoin, Palma Chriſti oil, green balm for wounds, ſalt petre, brimſtone, white cinnamon, civet, rock cryſtal, blood ſtone, touch ſtone, terra ſigillata, ſeveral boles, matts of ruſhes, and flax, and even of ſilk; but the culture and ſearch after theſe things being neglected by the natives, and the Europeans who are eſtabliſhed among them, not having been more induſtrious, they have not been benefited by theſe riches, which ſome pains and a little time would eaſily have ſecured to them.

Some alſo account gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, among the natural products of this iſle; but that any of theſe metals are found here is very uncertain, and all the precious ſtones are very imperfect.

MADDER, a ſmall red root, much uſed by dyers.

Madder is cultivated in vaſt quantities in ſeveral parts of Holland. The Dutch ſupply all Europe with it, and make a vaſt advantage of the trade in it; it is very wonderful that no other nation has attempted the cultivating it; there is no doubt but it would ſucceed very well in France, Germany, or with us, and much ground might be employed this way, to ten times the advantage that it is at preſent. What the Dutch ſend for medicinal uſe is in the root, which is only dried and ſent over without any ſeparation; the greateſt quantity, however, is uſed by the dyers. This they uſually ſend in coarſe powder ground in mills: they make two kinds of this ground madder; the one is the whole root ground, juſt as taken out of the earth and dried; the other is cleaned from the cortical part, which is of a duſkier colour than the reſt, and then ground to powder. This is diſtinguiſhed from the other by its being of a paler and more agreeable colour.

The plant which produces the madder root, is of the number of the tetrandria monagynia of Linnæus and one of the herbæ ſtellatæ of Mr. Ray. It grows to two feet high; its ſtalks are ſquare and rough; its leaves are oblong and narrow, and ſtand four in a joint, in manner of a ſtar. Its flowers grow in cluſters at the upper part of the ſtalks, and are very ſmall, and of a pale yellowiſh green colour; theſe are followed by a fruit conſiſting of two ſeeds. It has been deſcribed by all the botanical writers under the names of rubia ſtava, and rubia tinctorum.

The root is an attenuant, and has the credit of being a vulnerary of the firſt rank: it is at preſent, given with ſucceſs in chronic caſes, where there are obſtructions of the viſcera. It promotes the menſes and urine, and is good in jaundices, dropſies, and obſtructions of the ſpleen. Its doſe is from five to fifteen grains, but it is ſeldom given ſingly. It frequently makes an ingredient in infuſions and decoctions, among other medicines of the ſame intention, and it gives theſe an elegant colour. It is alſo uſed in great quantity by the dyers for red and other colours.

To be imported unmixed, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. repealed 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 3. To what duties liable, 2 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. Tithes of madder ſettled, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 18. Penalty of deſtroying madder roots, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35.

MADEIRA, ſituated on the coaſt of Africk, to the ſouthward of the Canaries, among the number of which the pilots generally place it, and from which it is only diſtant about ſixty leagues, was diſcovered by the Portugueze in 1410, or 1420, to be an impenetrable foreſt; ſo that before they could ſettle here, and cultivate it, they were obliged to ſet fire to it, though this expedition had like to have coſt thoſe who compoſed this infant colony their lives, by the exceſſive heats in their barks where they retired, and continued whilſt the wood was burning; but having afterwards effected their ſettlement, the iſland is become one of the moſt fertile and populous of any in the Ocean; and produces

duces plenty of corn, wine, ſugar, gums, honey, wax, hides, all ſorts of fruit, freſh, dry, and candid, eſpecially citrons, lemons, and pomegranates, yew and cedar planks, &c. and its imports are ſuch of the European goods, as are ſpecified in the commerce of the *Terceras*, which ſee.

MADRASS. *See* COROMANDEL COAST.

MAGISTERY, *magiſterium*, in chemiſtry, commonly denotes a white powder, prepared of certain ſubſtances by precipitation. Theſe ſubſtances are either of the mineral kind, as earth, ſtones, &c. or vegetables, as herbs, reſins, &c. or animals, as bones, horns, &c.

The method of preparing it is thus; take the ſubſtance from which you deſign to prepare the magiſtery, and bruiſe or break it groſsly; then pour thereon a proper liquor, an acid, &c. in order to its ſolution or extraction. The ſolution is precipitated by an effuſion of the liquor, or by the matter, by whoſe force that of the ſolvent is blunted: the precipitated powder may be waſhed, if neceſſary, with common water, and afterwards gently dried. *Schroder.*

MAGISTERY *of biſmuth*, is made by diſſolving biſmuth in ſpirit of nitre, and pouring it on ſalt water, which precipitates the magiſtery to the bottom.

MAGISTERY *of lead*, is made by diſſolving *ſaccharum ſaturni* in diſtilled vinegar, and then precipitating it with oil of tartar *per deliquium*.

MAGISTERY *of reſins*, or reſinous extracts of ſcammony, jalap, &c. are made by diſſolving the matter in ſpirit of wine, and precipitating it with water.

Mr. Boyle takes magiſtery to conſiſt in a precipitation of a body, whereby it is converted, by means of ſome additament, into a body of a different kind, as when copper is turned into cryſtals of Mars and Venus.

MAGMA, in general, denotes any thick ointment, made up with but a ſmall quantity of liquids, in order to prevent its running abroad. In a ſtricter ſenſe, it denotes the recrement of an ointment, or the fæces which are left after the expreſſion of the more liquid parts.

MAGNA CHARTA, the great charter, was granted the ninth year of Henry the Third, and confirmed by Edward the Firſt. The reaſon why it was termed *Magna Charta*, was either that it contained the ſum of all the liberties of England, or elſe becauſe there was another charter, called *Charta de Foreſta*, eſtabliſhed with it, which was the leſs of the two; or becauſe it contained more than many other charters, or more than that of king Henry the Firſt, or of the great and remarkable ſolemnity in the denouncing excommunication, and direful anathemas againſt the infringers of it. We read in Hollingſhead, that king John, to appeaſe his barons, yielded to laws or articles of government, much like to this great charter: but we have now no ancienter written law than this, which was thought to be ſo beneficial to the ſubject, and a law of ſo great equity, in compariſon of thoſe which were formerly in uſe, that king Henry for granting it had the fifth penny of all the moveable goods, both of the ſpiritualty and temporalty throughout the realm. *Spelman* in his *Gloſſ.* on this word, calls it *auguſtiſſimum Anglicarum libertatum diploma & ſacra anchora*. It is *magnum in parvo*, and hath been above thirty times confirmed, ſays Coke upon Littleton, *fol.* 81. It is recorded, that when Henry the Third confirmed it, he ſwore, on the word and faith of a king, a Chriſtian, and a knight, to obſerve it.

Anathemas againſt the infringers of *Magna Charta*, *ſententia lata*. 28 *Hen.* III. *St. Conf. Car.* 25. *Edw.* I. *cap.* 4.

Writs ſhall be granted againſt the infringers. *Stat.* 25 *Hen.* III. *c.* 5.

*Magna Charta* ſhall be ſent to all ſheriffs, &c. *St. Conf. Cart.* 25 *Edw.* I. *c.* 1.

Judgments againſt the great charter ſhall be void. *St. Conf. Cart.* 25 *Edw.* I. *c.* 2.

The charters ſhall be publicly read in the cathedral churches, *St. Conf. Cart.* 25 *Edw.* I. *c.* 3. And by the ſheriffs, *Art. ſuper. Cart.* 28 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 3. *c.* 4.

Three knights to be elected in each county, to hear complaints of offences againſt *Magna Charta*. *Art. ſuper. Cart.* 28 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 3. *c.* 1. *See* CHARTA MAGNA.

MAGNESIA, in pharmacy. *See* MARCASITE.

MAGNESIA ALBA, in chemiſtry, a highly white powder, without either taſte or ſmell, obtained from nitre. If the liquor, which is left after the firſt cryſtallization of rough nitre, be evaporated to a dry ſubſtance, and this calcined for ſome time in a crucible, a white powder will remain, called by the name of *magneſia alba*, which, given in the doſe of a dram or two, proves a good purge in hypochondriacal and other diſeaſes. This medicine was for ſome time kept as a great ſecret, under the names of *nitrous panacæa*, *count de Palmer's powder*, &c. till Hoffman made it public in his Obſerv. Chymico Phyſicæ. *See* NITRE.

MAGNET, loadſtone, in natural hiſtory, a ferrugineous denſe foſſile ſubſtance, of a blackiſh, bluiſh, or reddiſh colour, attracting or repelling iron or another magnet; and directing its poles always to thoſe of the world, when it is at liberty to move.

This famous ſtone was well known to the ancients, but ſcarce any other property of it than that of its attracting iron, as we may ſee in Pliny, *b.* 36. *c.* 16. However, it appears that they knew ſomething of its communicating virtue, particularly Plato, when deſcribing that famous chain of iron rings put together, the firſt of which was held by a magnet; and Lucretius makes mention of the ſame magnetic quality operating through the hardeſt bodies.

But we do not ſee by any paſſage in their writings that they knew any thing of the directive virtue of the loadſtone: and we are utterly in the dark as to the time this diſcovery was firſt made, as alſo when it was applied to the uſe of navigation.

It is very probable that ſome perſon by chance diſcovered that the magnet put in a little boat in the water would always point north and ſouth, and that a piece of iron impregnated by the loadſtone had the ſame property; that this piece of iron ſo impregnated was put upon a pivot, that it might move the more freely; that afterwards it was thought that this diſcovery might be very uſeful to ſailors to know the ſouth and the north points, when the weather happened to be overcaſt and no ſtar to be ſeen; and laſt of all, they ſubſtituted the common compaſs inſtead of the impregnated needle, in order to remedy the inconveniences occaſioned by the ſhaking of the veſſel. It moreover appears, that this diſcovery was made before the year 1180.

*Artificial* MAGNETS, are ſteel bars impregnated with the virtues of the magnet, ſo that they poſſeſs all the properties, and may be uſed inſtead of the natural loadſtone.

There have been ſeveral methods propoſed for making artificial magnets; but none are equal to the following, which is the invention of the ingenious Mr. Canton, a gentleman well known to the learned world, and whom this diſcovery alone will render immortal.

Procure a dozen bars; ſix of ſoft ſteel, each three inches long, one quarter of an inch broad, and one-twentieth of an inch thick, with two pieces of iron, each half the length of one of the bars, but of the ſame breadth and thickneſs; and ſix of hard ſteel, each five inches and a half long, half an inch broad, and three-twentieths of an inch thick, with two pieces of iron of half the length, but the ſame breadth and thickneſs of the hard bars: and let all the bars be marked with a line quite round them at one end.

Then take an iron poker and tongs, the larger they are, and the longer they have been uſed, the better; and fixing the poker upright between the knees, hold to it near the top one of the ſoft bars, having its marked end downward, by a piece of ſewing ſilk, which muſt be pulled tight with the left hand, that the bar may not ſlide: then graſping the tongs with the right hand a little below the middle, and holding them nearly in a vertical poſition, let the bar be ſtroked by the lower end, from the bottom to the top, about ten times on each ſide, which will give it a magnetic power ſufficient to lift a ſmall key at the marked end: which end, if the bar was ſuſpended on a point, would turn toward the north, and is therefore called the north pole, and the unmarked end is, for the ſame reaſon, called the ſouth pole of the bar.

Four of the ſoft bars being impregnated after this manner, lay the other two, parallel to each other, at the diſtance of about one-fourth of an inch, between the two pieces of iron belonging to them, a north and a ſouth pole againſt each piece of iron: then take two of the four bars already made magnetical, and place them together, ſo as to make a double bar in thickneſs, the north pole of one even with the ſouth pole of the other; and the remaining

two being put to theſe in ſuch a manner as to have two north and two ſouth poles together, ſeparate the north from the ſouth poles at one end by a large pin, and place them perpendicularly with that end downward, on the middle of one of the parallel bars, the two north poles towards its ſouth, and the two ſouth poles towards its north end: ſlide them backward and forward three or four times the whole length of the bar, and removing them from the middle of this, place them on the middle of the other bar as before directed, and go over that in the ſame manner; then turn both the bars the other ſide upward; and repeat the former operation. This being done, take the two from between the pieces of iron, and placing the two outermoſt of the touching bars in their room, let the other two be the outermoſt of the four to touch theſe with: and this proceſs being repeated till each pair of bars have been touched three or four times over, which will give them a conſiderable magnetic power, put the half dozen together after the manner of the four, and touch with them two pair of the hard bars, placed between their irons at the diſtance of about half an inch from each other: then lay the ſoft bar aſide; and, with the four hard ones, let the other two be impregnated, holding the touching bars apart at the lower end near two-tenths of an inch, to which diſtance let them be ſeparated, after they are ſet on the parallel bar, and brought together again before they are taken off: this being obſerved, proceed according to the method deſcribed above, till each pair have been touched two or three times over. But as this vertical way of touching a bar will not give it quite ſo much of the magnetic virtue as it will receive, let each pair be new touched once or twice over, in their parallel poſition between the irons, with two of the bars held horizontally, or nearly ſo, by drawing at the ſame time, the north one from the middle over the ſouth end, and the ſouth of the other from the middle over the north end of a parallel bar; then, bringing them to the middle again without touching the parallel bar, give three or four of theſe horizontal ſtrokes to each ſide. The horizontal touch, after the vertical, will make the bars as ſtrong as they can poſſibly be made: as appears by their not receiving any additional ſtrength, when the vertical touch is given by a greater number, and the horizontal by bars of a ſuperior magnetic power. This whole proceſs may be gone through in about half an hour, and each of the larger bars, if well hardened, may be made to lift twenty-eight troy ounces, and ſometimes more. And when theſe bars are thus impregnated, they will give to a hard bar, of the ſame ſize, its full virtue in leſs than two minutes: and therefore will anſwer all the purpoſes of magnetiſm, in navigation and experimental philoſophy, much better than the loadſtone, which is well known not to have ſufficient power to impregnate hard bars. The half dozen being put into a caſe, in ſuch a manner, as that two poles of the ſame denomination may not be together, and their irons with them as one bar, they will retain the virtue they have received: but if their power ſhould, by making experiments, be ever ſo far impaired, it may be reſtored without any foreign aſſiſtance in a few minutes. And if, out of curioſity, a much larger ſet of bars ſhould be required, theſe will communicate to them a ſufficient power to proceed with, and they may in a ſhort time, by the ſame method, be brought to their full ſtrength. The ſmith's manner of hardening ſteel, whom we have chiefly employed, and whoſe bars have conſtantly proved better than any we could meet with beſides, is as follows: having cut a ſufficient quantity of the leather of old ſhoes into very ſmall pieces, he provides an iron pan, a little exceeding the length of a bar, wide enough to lay two ſide by ſide, without touching each other, or the pan, and at leaſt an inch deep. This pan he nearly half fills with the bits of leather, upon which he lays the two bars, having faſtened to the end of each a ſmall wire to take them out by: he then quite fills the pan with the leather, and places it on a gentle flat fire, covering and ſurrounding it with charcoal. The pan being brought to ſomewhat more than a red heat, he keeps it ſo about half a hour, and then ſuddenly quenches the bars in a large quantity of cold water. *Canton.*

This ingenious gentleman reverts the poles of a natural loadſtone by placing it in an inverted direction, between the contrary poles of two of his larger bars, laid down at ſome diſtance from each other, in the ſame ſtrait line continued, without touching the ſtone with either of the bars, and only by placing it, in the manner juſt mentioned between their poles, at the diſtance of about a quarter of an an inch from either of them.

MAGNETICAL *Amplitude*, is an arch of the horizon intercepted between the centre of the ſun at his riſing or ſetting, and the eaſt or weſt points of the compaſs: or it is the different riſing or ſetting of the ſun from the eaſt or weſt points of the compaſs.

MAGNETICAL *Azimuth*, is an arch of the horizon, comprehended between the ſun's azimuth circle, and the magnetical meridian; or it is the diſtance of the ſun from the north or ſouth point of the compaſs.

MAGNETISM, the virtue or power that the magnet has of attracting iron, &c.

The primary properties of magnetiſm, are as follows:

1. Every loadſtone has two points or poles, which emit the magnetic virtue moſt copiouſly. 2. One of thoſe poles attracts, the other repels iron, but no other body. 3. Their virtue is communicated to iron by the touch, which renders it magnetic. 4. A piece of iron ſo touched by the loadſtone, and nicely ſuſpended on a ſharp point, will be determined to ſettle itſelf in a direction nearly north and ſouth. 5. The end of the needle touched by the ſouth pole of the ſtone, will point northwards, and the contrary. 6. Needles touched by the ſtones will dip below the horizon, or be directed on the touched part to a point within the earth's ſurface. This is called the dipping needle. *See* DIPPING-NEEDLE. 7. This virtue is alſo to be communicated to iron, by a ſtrong attrition all one way, whence files, drills, &c, are always found to be magnetical. 8. Iron rods, or bars, acquire a magnetic virtue by ſtanding long in one poſition. 9. Fire totally deſtroys this virtue, by making the ſtone of iron red-hot. 10. This power is exerted ſenſibly to the diſtance of ſeveral feet. 11. It is ſenſibly continued through the ſubſtance of ſeveral contiguous bodies or pieces of iron, as keys, &c. 12. It pervades the pores of the hardeſt bodies; and, 13. equally attracts the iron *in vacuo*, as in open air.

To the above properties of the loadſtone, we ſhall add the following, viz. That the ſame pole of the ſtone will communicate to a piece of iron the power of attracting or repelling the ſame end of a touched needle, by drawing it different ways thereon: or thus, if a piece of iron be drawn to the right hand, and attracts, it will repel, if drawn to the left, which is not a little wonderful.

Oftentimes, by a ſmart ſtroke of a hammer on the untouched end of the dipping-needle, the magnetic virtue comes all to that end from the other, ſo as to make it dip on that ſide, as much as it did on the other ſide before: and, on the contrary, by ſuch a ſtroke, ſometimes, it dips much more on the touched end than before. Again, ſometimes by ſtriking it, the needle which dipped before, will be reſtored to its equilibrium, as if the virtue had made its eſcape, or were uniformly diffuſed over all the needle. So capricious are the phænomena of this amazing power. *See* MAGNET.

MAIDENHAIR, *adianthum*, in botany, is one of the claſs of the *cryptogamia* of Linnæus, and of that of the *herbæ epiphylloſpermæ* of Mr. Ray. It is a large genus of plants, comprehending a great number of ſpecies, moſt of which have, at one time or other, been recommended as medicines of great power; at preſent, however, there are only three of the ſpecies known in the ſhops, and theſe, indeed, but little uſed; theſe are, 1. The true maidenhair. 2. The large white maidenhair; and, 3. The little white maidenhair, or wall-rue.

The true maidenhair is a low, but very beautiful plant of the kind. The ſtalk is about three or four inches high, and is round, firm, and ſolid, though very ſlender, and of a ſhining black colour, and an extremely even and gloſſy ſurface; it is naked and ſingle for two-thirds of its height, but then it divides into ſeveral ramifications, on each of which are placed a number of pinnules, or little leaves; theſe are near half an inch in breadth, and more than a third of an inch in length; they are of a criſtated form, and have veins diſpoſed like rays on them; they are ſmooth, and of a ſhining green, and are notched ſo deeply about the edges, and that in ſo ſingular a manner, that they much reſemble the lower leaves of the coriander plant; they are ſmooth and ſoft to the touch, of a ſomewhat fragrant ſmell,

and no diſagreeable taſte, but with ſomething of aſtringency in it, and a little bitterneſs. The ſeeds are produced on the outermoſt part of theſe pinnules, in the manner of the ferns and capillary plants in general, but with ſomewhat ſingular in the diſpoſition of them.

6. It grows in many parts of France and Italy, on the brinks of wells, and in the cracks of rocks, where there is moiſture; it is not a native of England, but we have it in many of our gardens.

All the three ſpecies of maidenhair poſſeſs the ſame virtues. Chemically analyzed, they yield firſt a limpid colourleſs water of an obſcurely acid taſte, but without ſmell; after this comes a reddiſh liquor of an acid taſte, with ſomewhat of the auſtere mixed with it, and of an empyreumatic ſmell; then a reddiſh liquor in a ſmall quantity, containing a volatile alcaline ſalt, and a ſmall quantity of thick oil. The remainder in the retort, calcined and lixiviated, yields a large portion of fixed alcaline ſalt. Theſe, with very little variations, are the principles and proportions of them in all the ſpecies, as well thoſe here mentioned, as the others now wholly out of uſe. They all attenuate viſcid and tough humours, and, at the ſame time, obtund the two acrid ones, and have an after aſtringency, by which they reſtore the fibres to their true tone: they are good againſt crudities of the ſtomach, and againſt diarrhæa's, and other complaints ariſing from that cauſe: they are good, alſo, in all diſorders of the breaſt occaſioned by a viſcid phlegm, and in all obſtructions of the viſcera. They are never truſted ſingly, however, in any of theſe caſes, but make a good ingredient among other decoctions, &c. intended to do ſervice in them: they are alſo ſometimes given in a ſlight infuſion, in form of tea, againſt obſtructions of the menſes, when habitual, but not violent. They are ingredients alſo in ſome of the compoſitions of the ſhops. The ſyrup of capillaire is made from the true adianthum or maidenhair of France, with Narbonne honey; and there is another kind of it brought from America, which is made of an infuſion of the *adianthum Americanum*, a plant ſomewhat reſembling the true maidenhair, but larger and more branched; and with maple ſugar, a kind of ſugar made from the inſpiſſated juice of the maple, as the common ſugar is in the ſame part of the world from that of the ſugar-cane.

MAINE. *See* ANJOU.

MAKARIA, a great monaſtery, with a village of the ſame name, ſeated on the Kerſimie that falls into the Volga, a great river of Muſcovy.

This place is famous for its annual fair held here in the month of July, and which laſts for fifteen days. The majority of the Ruſſia merchants uſually attend it, either to buy or ſell; and for the conveniency of trade, here is a wooden caravanſera built, where they lodge and retire with their goods.

MALABAR. All this part of India, from a common name called *Malabar*, was divided into ſeveral ſmall ſtates, with the title of kingdoms, which they almoſt all bear, though they have particular names to diſtinguiſh them.

The air is good on all the coaſt of *Malabar*, and there is hardly a country in Aſia more fertile; the black and white rice, which make a part of its trade (and probably the moſt conſiderable one) is gathered here twice a year; and beſides a quantity of excellent fruits, which ſerve for the ſhippings refreſhment, here may be loaded a quantity of cardamoms, cinnamon, betel, white areca (and red for dying;) but, above all, pepper, of which vaſt quantities are annually exported.

There are ſeveral other parts in India where this laſt commodity is produced, but it no where grows in greater abundance, on of a better quality than on this coaſt, from Viſapour to Cape Comorin; the largeſt berry comes from Viſapour and Canara; all other places producing the grain of a leſſer ſize, though theſe are moſt eſteemed by the Indians, who come here to ſupply themſelves with it.

The cardamoms are gathered in the kingdom of Cananor, or a mountain ſix or ſeven leagues from the ſea, which it is believed is the only ſpot in the world where they are found. A few of them are tranſported to Europe for medicinal uſes, and the reſt to India, Perſia, and Arabia; where the rice is never thought good, till ſeaſoned with this agreeable ſpice.

The cinnamon is not near ſo good as that of Ceylon, and but little of it left, ſince the Dutch rooted up what grew at Cochin; and the betel is only proper for the Eaſt.

Of its principal places for trade an account may be found in their alphabetical order.

MALABATHRUM. *See* INDIAN LEAF.

MALACCA. This city is ſeated at two degrees and a half latitude on this ſide the line, in the ſtreights, to which it gives its name, and ſeparates the *Terra Firma* from the iſle of Sumatra. Alphonſo Albuquerque took it from the king of Ihor (or rather Gohor) in 1511, and it was unſucceſsfully attacked a hundred years after by the Dutch, tho' they were more fortunate in 1641, when they drove the Portugueze out, after a ſiege of ſix months, and have remained maſters of it ever ſince. Its port is one of the beſt and ſafeſt in India, and may be entered at all times of the year, which is an advantage that neither that of Surate, or Goa enjoys, nor any others of Guzurate or Malabar, which are all ſubject to the monſoons. Whilſt it remained in the hands of the Portugueze, it was one of the ſtaples for the Indian trade, and as a ſtorehouſe to all the Eaſt, where the Indian nations, accuſtomed to the marine traffic, uſed to aſſemble.

It ſtill ſupports its reputation, and its commerce is yet very conſiderable, particularly in linens from Surate, Coromandel, and Bengal, which find vent here, at Andra, Giery, and in the rivers of Siaca and Pera; and here are alſo found other goods, of which a part go by land to Siam and Pegu.

The major part of the payments for theſe linens, and other commodities brought here by the Dutch, are in gold and pewter, on which large profits are made in the other parts of India they are ſent to. The chief officer in trade that the Dutch maintain here, is called Chabander, an Indian name, which ſignifies ſuper-intendant, who is independent of the governor, and has the ſole direction of trade and of the cuſtoms.

The Dutch are here about two or three hundred families; the other merchants are Malayans, Moors, or Chineſe; theſe laſt only concerning themſelves in the retail of tea, ſugar-candy, ſweetmeats, &c. but the others have their ſhops ever full of all ſorts of goods, that the Dutch ſhips bring here.

The trade carried on at Malacca was the leaſt motive to the Dutch for its capture, or that now induces them to maintain and guard it with ſo much care; but it was rather an admirable ſituation for that of China and Japan; beſides its commanding all the ſtreights in which it is ſeated, ſo that no nation can paſs to the eaſtward without their permiſſion.

*Ligor* and *Tenaſſerin* are two petty kingdoms in the peninſula of Malacca, dependent on the king of Siam; the Dutch have ſettlements here, and carry on a good trade in pepper and pewter.

MALACHITE, *or* MOLOCHITE, in natural hiſtory, a ſtone of the jaſper kind, but of leſs beauty than moſt of thoſe of that claſs. It is found in ſmall maſſes of the ſhape of our ordinary flints and pebbles, and at the biggeſt, in general, not exceeding two or three inches in diameter. We are told, indeed, of malachites of a much larger ſize, but all that we meet with of ſuch are falſe ones: ſome of the green marbles, and ſome of the green jaſpers, being cut into vaſes, and when their colour approaches to that of the malachites, called by its name. It is conſiderably hard, and when broken, it ſhews a ſmooth and even ſurface, gloſſy, in the manner of that of our flints. It is naturally of a pure deep green, but, like the other ſtones of this claſs, it is ſometimes found variegated with whitiſh ſpots and clouds, and ſometimes with ſuch ſpots, or with regular veins of a deep black. It is leſs tranſparent than almoſt any of the jaſpers, and by that defect, loſes much of the value its elegant colour would otherwiſe have given it. It is ſo hard, that the lapidaries expect a particular price for cutting it, and it takes a higher poliſh than almoſt any of the jaſpers; it very readily gives fire on being ſtruck againſt a ſteel. It loſes all its colour in the fire, coming out of a pale grey; and it reſiſts the force of acids, no menſtruum being yet found that is a ſolvent, either for this or any other of the ſtones that are formed upon a cryſtal baſis. The malachite is found in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies. The Oriental malachites are generally harder than the American ones are; but they are paler, and of leſs beauty. We have it alſo

in Bohemia, and in ſome other parts of Europe; but the ſpecimens found in thoſe places, are ever inferior to the other in luſtre and in hardneſs. The ancients had it from Arabia.

It has been many times in great eſteem as an amulet, and has been worn about the neck and arms as a preſervative againſt venemous bites, and for fifty other as ridiculous purpoſes. It has alſo been recommended, by ſome, to be given internally as a purge in dropſies, and is ſaid to operate violently, both by vomit and ſtool, and in ſo ſmall a doſe as five or ſix grains; but it is, at preſent, very rarely uſed.

MALAGUETA COAST. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

MALDIVES. Theſe iſles, more famous for their number than extent, lie in the Indian Sea, at ſixty leagues from Cape Comorin, extending from eight degrees north to four degrees ſouth latitude. Their number is uncertain, and it daily decreaſeth, though they are computed to be at leaſt twelve thouſand, part inhabited, and part deſert, which are divided into thirteen attolons, that is, thirteen great parts, by pretty large channels that ſeparate them, the iſlands of each attolon being ſo near to one another, that at low-water the communication may be made on foot, without being wet higher than the knees. The greateſt trade of theſe iſles conſiſt in thoſe ſmall white ſhells, called *cowries*, ſo often mentioned in this work; and the Dutch are the people principally concerned in it, whether to India, where they diſtribute a ſhare, or in Europe, where they ſell them to moſt other nations, who trade to Guinea, Juda, and on the other coaſts between Cape Verd, and that of Good Hope; beſides which, the iſlanders carry a large quantity themſelves to Ceylon, and ſome other places on the Malabar coaſt, from whence a great many are ſent to Surate, and into the dominions of the Grand Mogul.

The goods given them in exchange for their ſhells, are coarſe cotton cloths, rice, and ſome other proviſions that do not grow in their iſles. The cocoa tree alſo furniſhes them with ſome merchandize that they ſell to ſtrangers, though Dr. Garcin has exploded a vulgar error, hitherto propagated by moſt authors who have deſcribed thoſe trees as natives of theſe iſles, accounting them the beſt of any in India, which we thought would not be unacceptable to our readers, if we gave it a place here. The doctor acknowledges that here are plenty of the common ſort of cocoas, though in nothing different from thoſe growing in their neighbouring countries; but that ſpecies to which the preference is to be given, and whoſe product theſe iſles are ſo celebrated for, does not yield the edible nut, but one only uſeful in medicine, being eſteemed by the Indians very good againſt poiſons, cholics, fevers, and affections of the nerves, for which they come to ſeek, and purchaſe it at a very conſiderable price.

MALIMBO. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

MALLOW, in botany, a plant too well known to need a deſcription. It is one of the *monadelphia polyandria* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ ſemine nudo polyſpermæ* of Ray. There are a great many ſpecies of it; but the only one in uſe, in our ſhops, is the common wild kind. Some, for its numerous virtues, have called it *omnimorbia*, a remedy for all diſeaſes.

Mallow-leaves, were for many ages eaten boiled in the manner of ſpinage; but we have at preſent ſo many better taſted plants for the ſervice of the table, that this is wholly left to the ſhops. The freſh roots are uſed as a diuretic and emollient, and the dried leaves as an ingredient in clyſters and emollient fomentations and cataplaſms. The aneients gave the juice of the mallow in large doſes in imflammations and obſtructions of the viſcera. A ſtrong deeoction of mallow-root is apt to be too mucilaginous, and to ſit ill upon the ſtomach; but a light infuſion, in the manner of tea, agrees very well, and has very good effects in many caſes.

It is a good common drink in pleureſies, peripneumonies, and peculiarly in caſes of gravel, or inflammation of the kidneys, and in ſtranguries and ſuppreſſions of urine of all kinds. A conſerve made of the flowers will have the ſame effect, if plenty of warm and weak liquors be drank after it; but the infuſion of the root is pleaſant, and anſwers the purpoſe better than any other form.

MARSH-MALLOWS. *See* ALTHEA.

MALT, is barley prepared to fit it for making a potable liquor, called beer or ale. *See* MALTSTER.

*Malt*, ſent from Huntingtonſhire, &c. to London, ſhall be well cleaned. 17 *R.* II. *c.* 4.

The quantity to be made in a year by any brewer in Kent, limited, 33 *H.* VI. *c.* 4.

Directions for the true making of malt, 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 10.

Bailiffs and conſtables may view malt, 2 and 3 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 4.

Making of malt reſtrained, 39 *Eliz. c.* 16, repealed, 9 and 10 *Wil.* III. *c.* 22.

The malt-tax impoſed, 13 *Wil.* III. *c.* 5. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 1. *c.* 2. continued annually.

Meaſure to be according to Wincheſter buſhel, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 7.

Drawback on exportation, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 23.

Deduction in rent payable in malt, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 25. 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 19.

Importation of malt prohibited, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 26.

Penalty on mixing other corn with malt, 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 18.

Malt not to be wet on the floor, nor aereſpired, 6 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 21. *ſ.* 1 and 2. repealed, 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 13.

Not to be mixed with unmalted corn for exportation, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 4.

Twenty-four hours notice to be given of ſhipping malt, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 6.

Penalty on forcing malt in the cuſtoms, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 8.

Juſtices of quarter-ſeſſions to amend orders appealed from, relating to the duties on malt and leather, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 10.

Allowance to proprietors of malt damaged in barges, &c. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 35.

Malt for exportation not to be charged. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 48.

Allowance on exported malt. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 59. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 14.

Penalty on mixing malt of different wettings. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 11.

Perpetual duties on malt, &c. 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

Regulations for ſecuring the payment of malt duties, and to prevent mixtures. 3 *Geo.* III. *c.* 13. *See* ALE, BEER, BOUNTY.

MALTA. This iſland, ſituated in the Mediterranean Sea, between Tripoly (of Barbary) and Sicily, is leſs known for its trade, than for being the habitation of the military order of St. John of Jeruſalem, who have poſſeſſed it ever ſince 1530. The commerce of it is, however, pretty conſiderable, not by what it produces, as it is hardly better than a rock, and conſequently cannot furniſh the inhabitants with the neceſſaries of life, much leſs for the ſupport of a traffic with foreigners, by way of barter or exchange; but this is done by the importation of many Engliſh, Dutch, and Italian ſhips, who carry here all ſorts of goods for the Malteſe uſe, or are freighted by their merchants to load corn, &c. in Italy. The iſland, however, produces cotton in plenty (of which the natives make the fineſt ſtockings and women's gloves that can be any where met with) wax, and honey, the laſt being of a ſuperior quality to what comes from other parts, is greatly eſteemed, and was the motive for giving the iſland its Latin name of Melita.

MALTHA, in antiquity, a kind of cement; of which there were two ſorts, native and factitious; one of the latter ſort, much in uſe, conſiſted of pitch, wax, plaiſter, and greaſe. Another kind, uſed by the Romans in their aqueducts, was made of lime ſlaked in wine, incorporated with melted pitch and freſh figs.

*Natural maltha* is a kind of bitumen, wherewith the Aſiatics plaiſter their walls. When this is once ſet on fire, water makes it burn more fiercely.

MALTSTER. Malt is chiefly made of barley, and ſometimes of wheat and other grain; which is done in the following manner: the maltſter ſteeps the grain in a eiſtern full of water, where it lies till the grain is ſoft; then it is taken out, and laid on a heap till it begins to vegetate and ſhoot forth a ſpire; the heap is then ſpread every day larger, till

till it has covered the malt floor, and is kept turning every five or ſix hours till the grain is perfectly dry; when it is ſpread over the kiln, that is, in a room, with a kind of open floor compoſed of wooden bars, covered with a cloth, with a large ſpreading fire of cinders in the room underneath, kept conſtantly burning with a moderate equal heat, till the corn is fit for the market; and is either leſs dried for making pale ale, or higher dried for porter. It requires great care and judgment to make the malt properly; and is attended with reaſonable profit: but little malt is made in London in proportion to the conſumption; for moſt of it is made in the country, ſhipped for London, and ſold at Bear-Key. This buſineſs requires from five hundred to a thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

MAMOUDI, a ſilver coin current in Perſia, and many parts of the Eaſt-Indies; the Perſian mamoudi is in ſize and ſhape like the French five ſol piece, and is worth two chayes or ſchacs; two mamoudis make an abaſſi, and a hundred a toman, which is the largeſt account money in Perſia. The Indian mamoudis, called alſo mamedis, has no certain value. In the province or kingdom of Guzurate, the mamoudi is worth twelve French ſols, ſo that five of them make a crown Tournois, and the ſmall mamoudis bear a proportionable value, that is, ſix ſols at Guzurate, and more or leſs at Bengal and other places, according to their riſe and fall.

MAN, MAUN, MAUD, MAM, MAO, *or* MEIN, weights uſed in the Eaſt-Indies, eſpecially in the dominions of the Grand Mogul, and its ſeveral names undoubtedly proceed from the different pronunciation of the many various nations that trade draws here, both Aſiatics and Europeans: there are two ſorts of mauns, the one called the king's maun or weight, and the other only a maun. The king's maun ſerves for weighing neceſſaries, and things for carriage, and is compoſed of forty ſerres, and each ſerre exactly a Paris pound; ſo that forty Pariſian pounds are equal to one king's maun. Though the Sieur Tavernier, in his Obſervations on the Eaſt-India Trade, ſeems to diſſent from this calculation, and ſays that the maun of Surate comes out to only about thirty-four pounds of Paris, being compoſed of forty, and ſometimes forty-one ſerres; but that the ſerre is near one-ſeventh lighter than the aforeſaid pound. He likewiſe ſpeaks of a maun uſed at Agra, the Great Mogul's capital, which is half as heavy again as that of Surate, and which on the footing of ſixty ſerres, whereof it is compoſed, makes fifty-one to fifty-two Paris pounds. The ſecond ſort of maun is that uſed in trade, compoſed alſo of forty ſerres, but each of theſe ſerres is reckoned only twelve ounces, or one-fourth of a Paris pound. In the Eaſt-Indies there is yet a third diſtinction of the maun, in common uſe at Goa, conſiſting here of twenty-four rotolies, each one pound and a half Venetian, or thirteen ounces one gros of Paris (the Venetian pound being only eight ounces ſix gros of Paris) ſo that the Goa maun weighs thirty-ſix pounds of Venice, and nineteen pounds eleven ounces of Paris. In fine, the maun is a weight that alters according to the places or the ſorts of goods it is uſed in. At Surate (another author ſays) it makes forty-two ceirs, or ſerres, but is either greater or leſs, according to the commodities weighed with it. It is of thirty-four pounds in the ſales of cotton, gum, lacque, benzoin, vermillion, quick-ſilver, copper, pewter, ſandal-wood, areca, ivory, or elephants teeth, Spaniſh wax, &c. which is alſo agreeable to what Mr. Tavernier ſays. It is thirty-five pounds five-eighths for weighing indigo at Surate, and but thirty-four pounds and a half at Amadabad. It is thirty-ſix pounds one-fourth on the ſales of camphire, ſpice, tea, dry pulſe, or wheat, Siampan-wood, &c. but at Amadabad the maun, in regard of theſe goods, is thirty-eight pounds and a half. It is thirty-eight pounds for cachou, and forty pounds for aſſa fœtida. At Bengal the maun is forty ceires, and weighs ſixty-four pounds for ſpice, and ſixty-eight for pewter, copper, quick-ſilver, lead, and moſt ſorts of drugs; and ſixty-four pounds eight-ninths for ſilk. On the coaſt of Coromandel the maun is ſixty-eight pounds, as at Bengal, on moſt goods; it likewiſe weighs forty ceirs, and the ceir one pound one-tenth. Maun, or more commonly batman, is a Perſian weight. *See* BATMAN.

*Maun* is yet a weight of Bandaar-Gameron, in the Perſian Gulph, of ſix pounds; the other weights are, the maun-che, weighing twelve pounds, and the maun Surate, weighing thirty pounds. The maun at Mocha weighs a little leſs than three pounds, and ten of them make one traſſel, fifteen traſſels one bahart, and the bahart is four hundred and twenty pounds.

MAN, [*the Iſle of Man*,] lies between Britain and Ireland. It is, from north to ſouth, twenty-eight miles long, nine broad, and contains one hundred and ſixty ſquare miles. The ſoil is very fruitful, and produces ſuch ſtore of barley, wheat, rye, and oats, as does not only furniſh the neceſſary uſes of the iſland, but likewiſe gives leave for the exportation of great quantities. According to the diſtinction of north and ſouth it is different; in the firſt it is healthy and gravelly, and in the other they have good meadow and paſture ground; and the air, in general, is eſteemed extremely wholeſome.

A ridge of mountains runs almoſt the length of the iſland, which ſupply the inhabitants with exceeding good water, and excellent peat for fuel.

The black cattle are generally leſs than thoſe of England; the gentlemen have good draught and ſaddle horſes: there is a very ſmall ſort bred in the mountains, about three feet three inches high.

They have no coal-mines yet diſcovered, but good quarries of a black marble, and other ſtones for building. They have mines of lead, copper, and iron, which have formerly been worked to good advantage.

This iſland was given by Henry IV. *anno* 1405, to John, lord Stanley; and in this honourable houſe it has ever ſince continued, except for twelve years during the civil wars, when it was granted to the lord Fairfax, but returned to its ancient lords at the Reſtoration.

Upon the death of the late lord Derby without iſſue male, it devolved to the heirs female; and the preſent lord of Man and the iſles is the duke of Athol. They have moſt of the prerogatives of kings. The number of inhabitants are about twenty thouſand. This iſle was lately purchaſed by the crown of Great-Britain.

The principal towns are only four, which are all ſituate near the ſea; each of them has its harbour, or a caſtle or fort to defend it.

*Caſtle-Town*, to the ſouth, about two hundred and ten miles from London, longitude four degrees thirty-ſeven minutes, latitude fifty-three degrees fifty-ſix minutes. Here the governor and moſt of the lord's officers reſide; and here the courts of juſtice are held.

*Peel*, or *Holm-Town*, to the weſt. Within theſe few years ſeveral merchants have ſettled here, and built good houſes and noble vaults, &c.

*Douglas-Town* is much the richeſt, has the beſt market, and is the moſt populous of any in the whole iſland. As it has of late increaſed in trade, it has done ſo in buildings. The harbour, for ſhips of tolerable burden, is the ſafeſt in the iſland; and, within theſe few years, they have built a fine mole into the ſea, which, when perfected, will be one of the beſt harbours in any part of the three kingdoms, and will be of great ſervice for ſhips to find ſhelter in diſtreſs.

*Ramſea*, to the north, is the moſt noted for a ſpacious bay, in which the greateſt fleet may ride at anchor, with ſafety enough in all winds, but the north-eaſt; and, in that caſe, they need not be embayed. They have lately made a good harbour, that will bring more trade to the town, which formerly ſubſiſted on fiſhing.

The trade of this iſland was very much improved before the year 1726, when foreign merchants found it their intereſt to touch here, and leave part of their cargoes, either to bring the remainder under the cuſtom of butlerage, or becauſe the duties of the whole would be too great a ſum to be paid at once in England; or, laſtly, to lie here for a market, the duties and cellerage being ſo ſmall. But, the late lord Derby having farmed out his cuſtoms to foreigners, the farmers inſolence and impudence drew on the juſt reſentment of the government of England, who paſſed an act, *anno* 1726, by which the people of the iſland were cut off from the liberties and privileges of a fair trade with England.

They improve their lands either by lime, by ſea-wreck, or by folding their ſheep and cattle in the night, and during the heat of the day, in little incloſures, which are removed from place to place every year; and the lands are ſoon ſo enriched by the urine and dung of the cattle, that they yield

plentiful crops of corn; but oat-cakes are the common bread of the country.

The commodities of this iſland, beſides their black cattle (of which ſix hundred may, by the act of navigation, be imported yearly into England) are lamb's wool, fine and coarſe linen, and coarſe woollen cloth, hides, ſkins, honey, and tallow; but its great and ſtaple commodity heretofore was herrings, of which near twenty thouſand barrels have been exported in one year.

The herring-fiſhing ſeaſon is between July and All-hallows-tide. The fleet of boats, (which are about two tons burden) is under the government of the water-bailiff on ſhore, and under one called a vice-admiral at ſea, who, by the ſignal of a flag, directs them when to ſhoot their nets, &c.

There is due to the lord of the iſle, as a royalty, ten ſhillings out of every boat that takes above ten meaſe (every meaſe being five hundred herrings) and one ſhilling to the water-bailiff.

Here are mills both for corn and fulling of cloth, which are worked in the ſummer time, when there is greateſt plenty of water, many of the rivulets not having ſufficient to drive a mill the greateſt part of the year; which has put them upon inventing a ſort of mill, ſo cheap that it is no great loſs, though it ſhould ſtand ſtill for ſix months in the year.

Notwithſtanding the ſtrictneſs of the laws againſt offences committed in the iſland, it is a place of refuge for crimes that are committed out of it. This iſland is alſo a ſanctuary for goods, there being no cuſtom paid, nor officers to receive it; ſo that wine and brandy from France, rum from the Weſt-Indies, and callicoes and other Eaſt-Indian goods from Holland, are often put aſhore here into warehouſes, and afterwards run, in ſmall boats, into Ireland, Scotland, and the Weſt of England.

Since the inhabitants, who where formerly chiefly employed in huſbandry, have turned their heads to this more gainful trade of ſmuggling, they have much more ſhipping than they had, and dwell more upon the ſea-coaſt than they uſed to do, where, as may be judged of the increaſe of their port-towns, new buildings, and gay appearance, &c. they grow rich. This coaſt, except the harbour abovementioned, is rocky and dangerous, and not practicable without good pilots.

French wines, not exceeding one hundred tons in one years, may be imported by ſtrangers, 5 *Eliz. c.* 5. *f.* 40.

Liberty given to import cattle and corn into England, 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *f.* 21.

No drawback to be allowed for foreign goods exported to the Iſle of Man, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *f.* 21.

No goods but of the product of the iſland to be imported from Man, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *f.* 22.

The treaſury may purchaſe the Iſle of Man, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *f.* 25.

For carrying into execution a contract made purſuant to 12 *Geo.* I. between the commiſſioners of the treaſury and the duke and dutcheſs of Athol, proprietors of the Iſle of Man, and their truſtees for the purchaſe of the ſaid iſland, 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 26.

MANDAHL, in Norway, a little place lying two miles on the eaſt ſide of the Naze, yields ſome ſhort timber, and a few low priced deals.

MANDRAKE, *mandragora*, *mandragoras*, in botany, one of the principal ingredients in the *unguentum populeum*.

*Mandrake* is one of the *pentandria monygynia* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ bacciferæ* of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed by all the botanical writers under the name of mandragora, with the diſtinction into male and female.

The male mandrake has a very large, long, and thick root; it is largeſt at the top of the head, and from thence gradually grows ſmaller, as it deſcends towards the other end: ſometimes it is ſingle and undivided at the bottom, but more frequently it is divided into two, ſometimes into three or more parts. When only parted into two, it is pretended that it reſembles the body and thighs of a man; but this is mere whim, it no more reſembling the human form in reality than any other of the long roots does, when thus divided. It is of a pale greyiſh brown colour on the outſide, and white within: from this root there ariſe a number of very long leaves, broadeſt in the middle, narrower towards the baſe. It is reckoned cooling in external applications, and therefore commended in inflammations of the eyes, or any eryſipelas; but it is rarely uſed, except as an ingredient in the *unguentum populneum*.

MANDREL, a kind of wooden pulley, that makes one part of the turner's lathe. Of this there are ſeveral kinds, as the flat mandrel for turning flat boards on; pin mandrel, that has a long wooden ſhank to fit into a round hole made in the work to be turned; hollow mandrel, for turning hollow work; and a ſcrew mandrel, for turning ſcrews, &c.

MANGALIS, a ſmall Eaſt-India weight, of near five grains, only ſerving to weigh diamonds, emeralds, and other precious ſtones, being weighed by catis of three grains each.

MANGALOR, which is eighteen leagues from Billipatan, and Bacanor, nine leagues from hence, are the two principal places of Canara on the Malabar coaſt, as well for trade as the goodneſs of their ports. Pepper, and black and white rice, are the chief merchandizes exported from theſe two cities, the trade of this laſt commodity being ſo great at Mangalor, as to load fifty or ſixty veſſels with it yearly.

MANGELIN, is a ſmall diamond weight at the mines of Raolconda and Pani, otherwiſe Coulers. The mangelin of theſe two mines weighs one carat and three-fourths, that is ſeven grains; there are alſo in the kingdoms of Golconda and Viſepour, mangelins that weigh one carat and three-eights. The mangelins of Goa, in uſe among the Portugueſe, only weigh five grains; and though they are commonly called mangelins, theſe two are different weights, as this account of them plainly demonſtrates.

MANGOURS, a ſmall coin current in Egypt, whoſe true name is *Forle*, which ſee.

MANILLAS. Theſe iſles, called alſo Philippines, were diſcovered by the famous Magellan in 1520, though not ſettled till 1564, under the reign of the Spaniſh monarch Philip II. from whom they received their new name. They lie in the Indian Sea, between China and the Moluccas, at about an hundred leagues diſtant from the coaſts of Camboya, and Champaa, and two hundred from the Mariannes Iſlands; they compoſing one of the five Archipelagos in the Oriental Ocean, and by ſome are numbered eleven hundred, though others count them as many thouſands, which is undoubtedly an exaggeration, greatly exceeding the truth.

The iſland Manilla, ſo called from its capital, is the moſt conſiderable of all thoſe poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, and the centre of their trade, which they extend on one ſide as far as China, and on the other to the American coaſts, or the South Sea. This iſle, though ſeated under the torrid zone, (as well as the reſt of the Philippines) enjoys a healthful temperate air, notwithſtanding its firſt bad reputation. It is the northernmoſt of all theſe iſles, and is not leſs than four hundred leagues in circumference.

Mindanao, which on the contrary is the ſouthernmoſt iſle, hardly yields in grandeur to the foregoing; but the inhabitants in ſome ſort carry on a diſtinct commerce, either with the Spaniards (when not at war with them) to China, Borneo, or the other iſles of Sonda, where they carry ſeveral of their products, and return with the commodities they want. They had alſo a ſettled trade with the Moluccas, before the Portugueſe and Dutch became maſters of them. The merchandize which theſe people carry to all the ſaid places, are gold, (which they gather in their mountains and rivers, particularly in that of Batuan) wax, rice, ſago, ſtuffs (made of a tree's bark) cocoanuts, ſeſame, oil, iron, ſteel, and baſtard ſaffron. The Spaniards alſo extract from hence timber for building their galleons, which are larger than thoſe of the European conſtruction; and this iſle alſo affords many thouſand ſkins (eſpecially of ſtags and buffalos) which are proper for the Japan trade; and we might reckon among the commodities of its growth, nutmegs, cloves, betel, cacao, and pepper; but the natives omit the cultivation of more than they want of the two firſt, for fear that if they increaſe their plantations, it might invite the Dutch among them, and put them on endeavouring to become maſters of that buſineſs here, as they had done at the Moluccas and Banda.

Almoſt all the trade the Spaniards tranſact, is managed (as before obſerved) in the city of Manilla: this capital, the reſidence of the archbiſhop and the viceroy, is ſituated in fourteen degrees fifteen minutes of latitude, in the moſt ſouthern part of the iſle; its harbour is very good, ſpacious,

and ſecure; and it is here where the two gallcons that load at Acapulco in New Spain yearly arrive, and from whence they return with the ſucceeding Mouſſon to the ſaid place of their departure. It is alſo here, that the Chineſe and Japanefe veſſels are continually arriving, with a great part of the immenſe riches thoſe two empires are poſſeſſed of, to truck them againſt thoſe of the new world, of which this city is a ſort of depoſitory for the eaſt. The time of theſe people's negociations is commonly from December to April, during which term, thirty or forty of their largeſt veſſels are always ſeen in the road, and in the remaining part of the year, four or five hundred of all ſizes, which belong to the Spaniards, and the Chineſe ſettled in the iſles, with others trading to this Archipelago. The Portugueſe alſo carry on a good trade here, and it is in this only that they make any conſiderable gains, ſince they loſt that of Japan; though of all the nations who traffic here, the Chineſe are thoſe who carry on the greateſt commerce, and the number of them reſiding here may amount to at leaſt two thouſand. The goods which they, and other ſtrangers bring here, are ſilk and cotton ſtuffs of all colours, raw and ſpun ſilk, cotton wool and thread, gunpnwder, brimſtone, iron, ſteel, quickſilver, copper, wheat flour, walnuts, cheſnuts, biſcuit, dates, porcelane, cabinets, eſcrutores, lacqucred trunks, rice, all ſorts of drugs, ſaltpetre, cotton cloth white and coloured, ribbon head dreſſes for the women's veils after their faſhion, pewter and other houſhold furniture made of it, ſilk fringes, and thread ones of various ſorts; in fine, diverſe merceries and hardware, of China, and Europe, and ſeveral ſorts of glaſs beads, which are proper for the Iſle of Mindanao.

The exports from the Philippines, conſiſt in the products of the country, and thoſe brought there from America; the firſt are gold from Mindanao, wax, honey, tobacco, and ſugar, tranſplanted from the Weſt-Indies, and which flouriſhes here perfectly well, ſtags and other animals ſkins, both wild and tame, timber as well for houſe as ſhip building, plantain cloth and thread, ſeveral oils, civet, and the animals that produce it, palm, wine, baſtard ſaffron, cocoa nuts, and all the commodities which that wonderful tree produces; and in fine, ſago, which ſerves the natives in the ſame manner that it does the Moluccans. The merchandize from America, are the products and manufactures of Peru and Chili, and of all the Spaniſh coaſts in the South Seas, brought to Manilla, by the annual galleon from Acapulco, but principally in gold and ſilver, which the mines of Potoſi and Chili furniſh the eaſt with in abundance, notwithſtanding the vaſt quantity, that the flota and galleons yearly tranſport to the weſt.

Manilla was taken in the late war by our forces in the eaſt, and ranſomed; but the ranſom-money, tho' promiſed by the Spaniards, is not yet paid.

MANILLE, in commerce, a large braſs ring, like a bracelet, either flat or round, &c. which the Europeans carry to the coaſt of Africa to traffic with the negroes in exchange for ſlaves. With theſe the natives deck themſelves, putting them on the ſmall of the leg, or thick of the arm above the elbow. The better ſort wear gold and ſilver manilles, of their own manufacture.

MANKISELAK, is a ſmall town in the country of Charaſm, on the borders of the Caſpian Sea, to the northward of the mouth of the ſouthern arm of the Amu, and in itſelf is but trifling, as it does not contain at utmoſt above ſeven hundred miſerable cots; but its port is excellent, and the only one on this ſea; it is ſpacious, ſecure, deep, and if it was in other hands, would make trade ſoon flouriſh.

MANNA. There are ſeveral ſorts of manna in the ſhops: the larger pieces called flake manna are uſually preferred; but the ſmaller tears or grains are equally as good, provided they are white, or of a pale yellow colour, very light, of a ſweet but not unpleaſant taſte, and free from dirt and other viſible impurities. Manna, while freſh, is ſomewhat tranſparent, and, upon breaking, is found to contain a kind of ſyrupy juice. Some people injudiciouſly prefer the fat, honey-like manna to the foregoing. This latter has either been expoſed to a moiſt air, or been damaged by ſea or other water. Some of this kind of manna is ſaid to be a compoſition of ſugar and honey, mixed with a little ſcammony: this ſort ſometimes purges more violently than the other. There is another ſort of factitious manna, which is white and dry, and is ſaid to be compoſed of ſugar, manna, and probably ſome purgative ingredient, boiled to a proper conſiſtence: this may be diſtinguiſhed from the genuine manna by its weight, ſolidity, tranſparent whiteneſs, and by its taſte, which is different from that of manna.

The ancients were well acquainted with manna: Dioſcorides tells us that it purges crude humours off by ſtool, and Galen ſeems not to have been ignorant of its cathartic quality. The Arabians and the modern Greeks were all acquainted with its virtues, and all celebrate it with great encomiums as a gentle and mild cathartic. It is at preſent in great eſteem in the ſame intention: it is the mildeſt of all purges, and the ſafeſt; it may be given to children, to women with child, and to people of the moſt tender conſtitutions, with perfect ſafety; and it never fails gently to move the bowels, and carries off the thick viſcid foulneſs from them. Its doſe is from two drachms to an ounce, and it is moſt conveniently given in ſolution: when required to work more briſkly than it naturally would, it may be quickened with an addition of Glauber's ſalt.

MANSIA, a weight uſed in ſome places of Perſia, particularly in the Schirvan, and in the neighbourhood of Tauris: it weighs twelve pounds, or a little leſs.

MAN-SURATS, this word conſtrued is, Suratte weights of forty ceirs. *See* MAUN.

MANUFACTURE, a place where ſeveral artificers are employed in making a commodity of the ſame kind.

It alſo denotes the work itſelf, and the various branches thereof in a country. "By exporting, ſays Mr. Hanway, to the Levant to the amount of 180,000l. for the moſt part in our wrought wool, the ſource from whence our riches are chiefly derived, we could have return in unwrought commodities annually to the value of 236,470l. how many thouſands of the induſtrious and moſt deſerving part of this nation would not ſuch a trade employ in a ſeries of years; and what an accumulation of wealth would it not produce! This conſideration ſhould awaken all our care, to adapt our cloth to the taſte of the Turks, and indeed of every nation; and to be aſſiduous not only to preſerve the trade we already poſſeſs, but alſo to extend it at the ſame time as we guard againſt the conſequences of the induſtry and application of thoſe who are already come in for a large ſhare of the commerce.

"Can there be a greater proof of the rapidity with which a manufacture makes its progreſs, when encouraged by a powerful prince, than is met with in France? In the year 1700 there were only three thouſand pieces of cloths made in Languedoc; but in 1740, the ſame province manufactured eighty thouſand pieces. It is very clear from the great progreſs of the French, that although Great Britain abounds moſt in materials, ſkill and induſtry can bring other nations to rival, and, in ſome inſtances, even to excel us at ſome markets.

"It is true, that the long and beſt ſort of wool was for ſome time full a guinea *per* tod of twenty-nine pounds, which is above twenty *per cent.* more than the common price. The demand for our woollen manufactures both for Aſia and America, as well as in the ſeveral markets of Europe, has been alſo very great of late years, and probably will in ſome meaſure continue the ſame: however, every flow muſt naturally have its ebb, as the ſame experience evinces, we ought not by any means to think we are in no danger, whilſt our obſervation proves what other nations are able to perform. If our ſucceſs argues the great importance of preſerving our manufactures, it is deeply incumbent upon us to keep the manufactures to a juſt ſtandard. In this the intereſt of gentlemen who have large paſture lands is intimately concerned, as well as that of the trader, and indeed of the whole nation: we ought therefore to be watchful, not only to afford theſe manufactures on eaſy terms, but to improve and adapt them to every taſte; and upon this point, next to the materials, the conteſt will chiefly reſt. The peculiar advantages which ſome nations enjoy, can hardly be forfeited without their own faults: we have ſeen the complaint of the Levant traders, with regard to their cloth: the ſame complaints would have exiſted in the Caſpian trade, had it continued; and it cannot be entirely from the connexion there is between the French and the Polanders, that the latter take of us only coarſe cloths; France and Aix-la-chapelle annually furniſh them with 100,000l. value in cloth, which is inferior to ours in ſubſtance and duration, but its ſoftneſs, colour, and lightneſs, give it a preference in



their

their eſteem. We are every day making new fabrics, and ſhew great art and fertility of invention in articles of leſs moment. No nation can make ſuch excellent cloth as this; why do we not employ our ſkill and induſtry to accommodate every taſte, and to come in for a ſhare at every market, whilſt our natural advantages ſecure ſome to us entirely, is what I do not comprehend, unleſs we are glutted with riches?

"The complaints already mentioned prove how inconſiderate our clothiers are, who from a preſumption of being ſure of a demand, regard only the preſent moment; and we generally find the quality of goods is inferior, in proportion as the demand is large: the conſequence is, that when the demand ſlackens, the manufacturer cannot be eaſily brought back to his proper ſtandard of work. Another matter of complaint is, that the exceſſes to which our common people are addicted, have increaſed the price of their labour beyond the due proportion of the value of proviſions, ſo that the clothier is tempted to increaſe his quantity rather than improve the quality of his goods. Theſe evils, though difficult to cure, are certainly not irremediable; but the attention of the merchant, in conjunction with the legiſlature, may, in a great meaſure, prevent the pernicious conſequences.

"As the world grows more enlightened, every country will make efforts to be independent: the conſequence muſt be, that the nation whoſe luxury at home raiſes the value of all its productions moſt, will have the leaſt foreign trade; and if at the ſame time it makes a great conſumption of foreign productions, it will certainly decline into poverty. If we learned the art of parſimony in any tolerable degree, we ſhould fight our neighbours with a two-edged ſword.

"It may be juſtly conſidered as one argument of the great opulency of this nation, that many artificers, mechanics, and even perſons of laborious profeſſions, have by their induſtry acquired great fortunes, and live in ſplendour; this is hardly to be found in any other nation. France, which is our great competitor, can hardly produce an inſtance of a dyer, packer, or other mechanic employed in preparing and finiſhing manufactories, who are arrived to ſuch a condition of life. The luxury in France does not appear to have yet reached to near the height as it is in England, among the middling or laborious orders of the people; and whilſt they can procure the neceſſary parts of labour much cheaper than we do, they muſt conſequently have the advantage over us."

Certain wrought ware prohibited to be imported. 3 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 4. 5 *Eliz. c.* 7. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 167.

Manufactures may be imported from Ireland. 3 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 3.

Maſters of crafts and magiſtrates of cities may ſearch manufactures. 3 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4.

Certain manufactures prohibited to be imported by ſtrangers. 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 12.

Pins permitted to be imported. 27 *Eliz. c.* 11.

Foreign wool-cards to be imported. 39 *Eliz. c.* 14.

Foreign bone-lace, cut-work, embroidery, fringe, band-ſtrings, buttons, and needle-work, prohibited to be imported or ſold. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 9. Repealed from the taking off the prohibition of the woollen manufactures in Flanders. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 11.

Foreign wool-cards, card-wire and iron wire not to be imported. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 19.

All perſons may work in manufactories of hemp or flax, or tapeſtry. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 15.

Againſt frauds in the manufactures of woollen, linen, and iron. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8.

Wages to be paid in money. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6. 10 *Ann. c.* 16. *ſ.* 6. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 6.

Regulations to prevent frauds by manufactures in woollen, linen, or iron. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8.

Penalties on manufacturers in leather embezzling their work. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 4.

Manufacturers in leather ſhall be paid their wages in money. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 6.

Regulations of the manufactures in woollen, linen, iron, leather, &c. and for the payment of their wages. 22 *G.* II. *c.* 27.

Penalty on ſeducing manufacturers out of the kingdom. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13.

Penalty on exporting utenſils of the ſilk and woollen manufactures. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 2.

Officers of cuſtoms ſhall ſeize ſuch utenſils, &c. found on board any ſhip. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4.

Penalty on captains of ſhips permitting prohibited tools to be put on board. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 5.

Penalty of ſigning cockets for exporting tools, &c. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 6.

MANURING of land, the act of meliorating the ſoil by applying ſome matter thereto proper for its fertility.

The moſt ordinary matters are dung, lime, and marle. In ſome parts, ſea-ſhells, as cockles, &c. are uſed as manure, which are found to agree well with boggy, heathy, clayey, wet, or ſtiff land, as they open the clods, and make way for the roots to penetrate, and the moiſture to enter the fibres of the roots.

In the Weſt of England, they manure their land with a brackiſh ſea-ſand, which, Dr. Bury obſerves, quickens dead land.

In ſome parts they burn the ſurface of their heathy ground, which is thought by others to be bad huſbandry.

It is a common obſervation of gardeners and ſkilful huſbandmen, that froſt and ſnow improve land very much.

In ſome parts of the North-riding of Yorkſhire, where the ſoil is ſandy, the people manure it with clay; which manure will laſt forty-five years. The bogs in Ireland are ſaid to be beſt improved by ſandy or other gravelly manures.

MAP, a plain figure repreſenting the ſurface of the earth, or a part thereof, according to the laws of perſpective; diſtinguiſhing the ſituation of cities, mountains, rivers, &c.

Maps are either univerſal, which exhibit the whole ſurface of the earth; or particular, which exhibit ſome particular part thereof: each kind is called geographical, or land-maps, in contradiſtinction to hydrographical, or ſea-maps, repreſenting the ſeas and ſea-coaſts, properly called charts.

As a map is a repreſentation of ſome part of the ſurface of the earth delineated upon a plane, the earth being round, no part of the ſpherical ſurface of it can be accurately exhibited upon a plane, and, therefore, ſome have propoſed the making of globular maps; for this purpoſe, a plate of braſs might be hammered, or, at leſs expence, a piece of paſteboard might be formed into a ſegment of a ſphere, and covered on its convex ſide with a map projected in the ſame way as the papers of the common globes are: a map made in this method would ſhew every thing in the ſame manner as it would be ſeen upon a globe of the ſame diameter with the ſphere upon the ſegment of which it was delineated: and, indeed, maps of this ſort would be in effect ſegments of ſuch a globe, but they are not in common uſe.

The modern general maps are ſuch as give us a view of an intire hemiſphere, or half of the globe; and are projected upon the plane of ſome great circle, which terminates the projected hemiſphire, and divides it from the other half of the globe, as the equator, or the meridian, or horizon of ſome place; from this circle the projection is denominated, and ſaid to be equatorial, meridional, or horizontal.

Particular maps are ſuch as exhibit to us leſs than an hemiſphere. Of this ſort are maps of the great parts into which the earth is divided, as Europe, Aſia, Africa, North America, South America; or maps of particular kingdoms, provinces, countries, or of leſſer diſtricts.

In maps three things are chiefly required; the firſt is the longitude and latitude, performed, by means of the meridians and parallels delineated upon them, in what manner ſoever they be projected: and they do this the more accurately, the greater number they have of meridians and parallels. The ſecond requiſite is to exhibit the ſhape of countries the ſame, and the extent of them in the ſame proportion, as upon the globe: this cannot be done accurately in any general maps, except globular ones; but in particular maps, which take in but a ſmall part of the earth, as a province or county, the defect will not be ſenſible.

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The third is that the bearings and diſtances of places from one another be truly ſhewn: this in globular maps ſhould be done in the ſame manner as upon the globe.

MARACAIBO, is the name of a great lake, at the extremity of the Bay of Venezuela, as alſo of the principal town that the Spaniards have on it; which though but ſmall, is well built in the modern taſte; it has a moſt excellent harbour, and all its merchants are ſo rich, as to build, fit out, and load their own veſſels, for all parts of America, and ſend them even to Spain.

This city has the privilege of a yearly regiſter ſhip to load the products of the country, and bring thoſe from Europe fit for this market. It is alſo the depoſitory for the goods from Merida, and of ſome other places on the frontiers of New Grenada, and Venezuela, eighteen (or as others will have it) forty leagues from Gibraltar, a large town on the lake, where the chief merchants of Maracaibo have their eſtates. It is from Merida, that all the gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones, are brought to Maracaibo; and from Gibraltar, the beſt tobacco, and the moſt excellent cacao, that all the continent of America produces.

The commodities proper for the Bay of Venezuela, and the Lake of Maracaibo, are chiefly linens, ſilks, wines, tools for agriculture, ſome hardware, and ſmall mercery.

MARAVEDI, a little Spaniſh copper coin, worth ſomewhat more than half a farthing Engliſh.

The Spaniards always reckon by this coin, though it be no longer current among them. Sixty-three maravedis are equivalent to a rial of ſilver: ſo that the piaſter, or piece of eight rials, contains five hundred and four; and the piſtole of four pieces of eight, two thouſand and ſixteen. We meet with ſeveral kinds of maravedis, different in value, fineneſs of metal, time, &c.

MARBLE, *marmor*, a kind of precious ſtone, dug out of pits and quarries, and found in large maſſes. It is ſo compact, and withal ſo fine, as to take a beautiful poliſh. It is much uſed in columns, ſtatues, tombs, chimney-pieces, and other houſhold furniture.

There is an infinite variety of marbles, uſually denominated from their colour, age, country, grain, degree of hardneſs, weight, or defects: ſome are intirely white or black, others ſtreaked with ſtains, clouds, waves, veins, &c.

Some under the genus of marble comprehend alſo porphyry, ſerpentine, granite, alabaſter, &c.

*Parian marble*, in antiquity, much celebrated in authors, is of a beautiful white. The greateſt part of the Grecian ſtatues were made of it.

*Artificial* MARBLE. The ſtucco, of which ſtatues, buſts, baſſo relievos, &c. are made, is marble pulverized, mixed in a certain proportion with plaiſter; the whole, well ſifted and worked up with water, is uſed with common plaiſter. There is alſo a kind of artificial marble made of gypſum, and another ſort formed by corroſive tinctures, which penetrating into white marble, to the depth of a line, imitates the various colours of other marbles.

*Poliſhing of* MARBLE. The common way of performing this is as follows: they lay three or four blocks in a row, and with another fixed to a broad beetle and a handle at oblique angles, with ſand and water between, work the upper ſtone backwards and forwards on the lower ones, till the ſtrokes of the ax wear off; after which, they poliſh them with emery and putty.

When the marble is of ſeveral colours, after it has been well rubbed with free-ſtone and then with pumice-ſtone, it is at laſt poliſhed with emery, and with calcined tin, if it be white. In Italy they poliſh with a piece of lead and emery.

There are two defects frequent in marbles, which augment the difficulty of cutting and poliſhing them. The one what they call nails, anſwering to the knots in wood, which are common to all marbles; the other, called emeril, which is a mixture of copper or other metals, forming black ſtains in the marble: and this is peculiar to the white marble.

F. Kircher ſhews the manner of applying colours on marble, ſo as to make them penetrate its whole ſubſtance.

MARBLE-PAPER-MAKER. This art is yet but in its infancy in England, marble-paper having been made in London only a very ſhort time. The different colours mixed with gum-water, or ſize, are poured careſully on a glutinous tranſparent fluid, and by means of a ſtick gently moved on the top, are put into the variegated wavy form deſired; a ſheet of paper is then carefully laid on the ſurface, taken off again, and laid to dry; and this is repeated till all the ſheets are tinctured in the ſame manner as the glutinous fluid in which the colours ſwim. This buſineſs is yet but in few hands; and it is probable they have not taken apprentices: though there is ſufficient room for extending and improving this branch of trade, as moſt of the marble paper uſed here is ſtill imported from Holland.

MARCA, is now thirteen ſhillings and four-pence; but in the reign of Henry I. it was only ſix ſhillings and a penny in weight; for the ſhillings as well as pence were then weighed, or went by weight: and ſome were coined, and ſome only cut in ſmall pieces. Now thoſe that were coined were worth ſomething more than the other. *See* MARK.

MARCASITE, *marcaſita*, a ſort of metallic mineral.

The term marcaſite has been very improperly uſed by ſome for biſmuth, and by others for zink. The more accurate writers, however, always expreſs a ſubſtance different from either of theſe by it, viz. a ſulphureous and metallic mineral in its native ſtate. This ſubſtance, properly and diſtinctly called marcaſite, is very nearly allied to the pyrites in its nature and qualities, though it differs conſiderably from it in its external figure. The marcaſite is a ſolid hard foſſile, of an obſcurely and irregularly foliaceous ſtructure, of a bright glittering appearance, and naturally found, not in looſe modules, as the pyrites, but in continued beds among the veins of ores, or in the fiſſures of ſtone. The variety of forms this mineral puts on, is almoſt endleſs and innumerable: as it is generally found among the ores of metals, it is frequently impregnated with particles of them, and of other foſſile bodies, and thence aſſumes various colours and degrees of hardneſs; there are, however, only three diſtinct ſpecies of it, which are all eaſily diſtinguiſhed by their colour, the one being of a bright gold colour, the other of a bright ſilver colour, and the third of a dead white; and of theſe the ſilvery one ſeems to be that peculiarly meant by the writers of the *Materia Medica* in their deſcriptions, and, therefore, is to be received as the marcaſite of the ſhops. This is a very beautiful foſſile, remarkably heavy, and of a very compact, though irregular ſtructure. It is ſometimes found filling up whole fiſſures in the rocks in mine countries, and forming veins from an inch to a foot, or more, in thickneſs, and running to a great extent; but it is more frequently met with in large irregular fragments among the maſſes of ore in the veins. It is always bright and gloſſy on the ſurface, and when broken, appears yet more ſplendid, and of an irregularly laminated texture; the flaky matter it is compoſed of, is not regularly and evenly diſpoſed, as in moſt other bodies of this ſort of ſtructure, but is oddly contorted and waved, and the ſeveral flakes wrapped round about one another, in ſuch a manner, as to hold very firmly together. In ſome of the maſſes, this is more viſible than in others, and, in ſome, the whole conſtituent matter is ſo intimately blended, that the plates are ſcarce at all diſtinguiſhable, and the whole body of the matter ſeems one ſolid uniform ſubſtance. Its colour is an extremely bright and glittering white, much reſembling that of ſilver, but with a glare that this metal never has, when ever ſo highly poliſhed. Struck againſt a ſteel, it very readily gives fire, and the ſparks burn a long time: it will not ferment with aqua fortis, nor be diſſolved by any known menſtruum. If put into the fire, it emits a pale blue flame, attended with a thick white ſmoke of an inſufferable ſtench of ſulphur, and often with ſomething of the garlick-like ſmell of arſenic along with it; and, in fine, calcines to a fine purple matter, perfectly reſembling colcothar of vitriol. This, as well as the other marcaſites, is frequently found debaſed from its pure ſtate here deſcribed, by an admixture of the ores of metals, as lead and tin; ſometimes cubic, or other regularly figured pyrites are immerſed in it; and ſometimes it is elegantly foliated at the top.

It is very frequent in the mines of Cornwall, where the workmen call it mundic. It is alſo found in Derbyſhire, Yorkſhire, and many other parts of England, but much more frequently in Germany, where they extract ſulphur and vitriol from it. It always contains theſe two ſub-

ſtances; and, beſides theſe, it has uſually a great a quantity of arſenic in it. It has been recommended by ſome, after calcination, as an excellent ſtyptic, and doubtleſs it poſſeſſes the virtues of a colcothar of vitriol; but it is full as judicious to uſe that preparation of the pure ſalt as this, in which, notwithſtanding the arſenic is carried off, there may yet remain particles that are very little agreeable to the purpoſes it is given for.

MARCO, a weight uſed at Goa, of eight ounces Portugueze, that is, a demi rotoli.

MARGARITA, or Pearl Iſland, on the coaſts of South America, at eleven degrees of north latitude, was for a long time famous for the fiſhery of pearls; but has been deſerted ever ſince the middle of the ſeventeenth century, and this buſineſs is transferred to La Rencheria, in the river of La Hacha, where the Spaniards ſend ten or twelve barks yearly from Carthagena, convoyed by a man of war of twenty-four guns, with proper divers for the oyſters.

MARGATE. By 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1, 6, 8. the droits, called poundage and laſtage, and other duties, ſhall be continued, for the maintenance of the pier and harbour of Margate.

It ſhall be lawful for the pier-wardens and collectors, to go on board any veſſel belonging to Margate, making uſe of, or being within the harbour, and to take account what duty is payable for any goods on board; and, in caſe of non-payment, to diſtrain ſuch goods, and alſo the tackle of the veſſel, and, in caſe of neglect of payment by the ſpace of ten days, they may ſell the goods, to ſatisfy as well the duty as their charges, &c. The money ſhall be laid out in repairing the pier and harbour.

MARK, in commerce, a certain character put on various commodities, to ſhew where they were made and by whom; as alſo that they were inſpected by the proper officers, and paid the duty upon them.

MARK, or *numero*, is alſo a particular character, which, when fixed on any commodity, the trader alone recollects the price it coſts him.

MARK, *marc*, denotes a weight, as alſo ſeveral commodities, eſpecially gold and ſilver in France. It is divided into eight ounces, ſixty-four drachms, or one hundred and ninety-two deniers or penny-weights, or one hundred and ſixty eſterlins, or three hundred mailles, or ſix hundred and forty ſarlins, or four thouſand ſix hundred and eight grains.

In Hulland the marc weight is the ſame as in France.

When gold and ſilver are ſold by the marc, it is divided into twenty-four carats, the carat into eight penny-weights, and the penny-weight into twenty-four grains, and the grain into twenty-four primes.

MARK, alſo denotes money of account; and, in ſome countries, a coin. The Engliſh mark is thirteen ſhillings and four-pence; among the Saxons it was equivalent to ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence of our money. It is alſo a money of account in Scotland, and formerly a ſilver coin, being equal to thirteen-pence and one-third Engliſh.

MARK *Lubs*, or *Lubec mark*, a money of account at Hamburgh, equal to a third of the rix-dollar, or to the French livre. It is divided into ſixteen ſols lubs.

MARK *Danſch*, a Daniſh coin, equal to ſixteen ſols lubs, or twenty French ſols.

MARK, is alſo a copper coin in Sweden, equal to two-pence farthing Engliſh; it is divided into eight rouſtiqs, and each rouſtiq into two alleveures. The Swediſh ſilver mark is a money of account, equal to three copper marks.

MARKET, a public place in a city or town where proviſions are ſold.

It alſo denotes a privilege of a place, either by grant or preſcription, to hold a market. *See* FAIRS.

MARINER. Thoſe young gentlemen who are put to ſea with the hopes of their one day commanding ſhips, either in the merchant's or the government's ſervice, ought not only to have a natural inclination to the ſea, and to have a ſtrong healthy conſtitution, but a good deal of ſagacity, native courage, and preſence of mind, and alſo a genius for figures; without which, it is impoſſible for them to learn the theory of navigation, which they ſhould carefully ſtudy at ſchool. They ſhould alſo have an early taſte of letters, eſpecially of the European tongues, which will be uſ great ſervice to them, into what port ſoever they happen to ſteer. They ought to be taught geography and aſtronomy, and be conſtantly kept to drawing, which will enable them to give us the bearing of capes, and the entrance of harbours, with greater exactneſs than is commonly done; and by their means we might be fully ſupplied with draughts of foreign animals and vegetables, views of countries, inhabitants, buildings, and whatever is neceſſary to give a more perfect knowledge of natural hiſtory, and of the hiſtory of the world.

The youth ſhould alſo learn a polite behaviour; which joined to the honeſt ſincerity and ſocial diſpoſition, that is remarkable in the Engliſh ſailors, and the knowledge acquired by viſiting diſtant countries, would render them, wherever they came, the moſt agreeable companions. To all this let us add, that their minds ſhould be ſtrongly impreſſed with a ſenſe of humanity, piety, and virtue; qualifications abſolutely neceſſary in thoſe who will be expoſed to great temptations, and to continual dangers; and in thoſe who expect to command others. The benefits of this part of their education will not be experienced by themſelves alone, but by the whole ſhip's crew, when under their command; by their enemies who fall into their hands; and by the nation in general, to whom they will be an honour. After ſuch an education, a young man may be put apprentice, either to the maſter of a veſſel; or, by intereſt, be made midſhipman of a man of war: in either of which caſes, ſuch a youth may expect to riſe, and to make his fortune.

MARLE, a kind of dry, ſoft, foſſile earth, uſed for manuring land. The principal ſorts of marle are the white and red. Too much of it thrown on the ground is found to burn it. Marle is burnt like other ſtone for making of lime.

MARMALADE, a confection of the pulp of plums, apricots, quinces, &c. boiled with ſugar into a conſiſtence.

MARQUE. In our ancient ſtatutes it ſignifies as much as repriſals, as in *ſtat.* 4 *Hen.* V. *c.* 7. where marque and repriſals are uſed as ſynonyma; and letters of marque are found in the ſame ſignification in the ſame chapter.

The law of marque in what caſes to be uſed, 27 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *cap.* 17. Letters of requeſt and letters of marque ſhall be granted by the chancellor to thoſe that are grieved againſt truce, 4 *Hen.* V. *c.* 7. To be granted for goods taken by the ſubjects of Denmark, 10 *Hen.* VI. *cap.* 3. Goods taken on board enemies ſhips to be lawful prize, though they belong to foreigners in amity, 14 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 7. *See* LETTERS *of marque and repriſal.*

MARQUETRY, inlaid work, compoſed of pieces of hard fine wood of different colours faſtened in thin ſlices on a ground, and ſometimes enriched with tortoiſe-ſhell, ivory, tin, and braſs.

If the marquetry be made of glaſſes of various colours, or of precious ſtones, and the richeſt marbles inſtead of wood, theſe are more properly called *Moſaic work.*

At firſt, works of this kind were only black and white, called *moreſcos*, only repreſenting buildings and perſpectives. But now the art is capable of imitating any thing.

The ground whereon the pieces are to be glued, is ordinarily oak or fir well dried, conſiſting of ſeveral pieces glued together to prevent its warping. The wood to be uſed being reduced into leaves, a line thick, is ſtained with ſome colour, or made black for ſhadow, by putting it in ſand extremely heated over the fire, in lime-water and ſublimate, or oil of ſulphur. Thus coloured, the contours of the pieces are formed. The chief inſtruments are a ſaw and vice. The vice is of wood, one chap of which is fixed, the other is opened and ſhut by the foot, by means of a cord faſtened to a treadle. Three or four leaves are put within the chaps of the vice, after being glued on the outermoſt part of the deſign, whoſe profile they are to follow; then the workman, preſſing the treadle, with his ſaw runs over all the outlines.

When the work is to conſiſt of one ſingle kind of wood, or tortoiſe-ſhell, on a copper, or tin ground, or *vice verſa*, they only form two leaves on one another, that is, a leaf of metal, and a leaf of wood or ſhell. This is ſawing in counter-parts, for filling the vacuities of one of the leaves by the pieces coming out of the other; the metal may ſerve as a ground to the wood, and *vice verſa*. All the pieces thus formed, are vaneered or faſtened on the common ground with the beſt Engliſh glue.

The whole is put in a preſs to dry, poliſhed with the ſkin of the ſea-dog, wax, and ſhave-graſs, as in ſimple vaneering; only that, in marquetry, the more delicate parts are touched up with a graver.

The cabinet-makers, joiners, and toymen, with us, work in marquetry; the enamellers and ſtone-cutters in Moſaic. The inſtruments uſed in the former are moſtly the ſame with thoſe uſed by the eboniſts.

MARRIAGE *Bonds*. Their power in bankruptcies. *See* ARTICLES.

MARRIAGE *Settlements, in regard to the rights which are inveſted in bankrupt's children by virtue of them and truſtees for ſupporting contingent remainders*. If a man, before *marriage* with his wife, makes a ſettlement, or enters into articles with truſtees to make ſuch ſettlement upon his wife, and conveys or agrees to convey, ſuch eſtate to truſtees, to the uſe of himſelf or his aſſigns, for the term of his life, without impeachment of waſte; and after the determination of that eſtate, to the uſe and behoof of A. B. and C. D. and their heirs, during the life of the huſband, upon truſt, to preſerve the contingent uſes and eſtate therein after limited, from being barred, deſtroyed, or prevented; and for that purpoſe to make entries and bring actions as occaſions ſhall require; but, nevertheleſs, to permit and ſuffer the huſband and his aſſigns, during his life, to receive and take the rents, iſſues, and profits of the ſame premiſſes to his and their own uſes; and from and after the deceaſe of the huſband, to the uſe of the wife for life; and afterwards to the uſe of the firſt and other ſons of their bodies, according to priority, and their heirs male; and for default of ſuch iſſue, to the daughters and their heirs equally; with proper proviſions for raiſing portions for daughters and younger children, as is uſual in marriage ſettlements; though the remainder in fee is limited to the bankrupt, for want of iſſue male or female; yet if ſuch perſon becomes a bankrupt, and has a wife and children, or children and no wife, though this is an entailed eſtate, yet it is not ſuch an eſtate as he can lawfully or equitably bar by a fine or common recovery, and conſequently he will be only tenant for life, and his wife will enjoy the jointure, and his children his eſtate after his death; and the creditors cannot defeat ſuch eſtate.

But if he dies without children, and becomes a bankrupt, and there are no remainders over, but the remainder in fee is in him, quere, whether a court of equity would not, after confirming his wife's jointure, direct and enable the truſtees, in conjunction with him, to bar the eſtate tail, for the benefit of his creditors: but there have been inſtances where truſtees have joined with the huſband, and defeated the legal eſtate by a recovery; but acts of this kind have been always looked upon as the higheſt breaches of truſt; and if a purchaſer was to buy the eſtate, or a mortgagee to lend any money upon it, with notice of the truſt, he would be unſafe in ſo doing. And as this is a matter of great conſequence to families, we ſhall, for that reaſon, cite the following caſes.

It was declared by the lord keeper Harcourt, that where there were truſtees appointed by will to preſerve contingent remainders, and they before the birth of a ſon joined in a conveyance to deſtroy the remainders, this was a plain breach of truſt, and any perſon taking under ſuch conveyance, if voluntarily, or having notice, ſhould be liable to the ſame truſts.

And tho' it was objected, that this had been only obiter, ſaid in equity, and that there never was any precedent of a decree in ſuch a caſe:

Lord keeper ſaid, it was ſo very plain and reaſonable, that if there was no precedent in this caſe, he would make one.

But this was the principal caſe, which was, that there was a ſon born before the conveyance by the truſtees, and the eſtate being in mortgage, the ſon came into equity after the tenant for life, to redeem.

Agreeably to what was thus declared by Lord Harcourt, it has been ſince expreſsly decreed by lord chancellor King, aſſiſted by lord Raymond and chief baron Reynolds, in the caſe of *Manſell verſ. Manſell*, December, 1732, (hereafter mentioned) which was the caſe of a voluntary ſettlement, and where the court unanimouſly delivered it as their opinion, that nothing in common juſtice, ſenſe, and reaſon, could be a plainer breach of truſt, than that thoſe who were appointed truſtees, to the intent to preſerve the eſtate to the firſt ſon (and for that purpoſe only) ſhould directly, contrary to their truſt, join in the deſtruction of the ſettlement.

But where there is tenant for life, remainder to the firſt ſon, &c. and no truſtees to preſerve contingent remainders; in ſuch caſe, if tenant for life by fine or feoffment deſtroys the remainders, there being no truſtee, there can be, conſequently, no breach of truſt; and this being the law, Chancery will not interpoſe.

But then, as this was a hardſhip at law, to prevent which the method of appointing truſtees was invented; ſo it is reaſonable that the truſtees, when they let in this hardſhip by violating the truſt repoſed in them, ſhould themſelves be liable for the ſame; but if the conveyance be voluntary, or if there be notice of the truſt, ſuch truſt ſhall follow the land.

One after marriage [*Trin. Term*, 1717. *Baſſett* v. *Clapham*. 1 *Peer Will.* 358.] makes a voluntary ſettlement of his lands to himſelf for life, remainder to truſtees to ſupport contingent remainders, remainder to his firſt, &c. ſon in tail ſucceſſively, remainder to himſelf in fee; and contracting debts, he after makes a conveyance of his eſtate to other truſtees, for payment of theſe debts.

The creditors bring a bill, and (*int' al.*) inſiſt, that the truſtees for preſerving contingent remainders ſhould join in the ſale to deſtroy the contingent remainders: and this came on by conſent before Sir Joſeph Jekyl, who took time to conſider of it, alledging, that though in the caſe of Sir Thomas Tippen, where truſtees had joined in cutting off remainders created by a voluntary ſettlement; the court on a bill brought by a remote relation, had refuſed to puniſh them, as diſtinguiſhing betwixt a voluntary ſettlement, and one made on a valuable conſideration; yet he had not known a precedent where the court ever decreed the truſtees to join in deſtroying the contingent remainders; this being the reverſe of the purpoſe for which they were at firſt inſtituted.

But this cauſe coming on in Auguſt, 1717, and a precedent being ſhewn where ſuch a decree was pronounced, his honour decreed, that the truſtees ſhould join to deſtroy the contingent remainders, and be indemnified, it being at the ſuit of the creditors, and for raiſing of money for payment of debts.

*Note*, Sir Thomas Tippin's caſe was, where, upon a marriage, ſettlement was made by a third perſon to the uſe of the huſband for ninety years, remainder to truſtees, during the life of the huſband, to ſupport contingent remainders; remainder to the wife for life, remainder to the firſt, &c. ſon of the marriage, remainder to the heirs of the body of the huſband, remainder to the right heirs of the huſband: there was no iſſue of the marriage, and the remainder in fee being contingent, in regard the limitation to the huſband was for years only, and the eſtate not moving from the huſband (for if it had, the remainder limited to the right heirs of the huſband, would have been the old reverſion) the truſtees joined to deſtroy this contingent remainder.

And on this caſe being cited, it was ſaid by the maſter of the Rolls, that if a ſon had been afterwards born, it would have been a breach of truſt; but this remainder to the right heirs of the huſband, being a remote limitation, and not within the conſideration of the ſettlement, and voluntary, equity would not puniſh it as a breach of truſt.

This came on, upon an appeal to my lord chancellor King, from the decree of the maſter of the Rolls. *Trin. Term*, 1732.

Edward Vaughan ſeized in fee in 1683, deviſed lands to his ſiſter Dorothy, afterwards the plaintiff's mother, for life, remainder to truſtees to preſerve contingent remainders, remainder to the uſe of her firſt, and other ſons in tail male, remainder to the uſe of his couſin Edward Manſell in fee, and charges the eſtate with a debt of twelve hundred pounds, and dies.

The plaintiff's mother intermarried with Sir Edward Manſell, and in 1685, they, with the remainder-man in fee, join in a feoffment, with a covenant to levy a fine to truſtees to the uſe of the plaintiff's father in fee; and this is expreſſed to be the intent that the fee ſimple might be veſted in him, for the raiſing of money for the payment of the debts of Edward Vaughan the teſtator (whoſe inheri-



tance

tance it was by demiſing, ſelling, or mortgaging the eſtate, or any part thereof, and for other good cauſes and conſiderations; a fine is levied accordingly at the grand ſeſſions in Carmarthenſhire, where the lands lay. About a year after, the truſtees, to preſerve contingent remainders, reciting the will, feoffment, and fine, convey the whole eſtate by leaſe and releaſe to the plaintiff's father in fee, Dorothy being then with child, and then the plaintiff is born; after the father makes the plaintiff tenant for life, &c. and dies.

The plaintiff brought his bill to have the benefit of Mr. Vaughan's will, and inſiſted on the breach of truſt; and that the parties who claim under the fine and feoffment, being parties to the breach of truſt, ought not to take advantage of it.

The defendant, in his anſwer, inſiſted on the fine and feoffment.

The maſter of the Rolls decreed for the plaintiff for ſo much as was not alienated *bona fide*; and this decree was confirmed in Michaelmas vacation, 6 *Geo.* II. by lord chancellor King, aſſiſted by lord chief juſtice Raymond, and lord chief baron Reynolds, as before mentioned.

A man had deviſed lands, which were in mortgage to be ſold, and the ſurplus of the money to be paid to his daughter; the daughter married a man who ſoon became a bankrupt, and the commiſſioners aſſigned his intereſt of the wife's. The huſband died, and the aſſignees brought this bill againſt the wife and truſtees, to have the land ſold, and the ſurplus of the money paid to them. But the court would not aſſiſt in ſtripping the wife (who was wholly unprovided for) of this intereſt, but dimiſſed the bill. *At the Rolls Mich.* 1698. *Parker* a *Dykes.*

MARSEILLES. *See* PROVENCE.

MARTINICO, is the chief of the French Antilles iſlands. Tobacco was formerly the ſtaple commodity here; but the cultivation of that plant has been long neglected for ſugar; and Martinico is ſuppoſed now to yield in a common year, between five and ſix millions of pounds weight. Beſides theſe commodities, it alſo produces indigo, cocoa, rocou, cottons, ginger, caſſia, Guinea-pepper, ſome medicinal gums, hides, tortoiſe-ſhell, dying-woods, &c. The commodities ſent there from France, are every neceſſary for proviſions and clothing, houſhold furniture, and tools for various uſes, eſpecially for agriculture.

Martinico was taken in the late war by the Engliſh; and, not long ſince, has been almoſt totally deſtroyed by an earthquake and hurricane.

MARYLAND. This colony remained a part of Virginia (as ſeveral others did till they were diſmembered,) till 1632, when king Charles I. (in the eighth year of his reign) granted all the country to the north of Potowmack river (not then planted) to Cecilius Calvert, lord Baltimore, and his heirs; which tract was thenceforward called *Maryland*, in honour of the then queen conſort; and in conſequence of this grant, the proprietor ſent over his brother, with about two hundred adventurers, to take poſſeſſion of their limits, and to make a ſettlement; which they firſt did in an Indian town, called afterwards *St. Mary's*, on the river Potowmack, and near the mouth of that they chriſtened *St. George's.*

This ſoon became a flouriſhing colony, though the Baltimore family was deprived of its government during the civil wars; but king Charles II's reſtoration proved that of the proprietor's; as his majeſty on coming to the throne, re-inſtated him in all his privileges.

The province is ſituated between thirty-eight and forty degrees of northern latitude, and between forty-four and forty-eight degrees of weſtern longitude, abounding, as Virginia does, in fine ſprings and rivers; ſo that, like the Virginians, they can bring the ſhips up to their very doors: it is divided into ten counties, though it has very few towns, the ſame humour of living on their own plantations prevailing among the gentry here, as it does in ſome others of theſe North American colonies.

The ſoil and products of this country are ſimilar to thoſe of Virginia, and the natives here imitate the others management, in confining their huſbandry to the cultivation of tobacco only, of which it is ſuppoſed they now produce as much as Virginia does, though the quality to the Engliſh taſte is inferior to the other, it being ſtronger than the ſweet ſcented leaf gathered on the borders of James and York rivers; however, this circumſtance gives it a preference every where in the North, to which part of the world we generally ſend it: the inhabitants may be about thirty thouſand, who are ſupplied with neceſſaries from hence, in the ſame manner Virginia is.

MAS, *or* MACE, a ſort of ſmall weight uſed in China, eſpecially on the ſide of Canton, for weighing ſilver. *See* CONDORIN.

MASCATE, *or* MUSCATE, is a city in Arabia Felix, ſituated to the weſtward of Mogol in the gulph of Perſia, in the latitude of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes north, directly under the tropic of cancer, and is a place of greater trade than any other near the gulph of Ormus. The pearl fiſhery hard by the iſle of Baharem, in the months of June, July, and Auguſt, is alone capable of enriching the city greatly; but beſides this, it has the advantage of being a depoſitory of all the drugs and merchandizes of Arabia, tranſported from hence to Perſia, Egypt, Syria, the Indies, and even to Europe.

MASON. The boy who is deſirous of being a maſon, ought to be of a robuſt conſtitution; for his work requires both ſtrength and ingenuity; he ſhould have a ſolid judgment, and a taſte for architecture. He ſhould ſtudy geometry, which is abſolutely neceſſary, and alſo drawing; in particular, he ought to be expert in drawing buildings, and all the five orders of architecture, according to their ſeveral proportions. He will have frequent uſe for drawing, in taking down in chalk, upon blocks of ſtone, from the architect's plan, the outlines of any figure, moulding, or ſcroll, to be cut upon it. In a word, without drawing, &c. and the knowledge of geometry, he cannot make a ſtone maſon; but is only fit to labour in cutting and ſquaring rag-ſtones. The ſtone-maſon is employed in cutting ſtone for building; and, being acquainted with all the orders of architecture, can cut each diſtinct column or pilaſter, and charge them with their proper capitals and other ornaments. He is not only employed in cutting the ſtones into their proper ſhape and dimenſions, with all the mouldings and cornices, but in laying them, and building the ſtone-work of the whole edifice; and muſt therefore be a judge of all kinds of cements, and of the manner of uſing them. The maſons take from five to twenty pounds with an apprentices; who, when out of his time, may earn half a crown or three ſhillings a day; and it requires from one hundred to five hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

MAST, the fruit of trees called glandiferous, as oak, cheſnut, &c.

MAST, *in navigation*, a long and round piece of wood raiſed in veſſels for the yards and ſails to be faſtened to, in order to receive the wind neceſſary for navigation.

In a large ſhop, there is a main-maſt, fore-maſt, mizen-maſt, boltſprit; and in galleons a counter-mizen.

Main-maſt is the principal, which ſtands upright in the middle of the veſſel; it bears the main-yard and main-ſail: fore-maſt is between the main-maſt and the head; mizen-maſt is between the main-maſt and the ſtern. The boltſprit lies aſlant on the head of the ſhip; the counter-mizen is the ſtern. The main-maſt and fore maſt have two additional pieces placed over one another, called the main-top-maſt, and main-gallant-maſt; the fore-top-maſt, and fore-top-gallant-maſt; the mizen has one, namely, the mizen-top-maſt.

For the proportion of maſts Sir H. Manwaring gives the following rules: multiply four-fifths of the breadth of a ſhip in feet by three; the product is the length of her main-maſt in feet: then, as to its thickneſs, he allows an inch to every yard in length. The fore-maſt muſt be four-fifths of the length of the main-maſt, and of proportionable thickneſs; the boltſprit is always the ſame length and bigneſs with the fore-maſt; and the mizen-maſt muſt be juſt half the length of the main-maſt and half as thick. *See* NAVAL STORES.

MAST-MAKER. The apprentices to this buſineſs ought to be ſtrong and robuſt. They make maſts, bow-ſprits, yards, &c. The maſters take with apprentices from five to ten pounds, who work from day-light till it is almoſt dark in the evening, or from ſix till ſeven; in which time a journeyman can get fifteen or eighteen ſhillings a week; and it will require about three hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

MASTER AND SERVANT. The relationſhip between a maſter and a ſervant, from the ſuperiority and power which it creates on the one hand; and duty, ſubjection, and

and as it were allegiance on the other, is in many inſtances applicable to other relationſhips, which are in a ſuperior and ſubordinate degree; ſuch as lord and bailiff, principal and attorney, owners and maſters of ſhips, merchants and factors, and all others having authority to enforce obedience to their orders, from thoſe whoſe duty it is to obey them, and whoſe acts, being conformable to their duty and office, are eſteemed the acts of their principals.

MASTER OF THE MINT, is now called the warden of the mint, whoſe office is to receive the ſilver of the goldſmiths, and to pay them for it, and to overſee all the reſt belonging to this function.

MASTERS OF SHIPS. *See* SHIPS.

MASTICH, is a dry, brittle, tranſparent, white, or pale yellow coloured reſin, which exudes from a tree of the turpentine kind, growing in ſeveral places in Turkey, and in the iſle of Chio, and is brought to us in tears or ſmall lumps, from Smyrna and Aleppo. Maſtich eaſily ſoftens with heat, or upon being chewed in the mouth, when it grows tough and white like wax. Thrown on coals, it readily flames, and yields a pretty ſtrong, but not diſagreeable ſmell. It diſſolves almoſt entirely in rectified ſpirit of wine: the ſolution is not clear, but has a whitiſh caſt, and taſtes extremely pungent, like the warmer reſins. If a few of the whole tears are gently heated in water, they ſoon emit a ſtrong ſmell, not unlike elemi, at length riſe to the top of the water in diſtinct little round balls, which ſubſide again upon the waters growing cold; the decoction has very little taſte or ſmell.

The people of Chio are ſo fond of maſtich, that they make it an ingredient even in their bread, by way of giving it a better flavour. They have ſome of it alſo continually in their mouths by way of maſtichatory. They ſay it cleans and faſtens the teeth, and gives the breath an agreeable ſmell. In medicine it is detergent, aſtringent, and ſtomachic. It is greatly recommended in inveterate coughs, and againſt ſpitting of blood. It ſtrengthens the ſtomach, aſſiſts digeſtion, and ſtops vomitings. It is alſo uſed externally in plaiſters to the regions of the ſtomach and inteſtines, and is ſaid to ſtop vomitings and purgings by that means. It is an ingredient in many of the old compoſitions.

Jewellers mix maſtich with turpentine and black ivory, and lay it under their diamonds to give them a luſtre.

MASULIPATNAM. *See* COROMANDEL COAST.

MATCH, a kind of rope, made of hempen tow, ſlightly twiſted into three cords, then covered over with tow, and boiled in lees of old wine, for the uſe of artillery, mines, &c. When once lighted at one end, it burns on gradually till the whole is conſumed.

MATHEMATICAL-INSTRUMENT-MAKER. This is a very genteel and a very curious buſineſs, that requires great abilities, and a very liberal education. Thoſe of this trade keep ſhops, and make air-pumps, orreries, globes, ſeals, quadrants, ſectors, ſun-dials of all ſorts, and the whole apparatus of experimental philoſophy. They ought to be acquainted with the theory and principles upon which their ſeveral inſtruments are conſtructed, as well as with the practical uſe of them. They employ ſeveral different hands, who frequently know little of the uſe or deſign of the work; and therefore the maſters ought to be thorough judges of every part. They take from twenty to fifty pounds with an apprentice; moſt of thoſe who work under them, can get fifteen or twenty ſhillings a week and upwards; and it will require five hundred or ſix hundred pounds to ſet up a genteel well furniſhed ſhop.

MATHEMATICS, is that ſcience which conſiders magnitudes either as they are computable or meaſurable. That part which relates to number only, is called arithmetic; and that which relates to meaſure in general, whether length, breadth, depth, motion, force, &c. is called geometry. Dr. Barrow, in his inaugural oration upon his admittance into the profeſſorſhip at Cambridge, elegantly deſcribes the uſes of the mathematics. "The mathematics, ſays he, effectually exerciſes, not vainly deludes, nor vexatiouſly torments ſtudious minds with obſcure ſubtilties, perplexed difficulties, or contentious diſquiſitions: whoſe words are ſo many oracles, and works as many miracles; which blabs out nothing raſhly, nor deſigns any thing from the purpoſe; but plainly demonſtrates, and readily performs all things within its compaſs. Laſtly, ſays he, the mathematics, which depends upon principles clear to the mind, and agreeable to experience; which draws certain concluſions, inſtructs by profitable rules, unfolds pleaſant queſtions, and produces wonderful effects; it is the plentiful fountain of advantage to human affairs. We may be ſaid to receive from mathematics the principal delights of life, that we dwell elegantly and commodiouſly, erect ſtately temples to God, and leave wonderful monuments to poſterity. That we are protected by thoſe ramparts from the incurſions of the enemy, rightly uſe arms, and artfully manage war; that we have ſafe traffic through the deceitful billows, and arrive at the deſigned ports; that we rightly caſt up our accounts, and do buſineſs expeditiouſly; that we examine the momentums of weights in an equal balance; that with a light touch we thruſt bodies forward which way we will, and ſtop a huge reſiſtance with a very ſmall force; that we accurately delineate the face of this earthly orb; that we aptly digeſt the flowing ſeries of time, &c. He concludes, that theſe deſcriptions inure and corroborate the mind to a conſtant diligence in ſtudy; they wholly deliver us from a credulous ſimplicity, moſt ſtrongly fortify us againſt the vanity of ſcepticiſm, effectually reſtrain us from a raſh preſumption, moſt eaſily incline us to a due aſſent, perfectly ſubject us to the government of right reaſon. While the mind is abſtracted and elevated from ſenſible matters, diſtinctly views pure forms, conceives the beauty of ideas, and inveſtigates the harmony of proportions, the manners themſelves are ſenſibly corrected and improved, the affections compoſed and rectified, the fancy calmed and ſettled, and the underſtanding raiſed and excited to more divine contemplations." Mathematics are diſtinguiſhed with regard to their end into ſpeculative, which reſt in the bare contemplation of the properties of things; and into practical, which apply the knowledge of thoſe properties to ſome uſes in life.

It is manifeſt beyond contradiction, that this kind of literature, taken in its comprehenſive latitude, has been, and is ever like to be, while duly cultivated, the grand parent of numberleſs beneficial arts and trades; and, therefore, cannot be too much encouraged in commercial ſtates: yet we are ſorry to obſerve, that theſe ſtudies rather decline than advance among us, for want of their profeſſors being ſuitably cheriſhed and diſtinguiſhed.

The inventors of all arts aiding to the commercial induſtry and proſperity of mankind, have laboured for all ages of the world. We ſtill enjoy the fruits of their application and induſtry. They have provided, at a great diſtance, for all our occaſions: they have procured for us every convenience of life: they have converted all nature to our uſes: they have reduced the moſt indocile matter to our ſervice: they have taught us to extract from the bowels of the earth, and even from the deeps of the ſea, the moſt precious riches; and, what is infinitely more ineſtimable, they have opened to us the treaſures of other ſciences, and have guided us to knowledge the moſt ſublime, the moſt uſeful, and the moſt worthy of our nature. They have put into our hands, and placed before our eyes, whatever is moſt proper to adorn the mind, to direct our manners, and to form good citizens, good magiſtrates, and good princes. Theſe are part of the benefits we have received from thoſe who have invented, and brought arts and ſciences to perfection.

The better to know their value, let us tranſport ourſelves in imagination, back to the infancy of the world, and thoſe groſs ages when man, condemned to eat his bread by the ſweat of his brow, was without aids and inſtruments, and obliged, however, to cultivate the earth, that he might extract nouriſhment from it; to erect himſelf huts and roofs for his ſecurity; to provide cloathing for his defence againſt the froſts and rains; and, in a word, to find out the means to ſatisfy all the neceſſities of life. What labours, what difficulties, what diſquiets? all which are ſpared us.

We do not ſufficiently conſider the obligations we are under to thoſe who are equally induſtrious and laborious men, who made the firſt eſſays in arts, and applied themſelves in thoſe uſeful but elaborate reſearches. That we are commodiouſly houſed, that we are cloathed, that we have cities, walls, habitations, temples, ſhipping, navigation, and commerce; to their induſtry and labour we are indebted for them all. It is by their aid our hands cultivate the fields, build houſes, make ſtuffs and habits, work

in

in braſs and iron; and, to make a tranſition from the uſeful to the agreeable, that we uſe the pencil, handle the chiſſel and graver, and touch inſtruments of muſic. Theſe are ſolid temporal felicities and emoluments, which have always been increaſing from their origin, which extend to all ages and nations, and to all mankind in particular; which will perpetuate themſelves throughout all times, and continue to the end of the world. Have all the conquerors together done any thing that can be imagined parallel with ſuch ſervices? All our admiration, however, turns generally on the ſide of theſe heroes in blood, whilſt we ſcarce take notice of what we owe to the inventors of the mathematic and philoſophic arts, which are the grand ſources of all the ſecurity, joy, and ſplendor of life.

MATRICE, *matrix*, in dying, is applied to the five ſimple colours, black, white, blue, red, and fallow or root-colour.

MATRICES, uſed by letter-founders, thoſe little pieces of copper or braſs, at one end whereof are engraved, *en creux*, the ſeveral characters uſed in printing.

MATRICES, *in coining*, pieces of ſteel, in form of dyes, on which are engraved the ſeveral figures, arms, characters, legends, &c. wherewith the ſpecies are to be ſtamped.

MAURES, a gold coin, current at Surate, and in ſome other parts of the Mogul's dominions.

MAYON, *or* SELING. *See* BAAT.

MAYZ, a kind of Indian corn, much of the ſame temperament with wheat, and of which they make bread.

MEAD, an agreeable liquor prepared of honey and water. The beſt method of preparing it is as follows: into twelve gallons of water put the whites of ſix eggs, mix them well together, and then add twenty pounds of honey. Let the liquor boil an hour, and, when boiled, add cinnamon, ginger, cloves, mace, and a little roſemary. When it is cold, put a ſpoonful of yeaſt thereto, and tun it up, keeping the veſſel full, as it works; when it has done working, ſtop it up cloſe, and, when fine, bottle it off for uſe.

Mead and metheglin, to pay one halfpenny exciſe for every gallon, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 5. And one halfpenny, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 19. And one half-penny, 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 5 *ſ.* 5. And three-pence, 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 3. *ſ.* 2. And three-pence, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 20. *ſ.* 10. And three-pence, 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 15. And one penny, 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 1.

MEAL, may be exported duty free, 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 4. How many ſacks of meal may be carried at one load in London and Weſtminſter, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 6.

MEASURE, *in law*, *commerce*, &c. a certain quantity of any thing bought, ſold, &c. Meaſures then are various, according to the various kinds and dimenſions of the things meaſured. Hence ariſe lineal or longitudinal meaſures for lines or lengths, ſquare for areas, and ſolid or cubic for bodies and their capacities. All which again are very different in different countries and ages, and even many of them for different commodities. Hence alſo ariſe other diviſions of domeſtic and foreign, ancient and modern, dry and liquid, &c.

The Engliſh ſtandard long meaſure, or that whereby the quantities of things are ordinarily eſtimated, is the yard, containing three Engliſh feet, equal to three Paris feet, one inch, and three-twelfths of an inch, or ſeven-ninths of a Paris ell. Its ſub-diviſions are the foot, ſpan, palm, inch, and barley-corn: its multipliers are the pace, fathom, pole, furlong, and mile.

Meaſure of wood for firing, is the cord, being four feet high, as many broad, and eight long; it is divided into two half-cords.

The meaſure for horſes, is the hand, which, by ſtatute, contains four inches.

According to the 25th chapter of *Magna Charta*, and the *ſtat.* 17 *Car.* I. *c.* 19. all weights and meaſures in this kingdom ought to be the ſame, and, according to the king's ſtandard; which ſtandard is called, in our hiſtorians, *menſura regalis*, and was always kept in the king's palace; and all other meaſures were to be made after the ſame manner, and in every city, market-town, and other villages, it was kept in the churches.

There ſhall be one meaſure through the realm. *M. C.* 9 *Hen.* III. *c.* 25. 27 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 10. 13 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 9.

Ordinances for meaſuring land. 33 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 6. *St. Comp. ulnar*, &c. *incerti temp.*

Buſhels, gallons, and ells, ſhall be according to the ſtandard, and ſealed. *Ordin. pro Piſtor. incerti temp. c.* 8 and 9. 25 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 10. 16 *Rich.* II. *c.* 3.

Standards of meaſures ſhall be ſent in braſs to the counties. 14 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 12. 34 *Ed.* III. *c.* 6. 7 *H.* VII. *c.* 4.

Juſtices of peace ſhall enquire of meaſures. 36 *E.* III. *c.* 4.

The meaſures in the county of Lancaſter, larger than in other parts. 13 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 9.

The penalty of buying corn at more than eight buſhels the quarter. 15 *Rich.* II. *c.* 4. 1 *Hen.* V. *c.* 10.

The ſtatute mile. 35 *Eliz. c.* 6.

The meaſure of veſſels of wine, eels, herrings, and ſalmon. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 11.

Of veſſels of wine and oil. 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 13.

The meaſure of cloth ſhall be a yard and inch. 18 *H.* VI. *c.* 16.

The contents of an acre. 24 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4.

Water-meaſure in port-towns may be uſed. 16 *Car.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 7.

The reſpective contents of a barrel of beer and ale. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 20. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 34. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 24. *ſ.* 5.

The buſhel of corn and ſalt aſcertained. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 8. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 12. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *ſ.* 18.

A meaſure of braſs ſhall be chained in every market. 32 *Car.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 5.

Conſtables to ſearch for unſealed meaſures. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 6.

Where there is not a clerk of the market, the mayor, &c. ſhall ſeal meaſures. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 4.

Collectors of the exciſe to provide quarts and pints of braſs for ale in every market-town. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 3.

Contents of Wincheſter meaſure. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 10.

Water-meaſure of fruit aſcertained. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 15.

Wine meaſure. 5 *Ann. c.* 27. *ſ.* 17.

Mr. John Peter Ricard, having furniſhed us in his book, intitled, "Le Negoce d'Amſterdam," and ſeveral other authors in their different works, with a calculation of the agreement, which the ſeveral corn-meaſures of Europe have with thoſe of that city, it was thought very neceſſary to give it a place here; but previous thereto, we ſhall give ſome account of the fractions of the different meaſures mentioned therein, and of thoſe that are not there inſerted.

*The dry meaſures at Amſterdam for corn are,*

The laſt, containing twenty-ſeven muddes, or thirty-ſix ſacks.

The mudde, containing four ſchepels.

The ſack, containing three ſchepels; and retailers ſtill divide

The ſchepel into four vierdevat, and

The vierdevat into eight kops.

The laſt { of wheat commonly weighs from 4600 to 4800 lb. / of rye —— —— 4000 to 4200 lb. / of barley —— —— 3200 to 3400 lb. } mark wt.

The laſt of Monnikendam, Edam, and Purmerent, is equal to that of Amſterdam.

The laſt { of Hoorn / of Enkhuyſen / of Muyden / of Naarden / of Weſop } is of twenty-two muddes, or forty-four ſacks, and the ſack of two ſchepels.

The laſt of Haarlem is of thirty-eight ſacks, and the ſack of three ſchepels; four ſchepels making one hoed of Rotterdam, and fourteen ſacks, one hoed of Delft.

The laſt of Alkmaar is of thirty-ſix ſacks; the hoed four ſchepels; but the hoed is five-eighths bigger than that of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Leyden is of forty-four ſacks, and the ſack of eight ſchepels.

The laſt of Rotterdam, Delft, and Schiedam, is compoſed of twenty-nine-ſacks, and the ſack of three ſchepels, of which ten two-thirds make an hoed; (the laſt of theſe places being two *per cent.* bigger than that of Amſterdam) and

this laſt for hemp-ſeed is alſo of twenty-nine ſacks, and for linſeed twenty-four tons or barils.

The laſt of Dort or Dordrecht is of twenty-four ſacks, the ſack of eight ſchepels, and eight ſacks make one hoed. All grains are bought and ſold here by the hoed, which make eight barils or thirty-two ſchepels, counting four ſchepels to the baril; and three hoeds make one laſt of Amſterdam.

The laſt of Gouda, or Tergouw, is of twenty-eight ſacks, and the ſack of three ſchepels; thirty-two ſchepels making one hoed.

Four hoed of Oudewater, Heuſden, Gornichem, and Leerdam, make five hoed of Amſterdam: two hoed of Gornichem make five achtendeelen, or huitiemes, and one laſt, and four hoed, make five hoed of Delft.

Twenty-eight achtendeelen or huitiemes, of Aſperen, make thirty-two huitiemes of Rotterdam: twenty-ſix huitiemes of Worcum, alſo make thirty-two huitiemes of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Breda, for hard grain, ſuch as wheat, rye, barley, and the like, is of thirty-three one-half veertels, or quartieres; and the laſt of oats is of twenty nine veertels; thirteen veertels of hard grain, making one chapeau of Delft, and fourteen veertels of Antwerp.

*Corn meaſures of the province of Utrecht.*

The laſt of Utrecht conſiſts of twenty-five muddes or ſacks; ſix muddes making five mouwers, and ten one-half muddes or ſacks, one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Amerfort, is of ſixteen muddes, or of ſixty-four ſchepels; ſix muddes making one ſack, or one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Montfort is of twenty-one muddes, the mudde making two ſacks, and the hoed containing four one-half huitiemes more than that of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Yſelſteyn contains twenty muddes, each mudde two ſacks, and the hoed three huitiemes more than that of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Vianen is alſo of twenty-two muddes, the mudde of two ſacks, and the hoed contains two huitiemes more than that of Rotterdam.

*Corn meaſures in the province of Friſe.*

The laſt { of Leeuwarden, of Haarlingen, of Groninguen } is of thirty-three muddes, of eighteen tons or thirty-ſix loopers, which make three hoed of Rotterdam.

*Corn meaſures of the province of Gueldre.*

The laſt of Nimeguen is of twenty-one one-fourth mouwers, and that of Arnhem and Doeſburg of twenty-two mouwers; the mouwer is four ſchepels, and eight mouwers make one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Thiel conſiſts of twenty-one muddes; the hoed of Rotterdam being an achteling or huitieme bigger.

The laſt of Roermondé is of ſixty-eight ſchepels, or achtelings; one hundred veertel or quartiers, making one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Bommel is of ſix achtendeels; or eighteen muddes greater than that of Rotterdam.

At Harderwyk, it is reckoned that eleven muddes make ten of Amſterdam.

*Corn meaſures of the province of Over-Yſſel.*

The laſt of Campen contains twenty-four one-half muddes for wheat, of which nine make one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Zwol is of twenty-ſix ſacks, or nine muddes, which make one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Deventer is of thirty-ſix muddes, counting four ſchepels to the mudde.

*Corn meaſures of the province of Zealand.*

The laſt of Middlebourg is reckoned forty-one facks and one achtendeel; reckoning two achtendeels to the ſack.

The laſt of Vliſſingen or Fleſſingue, and that of Veer or Terveer is of thirty ſacks.

The laſt of Zirickzee, Ter-Goes, Bommene, Tertolen, Stavenes, and Duyvelant is of thirty-ſeven one-fourth ſacks.

The laſt of Sommelſdyk, Dirkſlant, Middleharnes, Oelteſplaat, Pays del'Utiten, and La Brille, is of thirty-eight one-half ſacks; but all theſe aforeſaid meaſures are reducible, and near equal to the laſt of Middlebourg, becauſe two one-half achtendeels make the Zealand ſack, or the Middlebourg ſack of two achtendeels, as above-mentioned.

*Corn meaſures for the province of Brabant.*

The laſt of Antwerp for wheat is of thirty-ſeven one-half verteels or quartieres, and that for oats of thirty-ſeven; the verteel being divided into four mukens, and fourteen verteels making the hoed of Rotterdam.

At Bruſſels twenty-five ſacks are reckoned for an Amſterdam laſt of wheat.

The laſt at Malines is of thirty four one-half verteels; the hundred verteels making a hundred and eight of Antwerp, and twelve verteels making twenty-nine achtendeels of Delft.

The laſt of Louvain is of twenty-ſeven muddes, and the mudde of eight halſters.

The laſt of Breda for wheat is of thirty-three one-half verteels, and of twenty-nine for oats; the thirteen verteels making eighteen ſacks, or one hoed of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Steenbergen is of thirty-five verteels.

The laſt of Bergen-op-zoom is of ſixty-three ſiſters for wheat, and twenty-eight one-half for oats.

The laſt of Boiſleduc is of twenty one-half mouwers, of which eight make one hoed of Rotterdam.

*Corn meaſures of Flanders.*

The laſt of Ghent contains fifty-ſix halſters for wheat, and thirty-eight for oats; twelve halſters making one mudde, or ſix ſacks, ſo that each ſack is two halſters, and corn is bought and ſold here by muddes or halſters.

The laſt of Bruges is of ſeventeen one-half hoed for wheat, and fourteen one-half for oats, which makes one laſt of Amſterdam, and one hoed of this place yields four twenty-four thirty-fifths achtendeels of Delft.

The laſt of St. Omer is of twenty-two one-fourths raziers.

The laſt of Dixmude for wheat is reckoned to be thirty one half raziers, and twenty-four raziers for oats; the razier making two ſchepels of Rotterdam.

The laſt of Liſle conſiſts of thirty-eight raziers for wheat, and thirty raziers for oats, the razier making two ſchepels of Rotterdam.

Eighteen raziers of Dunkirk make one hoed of Rotterdam; ſea meaſure is nine raziers, which weigh two hundred and eighty to two hundred and ninety pounds mark weight each, but the land razier only weighs two hundred and forty-five pounds of the ſaid weight.

At Gravelines twenty-two raziers is reckoned to the laſt of wheat, and eighteen three-fourths for oats.

*Corn meaſures of the country of Leige.*

The laſt of Leige is ninety-ſix ſetiers, and the ſetier conſiſts of eight muddes.

The laſt of Tongres for wheat is fifteen muddes, and for oats fourteen.

*Corn meaſures of Great-Britain and Ireland.*

The laſt of theſe iſlands contains ten one-fourth quarters; the quarter is eight buſhels, and each buſhel eight gallons, or four pecks; the laſt being equal to that of Amſterdam.

*Corn meaſures of ſeveral places in the North.*

The laſt of Dantzick is equal to that of Amſterdam, it being reckoned commonly to weigh ſixteen ſchipponds of three hundred and forty pounds each, making five thouſand four hundred and forty pounds *per* laſt, Dantzick weight, for wheat; though the laſt for rye is only counted fifteen ſchipponds, or five thouſand one hundred pounds.

The laſt of Coningſberg is alſo equal to that of Amſterdam, and corn is bought and ſold here by guilders and gros of Poland.

The laſt of Riga contains forty-ſix loopens, which make a laſt of Amſterdam; corn ſells here for ſix-dollars of three guilders, or ninety gros.

The laſt of Copenhagen is of forty-two tons, or eighty ſcheppels, though it varies according to the different ſorts of grain, even as far as to ninety-ſix ſcheppels.

In Sweden, the laſt is reckoned twenty-three tuns.

The laſt of Hamburgh contains ninety ſcheppels, twelve of which laſts make thirteen of Amſterdam.

The laſt of Lubeck is eighty-five ſcheppels, of which ninety-five make a laſt of Amſterdam.

The laſt of Embden conſiſts of fifteen one-fourth tuns. And

Twenty-four Jaſts of Bremen make twenty-three of Amſterdam.

*Corn meaſures in ſeveral parts of France.*

The chief meaſure for grain, is called at Paris, and in many other cities of that kingdom, a muid, which is divided into twelve ſetiers, and the ſetier into twelve boiſſeaux or buſhels; the ſetier for wheat is again divided into two mines, the mine into two minots, and the minot into three boiſſeaux. The ſetier of good wheat ought to weigh from two hundred and forty-four to two hundred and forty-eight pounds mark.

The ſetier of oats is divided into twenty-four boiſſeaux, the boſſeaux into four picotins, the picotin into eight demi-quarts, and the demi-quart into two litrons.

The muid, or twelve ſetiers of Paris, make ſeventeen muddes of Amſterdam, and nineteen ſetiers the Amſterdam laſt.

The muid of Rouen contains twelve ſetiers, making fourteen ſetiers of Paris, which muid ought to weigh three thouſand three hundred and ſixty pounds mark weight of wheat, as the ſetier weighs about two hundred and eighty pounds, which is divided into two mines, and the mine into four boiſſeaux; four muids are equal to three laſts of Amſterdam, ſix ſetiers making ten muddes, or one one-third muid an Amſterdam laſt.

The muid of Orleans ought to weigh ſix hundred pounds, it is divided into twelve mines, and makes two one-half ſetiers of Paris, five boiſſeaux of Bourdeaux, or three two-thirds muddes of Amſterdam.

The meaſure for corn uſed at Lyons is called an aſnée, which is divided into ſix bichets or boiſſeaux, and makes near one one-third ſetier of Paris, or three two-thirds boiſſeaux of Bourdeaux; ſo that four aſnées make ſeven muddes of Amſterdam.

Eight boiſſeaux of Roan make one ſetier of Paris, or one one-half mudde of Amſterdam.

Three aſnées of Macon make ſeven muddes of Amſterdam.

Five boiſſeaux of Avignon makes four one-fourth muddes of Amſterdam.

The ſetier of Montpelier is of two emines, and the emine of two quarts; the ſetier weighs from ninety to ninety-five pounds Montpelier weight, and three ſetiers make one one-half muddes of Amſterdam.

The ſetier of Caſtres in Languedoc conſiſts of two emines, the emine of four megeres, and the megere of four boiſſeaux; the ſetier weighs near two hundred pounds of this place, which make one hundred and ſeventy pounds mark, ſo that one hundred ſetiers make four laſts of Amſterdam.

Thirty-eight boiſſeaux of Bourdeaux make one laſt of Amſterdam, or nineteen ſetiers of Paris; the ſaid boiſſeaux ought to weigh from one hundred and twenty-two to one hundred and twenty-four pounds mark, when the wheat is good.

Four two-thirds ſetiers of Amiens make one one-half mudde of Amſterdam; the ſetier is here divided into four piquets, and ought to weigh fifty or fifty-two pounds.

Eight ſetiers of Bologne (in Picardy) make thirteen muddes of Amſterdam, and ought to weigh two hundred and ſeventy pounds ſmall weight.

Twelve ſetiers of Calais make eighteen one-half muddes of Amſterdam; the ſetier weighs about two hundred and ſixty pounds, twelve whereof making thirteen at Paris.

Nineteen ſetiers of St. Valery, make one laſt
Eighteen mines of Dieppe, make ſeventeen muddes
Five one-fourth boiſſeaux of Havre de Grace make one one-half mudde
Fourteen boiſſeaux of Amboiſe, make one one-half mudde
Nineteen ſetiers of Saumur, make one laſt
Fourteen boiſſeaux of Tours, make one one-half mudde
Twenty boiſſeaux of Bloſs, make one one-half mudde
Five boiſſeaux of { Aubeterre, Barbeſieux, Perigueux } make one one-half mudde

} of Amſterdam.

Forty-nine ſetiers of Arles, make a laſt of Amſterdam, each ſetier weighing ninety-three pounds mark, and the charge is reckoned three hundred pounds of that place.

Forty-eight ſeriers of Baucaire, make a laſt of Amſterdam, and the charge here is two *per cent.* bigger than that of Arles.

The charge of Marſeilles is of four emines, the emine of eight ſivadiers; and the charge is alſo computed at three hundred pounds Marſeilles weight, which makes it to be equal to one one-half mudde of Amſterdam.

Forty-one charges of St. Gilles, make a laſt of Amſterdam; the charge here is alſo of three hundred pounds, but heavier by eighteen to twenty *per cent.* than that of Arles.

Fifty-one charges of Taraſcon, make a laſt of Amſterdam; the charge here is likewiſe of three hundred pounds, two *per cent.* heavier than that of Arles.

Three emines of Toulon, makes two muddes of Amſterdam; the charge is here reckoned to conſiſt of three ſetiers, and the ſetier containing one one-half emine, three of which make two ſetiers of Paris.

Four boiſſeaux of Auray, make one one-half mudde
The tun of Audierne
The tun of Breſt } make thirteen one-half mud.
The tun of Morlaix

} of Amſter.

Eighty-three one half boiſſeaux of the ſaid Morlaix have yielded at Rotterdam a laſt, and fifteen ſacks of twenty-nine to the laſt; on which footing the eighty-three one-half boiſſeaux make very near one one-half Amſterdam laſts.

The tun of Hannebon and Port Louis, makes ſeventeen one half muddes of Amſterdam.

The tun of Quinpercorantin, makes thirteen muddes of Amſterdam.

The tun of Nantz, makes thirteen one-fourth muddes of Amſterdam; it is compoſed of ſixteen ſetiers, and the ſetier of ſixteen boiſſeaux: the tun ought to weigh from two thouſand two hundred to two thouſand two hundred and fifty pounds heaped meaſure, which is eighteen or twenty *per cent.* more than ſtriken meaſure.

The tun of Rennes and St. Malo, makes fourteen muddes of Amſterdam, and ought to weigh about two thouſand four hundred pounds.

The tun of St. Brieux, makes fifteen one-half muddes of Amſterdam, and ought to weigh about two thouſand ſix hundred pounds.

The tun of Rochelle and Marans, contains forty-two boiſſeaux, which makes thirteen muddes of Amſterdam.

*Corn meaſures of Spain.*

At Cadiz, &c. corn is ſold by fanegas (nr hanegas) of which five make an Engliſh quarter, or fifty-two to the laſt of Amſterdam.

In the kingdom of Valencia, the corn meaſure is a cahiz, conſiſting of twelve barchillas, and three hundred cahizes make twenty-five laſts of Amſterdam.

*Corn meaſures of Portugal.*

Two hundred and ſixteen alquieres, or four muids of Liſbon, make a laſt of Amſterdam, the muid being fifty-four alquieres; though the muid is alſo divided into fifteen fanegos, and the fanego into four alquiers.

The alquiers of Oporto have always been reckoned twenty *per cent.* bigger than thoſe of Liſbon, at which computation one hundred and eighty make an Amſterdam laſt;

laſt; but we find that an Engliſh quarter commonly yields there ſixteen alquiers, at which rate only one hundred and ſixty-four go to the laſt of Amſterdam.

At the Azores iſlands, belonging to the king of Portugal, and in that of St. Michael, ſixty alquiers are reckoned to the muid, and two hundred and forty make an Amſterdam laſt; though corn tranſported from St. Michael to the iſle of Madeira, yields four alquiers benefit on the ſixty; that is, the ſixty of St. Michael produce ſixty-four at Madeira, being ſix two-thirds *per cent.*

*Italian corn meaſures*

Corn is ſold at Genoa by the mine, with an exemption from duties to the ſeller, and twenty-five mines are reckoned a laſt of Amſterdam.

At Leghorn, forty ſacks make a laſt of Amſterdam, and two ſacks of wheat make the Marſeilles charge of three hundred pounds leſs four *per cent.*

Wheat is ſold at Venice by the ſtaro or ſetier, two ſtaro making one Marſeilles charge, or one one-half mudde of Amſterdam.

This may ſuffice to ſhew the chief corn meaſures of the principal parts in Europe, to which our readers may have recourſe, for a more ample explication of their different diviſions, than could conveniently be inſerted in the following table; though this contains a greater number of places, and ſhews, at one glance, the agreement between the meaſures of every city, with thoſe of Amſterdam, Paris, and Bourdeaux; the name of the place being ſought in the firſt column, whoſe meaſure is wanted, they being all ranged for this purpoſe in an alphabetical order, and all trifling fractions left out, as their inſertion would have interrupted the regularity of the table, without adding any thing to the inſtruction of our readers.

*A table of the agreement of divers meaſures with thoſe of Amſterdam, Paris, and Bourdeaux.*

| Names of places. | Different meaſures. | Meaſure of Amſterdam. | Meaſure of Paris. | Meaſure of Bourdeaux. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abbeville | 6 ſetiers | 7 muddes | 5 ſetiers | 10 boiſſeaux |
| Agen | 33½ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Aiguillon | 41 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Albi | 25 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Alicant | 12 cahizes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Alkmaar | 36 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Amboiſe | 14 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Amersfort | 16 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Amiens | 4⅔ ſetiers | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Amſterdam | 1 laſt | 27 muddes | 19 | 38 |
| Antwerp | 32½ veertels | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Arles | 49 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Auray le Duc | 9½ boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Arnhem | 22 mouwers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Aſperen | 25⅜ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Aubeterre | 5 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Audierne | 1 tun | 13½ muddes | 9½ | 19 |
| Auray | 100 boiſſeaux | 35 muddes | 25 | 50 |
| Auxone | 1 emine | 4 muddes | 2⅔ | 5⅓ |
| Avignon | 5 boiſſeaux | 4¼ muddes | 3 | 6 |
| Barbeſieux | 5 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Baugenci | 3⅕ mines | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Bayonne | 36 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Beaucaire | 48 ſetieres | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Beaumont | 38 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Beauvais | 1 tun | 18 muddes | 12⅔ | 25⅓ |
| Bellegarde | 1 bichet | 2 muddes | 1⅓ | 2⅔ |
| Bergerac | 1 pipe | 5 muddes | 3½ | 7 |
| Bergen-op-zoom | 36 ſifters | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Bergen-St-Winox | 13 raziers | 17 muddes | 12 | 24 |
| Blois | 20 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Bois-le-Duc | 20½ mouwers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Bologne in Picardy | 8 ſetiers | 13 muddes | 9½ | 18½ |
| Bommel | 18 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Bourbon Lancy | 13½ boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Bourdeaux | 38 boiſſeaux | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Bourret | 100 ſacks | 3½ laſts | 66½ | 133 |
| Breau | 100 cartieres | 3½ laſts | 66½ | 133 |
| Breda | 33⅓ veertels | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Bremen | 24 laſts | 23 laſts | 437 | 874 |
| Breſſe | 1 quartal | 1⅘ mudde | 1⅓ | 2½ |
| Breſt | 1 tun | 13½ muddes | 9½ | 19 |
| Briare | 11 carſes | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Bruges | 17½ hoedts | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Bruſſels | 25 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Buerem | 21 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Cadillac | 33⅓ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Cadiz | 52 hanegas | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Cahors | 100 cartes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Calais | 12 ſetiers | 18½ muddes | 13 | 36 |
| Campen | 24½ muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Candie | 1 charge | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Canville | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Carcaſſone | 35 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Caſtel Jaloux | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 23 muddes | 54 | 108 |

| Names of places. | Different measures. | Measures of Amsterdam. | Measure of Paris. | Measure of Bourdeaux. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Caſtel Mauron | 1 Pipe | 5 muddes | 3½ ſetiers | 7 boiſſeaux |
| Caſtelnau de Medor | 100 quartieres | 3 laſts, 10 muddes | 64 | 138 |
| Caſtelnaudari | 41½ ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Caſtel-Sarazin | 100 ſacks | 3½ laſts | 66½ | 133 |
| Caſtres in Languedoc | 100 ſetiers | 4 laſts | 76 | 152 |
| Caudi-Coſte | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Chalais | 5 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Chalons ſur Saone | 5 bichets | 8½ muddes | 6 | 12 |
| Charite | 8 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Charlieu ſur Loire | 7 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Charolles | 6⅓ boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Chateau neuf ſur Loire | 7 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Clairac | 34½ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Cleves | 16¼ mouwers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Concarneau | 1 tun | 13 muddes | 9⅕ | 18⅖ |
| Condom | 41 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Coningſberg | 1 laſt | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Copenhagen | 42 tuns | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Corbie | 3⅔ ſetiers | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Coſne | 9½ boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Creon | 100 ſacks | 3¼ laſts | 61¾ | 123½ |
| Cuylenbourg | 21 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Dantzick | 1 laſt | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Delſt | 29 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Deventer | 36 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Dieppe | 18 mines | 17 muddes | 12 | 24 |
| Dixmude | 30½ razieres | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Doeſbourg | 22 mouwers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Dort, or Dordrecht | 24 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Dunkirk | 18 razieres | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Dunes | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Edam | 27 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Elbing | 1 laſt | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Embden | 15¼ tuns | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Enchuyſen | 44 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| England | 10¼ quarters | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Erfelſteyne | 21 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Eſperſac | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 17 muddes | 50 | 100 |
| Etaffort | 100 boiſſeaux | 2 laſts, 24 muddes | 55 | 110 |
| Fleſſingue | 40 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Francfort | 27 malders | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Fronſac | 28½ ſacks | 2 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Fronton | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts, 14 muddes | 67 | 134 |
| Gaillac | 21 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Ghent | 56 halſters | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Genoa | 25 mines | 1 laſt | 19 | 88 |
| Ginſac | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 14 muddes | 48 | 96 |
| Gergeau | 3½ mines | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Gien | 9⅗ carſes | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Gimond | 20 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Goes, or Tergoes | 40 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Gorcom | 17¼ muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Gouda, or Tergow | 28 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Graveline | 22 razieres | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Grenade | 30 ſacks | 1 laſts | 19 | 38 |
| Griſoles | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts, 10 muddes | 64 | 128 |
| Groeninguen | 33 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Haarlen | 38 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Hambourg | 12 laſts | 13 laſts | 247 | 494 |
| Harderwyck | 11 muddes | 10 muddes | 7 | 14 |
| Harlingen | 33 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Havre de Grace | 5¼ boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Hennebone | 1 tun | 17½ muddes | 12⅓ | 24⅔ |
| Heuſden | 17¼ muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Hoorn, or Horne | 44 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Huſum | 20 tuns | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Ireland | 10¼ quarters, or 38 buſhels | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| La Brille | 40 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| La Gruere | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 23 muddes | 54 | 108 |
| La Magiſtere | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 24 muddes | 55 | 110 |
| Lanion | 1 tun | 14 muddes | 10 | 20 |
| La Reole | 30 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| La Roche de R. | 1 tun | 13 muddes | 9⅕ | 18⅖ |
| La Rochelle | 1 tun | 13 muddes | 9⅕ | 18⅖ |
| Lavaur | 21 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Layrac | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts, 4 muddes | 59¾ | 119½ |
| Le Mas de Agenois | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 20 muddes | 52 | 104⅔ |
| Le Mas de Verdun | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts, 14 muddes | 67 | 113 |
| Les Adriens | 1 tun | 13 muddes | 9⅕ | 18⅖ |

| Names of places. | Different measures. | Measures of Amsterdam. | Measure of Paris. | Measure of Bourdeaux. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Leſpare | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts, 14 muddes | 67 ſetiers | 134 boiſſeaux |
| Leuwarden | 43 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Leyden | 44 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Leytoure | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Libourne | 35 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Liege | 96 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Liſle in Flanders | 38 razieres | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Lieul | 1 pipe | 5 muddes | $3\frac{1}{2}$ | 7 |
| Lyons | 4 aſnées | 7 muddes | 5 | 10 |
| Liſbon | 216 alquiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Liſle in Albigeois | 103 ſetiers | 7 laſts, 5 muddes | 130 | 260 |
| Liſle-Dieu | 1 ton | $14\frac{1}{4}$ muddes | 10 | 20 |
| Leghorn | 40 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Louvain | 27 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Lubeck | 95 ſchepels | 1 laſt | 19 | 31 |
| Macon | 3 aſnés | 7 muddes | 5 | 10 |
| Malines | $30\frac{1}{10}$ veertels | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Marans | 1 tun | 13 muddes | $9\frac{1}{9}$ | $18\frac{2}{9}$ |
| Marſeilles | 1 charge | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Mas d'Agenois | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 20 muddes | $52\frac{1}{9}$ | $104\frac{2}{9}$ |
| Mas de Verdun | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts, 14 muddes | 67 | 143 |
| Middlebourg | $41\frac{1}{2}$ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Mirambeau | 100 boiſſeaux | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Mirandous | 100 boiſſeaux | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Moiſſac | 30 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Moncaſſin | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 23 muddes | 54 | 108 |
| Montauban | 100 ſacks<br>100 ſetiers | 3 laſts, $18\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | 70 | 140 |
| | | 7 laſts, 10 muddes | 140 | 280 |
| Montandre | 100 boiſſeaux | 3 laſts, 5 muddes | $60\frac{1}{2}$ | 121 |
| Montfort | 21 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Montpelier | 3 ſetiers | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Montreuil | 18 boiſſeaux | $1\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | 1 | 2 |
| Morlaix | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{2}$ | 19 |
| Munikendam | 27 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Muyden | 44 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Naerden | 44 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Nantes | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{4}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{3}$ | $18\frac{2}{3}$ |
| Naples la Pouille and la Calabria | 3 tomolos | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Narbon | $32\frac{2}{3}$ ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Narmoutier iſle | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{2}$ | 19 |
| Negrepeliſſe | 100 ſetiers<br>100 ſacks | $8\frac{1}{3}$ laſts | $158\frac{1}{3}$ | $316\frac{2}{3}$ |
| | | $4\frac{1}{4}$ laſts | $80\frac{3}{4}$ | $161\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Nerac | $33\frac{1}{3}$ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Nevers | 8 boiſſeaux | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Nimeguen | $21\frac{3}{4}$ mouvers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Nieuport | $17\frac{1}{2}$ raziers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Orleans | 1 muid | $3\frac{2}{3}$ muddes | $2\frac{1}{2}$ | 5 |
| Oudewater | 21 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Pain d'Avoine | 1 tun | 13 | $9\frac{1}{9}$ | $18\frac{2}{9}$ |
| Paris | 1 muid<br>12 boiſſeaux | 17 muddes | 12 | 24 |
| | | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Perigueux | 5 boiſſeaux | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Pont l'Abbe | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{2}$ | 19 |
| Port Louis | 1 tun | $17\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $12\frac{1}{3}$ | $24\frac{2}{3}$ |
| Porto Port | 180 alquiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Purmerent | 27 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Puymerol | 100 ſacks | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Quiberon | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{2}$ | 19 |
| Quimpercorantin | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{2}$ | 19 |
| Quinperlay | 1 tun | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $12\frac{1}{3}$ | $24\frac{2}{3}$ |
| Rabaſtens | 17 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Realmont | 100 ſetiers | 4 laſts, 10 muddes | 86 | 172 |
| Realville | 25 ſacks<br>100 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| | | 8 laſts, 10 muddes | 162 | 324 |
| Redon | 1 ton | $14\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $10\frac{1}{4}$ | $20\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Rennes | 1 ton | 14 muddes | $9\frac{3}{4}$ | $19\frac{1}{2}$ |
| Rhenen | 20 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Ribeyrac | 5 boiſſeaux | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Riga | 46 loopen | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Roane | 8 boiſſeaux | $1\frac{1}{2}$ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Rotterdam | 29 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Rouen | 6 ſetiers<br>4 muid | 10 muddes | 7 | 14 |
| | | 3 laſts | 57 | 114 |
| Royan | 29 quartiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Ruremond | 68 ſchepels | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| St. Brieu | 1 ton | 14 muddes | $9\frac{3}{4}$ | $19\frac{1}{2}$ |
| St. Cadou | 1 ton | $13\frac{1}{2}$ muddes | $9\frac{1}{2}$ | 19 |
| St. Giles | 40 charges | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |

| Names of places. | Different measures. | Measures of Amsterdam. | Measure of Paris. | Measure of Bourdeaux. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| St. John de Laune | 1 emine | 2⅔ muddes | 1⅓ ſetiers | 3⅓ boiſſeaux |
| St. Malo | 1 ton | 14 muddes | 9¾ | 19½ |
| St. Mathurin de l'Archant | 9½ boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| St. Lieurade | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 18 muddes | 50⅔ | 101⅓ |
| St. Omer | 22½ razieres | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| St. Valery | 19 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Sardaigne iſle | 3 eſtereaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Saumur | 19 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Schiedam | 29 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Schoonhoven | 21 muddes | 1½ mudde | 19 | 38 |
| Sicily iſle | 1¾ ſalme | 1 laſt | 1 | 2 |
| Steenbergen | 25 veertels | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Stockholm | 23 tons | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Sully | 9⅗ carſes | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Tallemont | 5 ſacks | 4¼ mudde | 3 | 6 |
| Taraſcon | 51 charges | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Tertollen | 37½ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Terveer | 39 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Thiel | 21 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Toulouſe | 26 ſetiers | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Toniens | 100 ſacks | 2 laſts, 16 muddes | 49⅓ | 98⅔ |
| Tongres | 15 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Tonningen | 24 tuns | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Tornus | 1 bichet | 2½ | 1⅔ | 3⅓ |
| Toulon | 3 emines | 3 muddes | 2 | 8 |
| Tournon | 25 ſacks | 18 muddes | 12⅔ | 25⅓ |
| Tours | 14 boiſſeaux | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Tunis in Barbary | 1 caſſis | 3½ muddes | 2⅓ | 4⅔ |
| Valence in Agen. | 100 ſacks | 3¼ laſts | 61¾ | 123½ |
| Vannes in Bri. | 1 tun | 14 muddes | 9¾ | 19½ |
| Venice | 2 ſtaros | 1½ mudde | 1 | 2 |
| Venloo | 21¾ mouwers | 1 laſt | 91 | 38 |
| Verdun | 1 bichot | 1⅞ mudde | 1¼ | 2½ |
| Vianen | 20 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Villemeur | 25 ſacks | 24 muddes | 17 | 34 |
| Villeneuve d'Agenois | 100 boiſſeaux | 2 laſts, 21 muddes | 53¾ | 105½ |
| Uliſſingue | 40 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Utrecht | 25 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Weeſop | 44 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Worcum | 23½ ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Wykte Deurſt: | 20 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Yſelſtein | 20 muddes | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Zirick Zee | 40 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |
| Zwol | 26 ſacks | 1 laſt | 19 | 38 |

To the foregoing table we ſhall here add the weights of the Flanders and German meaſures, as they are calculated by Mr. Savary, in hopes it may be agreeable to our readers; though we muſt accompany it with this remark, that the ponderoſity of the ſeveral ſorts of grains therein-mentioned, are rendered ſo uncertain by the change of weather, and other accidents of humidity or dryneſs, that no exactneſs is to be depended on from ſuch a computation: however, it may occaſionally prove of ſome ſervice, at leaſt to thoſe intereſted in the corn trade, and therefore we give it a place.

*An abſtract of the correſponding weights and meaſures of the different ſpecies of corn in Flanders and Germany.*

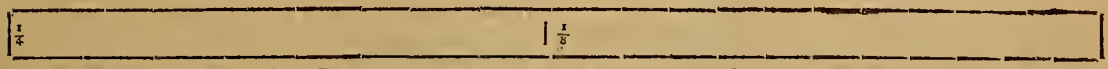
| Places. | Names of meaſures. | Mark wt. of wheat. | Mark wt. of meſling or mixt corn. | Mark wt. of rye. | Mark wt. of oats. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Dunkirk | raziere | 250lb. | 247lb. | 240lb. | |
| Begues | raziere | 210 | 204 | 200 | |
| Ypres | raziere | 179 | 173 | 168 | |
| Ayre | raziere | 160 | 150 | 148 | |
| St. Omer | raziere | 196 | 193 | 190 | |
| Calais | quartier | 66 | 60 | 58 | |
| | ſetier, or ſeptier | 264 | 240 | 232 | |
| Doulens | 1 ſeptier of 4 quartiers and each quartier of 4 boiſſeaux whereof 16 makes the ſeptier of Doulens, | 205½ 212 | 201 208 | 201 | 125¼lb. |
| Amiens | ſetier | 49 | 49 | 48 | 48 |
| Peronne | ſetier | 88 | 86 | 84 | 54 |
| Liſle | raziere | 110 | 106 | 104 | |
| Menin | raziere | 129 | 126 | 123 | 66 |
| Tournay | raziere | 180 | 168 | 170 | |
| Conde | raziere | 178 | 172 | 164 | 120 |
| Valenciennes | raziere | 75 | 74 | 74 | |

| Places. | Names of measures. | Mark wt. of wheat. | Mark wt. of meſling or mixt corn. | Mark wt. of rye. | Mark wt. of oats. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cambray | Mencault | 81 lb. | 83 lb. | 84 lb. | 75 lb. the raziere making 23½ mencaults. |
| Douay | raziere | 129 | 125 | 125 | |
| Arras | raziere weight of St. Vaſt | 128 | 123 | 124 | |
| Mons | raziere | 76½ | 75½ | 73½ | 43 |
| Maubeuge | raziere | 106 | 94 | 88 | 50 |
| Avenes | raziere | 102 | 98 | 88 | 70 |
| Landreci | mencault | 97 | 94 | 90 | 72 |
| Le Queſnoy | mencault | 80 | 76 | 79 | 71 |
| Le Caſteau | mencault | 85 | 80 | 72 | 60 |
| Soiſſons | ſetier | 158 | 156 | 148 | 124 |
| Noyon | ſetier | 86 | 82 | 84 | |
| La Fere | ſetier | 71 | 69 | 65 | 50 |
| Guiſe | jalois | 80 | 76 | 76 | 50 |
| St. Quentin | ſetier | 67 | 64 | 62½ | 44 |
| Namur | ſetier | 44½ | 42 | 41¼ | 27½ |
| Dinant | ſetier | 44½ | 43 | 42½ | 62 |
| Philippeville | retz | 55 | 54 | 52½ | 30 |
| Givet | retz | 47 | 46 | 45 | |
| Chalons | ſeiter | 230 | 195 | 190 | |
| Reims | ſetier | 130 | 124 | 118 | |
| Rhetel | ſetier | 112 | 108 | 104 | |
| Rocroy | cartel | 35 | 34 | 33 | |
| Mezieres | cartel | 30 | 28 | 26 | |
| Verdun | francarte | 38 | 34 | 32 | 25 |
| Sedan | cartel | 39 | 38 | 37 | 35 |
| Montmidy | cartel | 48½ | 47 | 50 | |
| Dijon and Chalons | emine | 45 | 43 | 41 | 27 |
| Auxonne | emine | 27 | 26 | 25 | 20 |
| Bezançon | meſure | 36 | 35 | 34 | 32 |
| Gray | meſure | 40 | 39 | 38 | 30 |
| Port ſur Saone | quarte | 60 | 59 | 58 | 48 |
| Euxeuil, St. Loup, Favernay | quarte | 70 | 68 | 67 | |
| Dole, Pontarlier, Salins | emine | 60 | 59 | 58 | |
| Villerſuxel, Montjutin | emine | 45 | 44 | 43 | |
| Montbeliard, Hericourt, Blamont | emine | 40 | 39 | 38 | |
| Vanvillers | quarte | 63 | 62 | 61 | |
| Vezoul | quarte | 60 | 59 | 58 | 47 |
| Befort, Lanſcron | quarte | 43 | 41 | | |
| Fribourg | boiſſeau | 27 | 25 | 25 | |
| Briſac | rezal | 164 | 162 | 158 | |
| Comar | rezal | 160 | 159 | 154 | |
| Schleſtat | rezal | 168 | 166 | 164 | |
| St. Mary aux Mines | rezal | 178 | 175 | 176 | |
| Straſbourg | rezal | 160 | 160 | 160 | 104 |
| Haguenau | rezal | 165 | 160 | 155 | 112 |
| Fort Louis du Rhin | The ſack or fertele | 161 | 156 | 150 | 110 |
| Landau | maldre | 174 | 175 | 176 | |
| Neuſtat | maldre | 186 | 184 | 170 | |
| Wiſſembourg | rezal | 164 | 162 | 159 | 104 |
| Philipſbourg | maldre | 168 | 161 | 154 | 108 |
| Phalſbourg and Ligtemberg | regal | 184 | 183 | 182 | 104 |
| Saar Louis | quarte | 110 | 109 | 108 | 96 |
| Hambourg and Bitche | maldre | 300 | 298 | 280 | |
| Saarbourg | bichet | 23 | 22 | 21 | |
| Keyſerlautern | maldre | 162 | 160 | 158 | 146 |
| Mont Royal | maldre | 336 | 324 | 312 | |
| Saarbruck | quarte | 128 | 126 | 116 | 108 |
| Metz | quarte | 93¼ | 95¾ | 99¼ | 81 |
| Toul | bichet | 134 | 129 | 119 | 80 |
| Nancy | regal | 174 | 173 | 172 | 144 |
| Longvy | rezal of Nancy | 176 | 175 | 174 | |
| | bichet of Longvy | 27 | 26 | 26 | |
| Thionville | maldre | 302 | 2 97 | 295 | 248 |
| Treves | maldre | 301¼ | 3 co | 268 | 285 |
| Luxembourg | malter | 295 | 2 92 | 275 | 230 |
| Pontamouſſon | quarte | 120 | 116 | 112 | |
| Langres | The emine chapter meaſure contains ¼ more than that of Langres — emine — contains eight bichets, and the bichet, two quarts. | 397 | 368 | 352 | 296 |

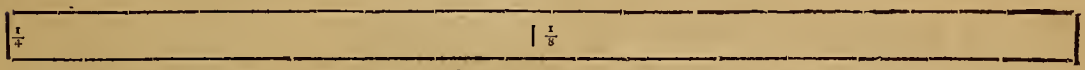
| Places. | Names of measures. | Mark wt. of wheat. | Mark wt. of mesling or mixt corn. | Mark wt. of rye. | Mark wt. of oats. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Void | bichet | 67 lb. | 66 lb. | 65 lb. | |
| Chamont | bichet | 72 | 70½ | 74 | 41 lb. |
| Saverne | rezal | 170 | 165 | 160 | |
| Bourbonne | penal | 72 | 70 | 68 | 58 |
| | bichet of Choiseul | 82 | 80 | 78 | 65 |
| Rouen | mine | 135 | 133 | 130 | |
| Le Havre | Boisseaux-hall measure | 55 | 53 | 51 | |
| | Quai measure, containing three boisseaux | 151 | 1145 | 139 | |
| Port Louis | tun Hamburgh measure | 2950 | 2920 | 2750 | |
| | tun Quimper measure | 2280 | 2250 | 2105 | |
| | tun Vannes measure | 2400 | 2370 | 2200 | |
| Belle Isle | ton | 2400 | 2340 | 2200 | |
| Bayonne | conque | 60 | 59 | 58 | |
| Dax | mesure | 38 | 36 | 33 | |
| Vaucouleurs | bichet | 88 | 83 | 80 | 58 |
| Huningue | rezal | 163 | 160 | 159 | |

Next to the dry, we proceed to the long or applicative measures; of which ours in Great-Britain, are the yard and ell, the former for measuring all silks, woollens, &c. the latter used only for linens. The yard consists of three feet, and the foot of twelve inches; the ell being a yard and a quarter. We may also here add, that a geometrical pace is reckoned five feet, a fadom (or fathom) six, a rod, pole, or perch sixteen and a half, and of these forty make a furlong, and eight furlongs an Englisth mile, which, by a statute of Henry VIII. ought to be 1760 yards, or 3280 feet, that is, 280 feet more than the Italian mile.

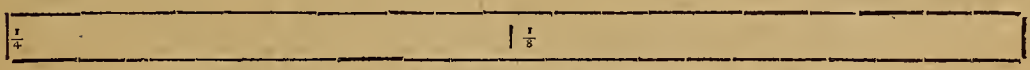
The measures in other parts of Europe are very different both in name and extent, though most of them founded on the geometrical foot, which, varying in length, has occasioned the fixed measures of places to vary also from one another; and before we say any thing of this difference, we shall in part shew it to our readers by a print of some fractions of aunes, &c. of several of the chief trading cities, which will confirm the calculations we shall afterwards give in a general table.



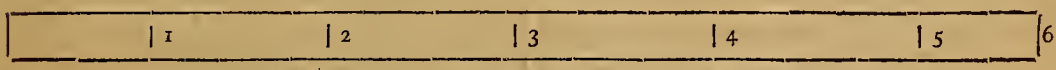
The length of a quarter of the Brabant, or Antwerp aun or ell, having six French inches and four one-half lines.



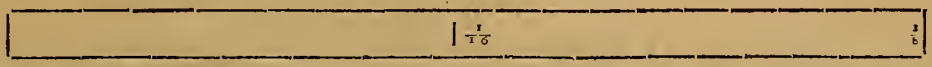
The length of a quarter of the Amsterdam, or Dutch ell, containing six French inches and three one-half lines.



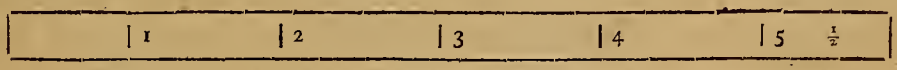
The length of a quarter of a brasse of Venice, for measuring woollens, &c.




The geometrical half French foot of twelve French inches.



The length of one-eighth and one-sixteenth of the Paris ell or aun, containing five inches five one-half lines, or sixty-five one-half lines.




The length of the half-foot of Amsterdam, the whole being eleven French inches.

An aun of Denmark or Copenhagen is reckoned one-third less than the English yard; but, with more exactness, it is twenty-four five-eighths inches English.

The aun of Meinden contains fifteen French inches, and two lines; so that

One hundred aunes of Amsterdam make a trifle less than one hundred and sixty-six aunes of Meinden, and

Two hundred aunes of Meinden make sixty aunes of Amsterdam.

At Genoa, four sorts of long measures are used, viz.

The cane of nine palmes for woollens,

The cane of ten palmes for linens,

The brasse of near two one-third palmes,

The palm for silks and velvets.

The palm is a common span, making eight inches, and is a measure used in most parts of Italy.

The modern palm of Genoa is nine inches two lines, of which four palmes is a trifle less than the Lyons ell.

Eight Genoa canes make fifteen aunes of Lyons, and three three-fourths palmes (of nine to the cane) make an English yard.

One hundred aunes of Amsterdam make a small matter more than thirty canes at Naples; and

One hundred canes of Naples make a trifle more than three hundred thirty-three one half aunes of Amsterdam.

Seventeen canes of Naples are counted equal to thirty-aunes of Lyons.

The cane of Sicily makes eight one-fourth palmes, Marseilles measure, on which footing any larger quantity may be regulated. The Neopolitan palme is eight inches and seven lines.

One hundred canes of Barcelona make two hundred thirty-nine one-half aunes of Amſterdam, with a trifle over; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make forty-one three-fourths canes of Barcelona.

One hundred and eight varas of Cadiz are equal to one hundred Engliſh yards.

At Peterſburgh, eight verſchocks are one arſchin, or twenty-eight Engliſh inches, and one faſchine makes ſeven one-fourth Engliſh feet; ſo that one hundred faſchines make two hundred forty-one two-thirds Engliſh yards, and one hundred Engliſh yards make forty-one three-eighths faſchines, a trifle leſs.

One hundred aunes of Riga make very near one hundred and thirty aunes of Amſterdam; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make about ſeventy-ſeven aunes of Riga.

One hundred aunes of Revel make one hundred twenty-eight eight thirty-ninths auns of Amſterdam; and on the contrary,

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make ſeventy-eight aunes of Revel.

The aun of Coningſberg is one-fourth part ſhorter than that of Amſterdam, ſo that one hundred aunes of this laſt, make about one hundred and twenty of Coningſberg; and one hundred aunes of Coningſberg about eighty of Amſterdam.

Elbing has the ſame meaſures with Dantzick, which may be ſeen in the table.

The foot of Stetin is equal to that of Amſterdam.

One hundred aunes of Lubeck make eighty-three one-third aunes of Amſterdam; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make one hundred and twenty aunes of Lubeck.

One hundred aunes of Bremen are reckoned equal to eighty-three one-half aunes of Amſterdam; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam to make one hundred and twenty aunes of Bremen.

One hundred aunes of Erfort make ſixty-one of Amſterdam, and one hundred of Amſterdam make one hundred and ſixty-four of Erfort.

Six aunes of Langenſaltz make five of Amſterdam, ſo that one hundred aunes of Langenſaltz make eighty-three one-third of Amſterdam; and one hundred aunes of Amſterdam make one hundred and twenty of Langenſaltz.

One hundred aunes of Liege are reckoned eighty of Amſterdam; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make one hundred and twenty-five aunes of Liege.

The aunes of Malines, Ghent, and Bruges, are equal to thoſe of Antwerp.

One hundred aunes of Liſle make one hundred three one-fourth aunes of Amſterdam; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make ninety-ſix aunes of Liſle.

One hundred aunes of Dieppe make one hundred and ſeventy-one of Amſterdam; and one hundred aunes of Amſterdam make fifty-eight one-fourth aunes of Dieppe.

33 canes for linens
100 canes for woollens
374½ palmes
107 braſſes of 3½ palmes
} of Rome, make 100 aunes of Amſterdam.

At Florence and Leghorn, the following meaſures are uſed for ſilks and woollens, viz.

For woollens { palmes of which 349$\frac{2}{9}$ / braſſes of two palmes, whereof 116$\frac{3}{8}$ / canes of eight palmes, whereof 29$\frac{7}{9}$ } makes 100 aunes of Amſter.

For ſilks { palmes, of which 238$\frac{2}{7}$ / braſſes, of two palmes, of which 119$\frac{1}{7}$ / canes, of eight palmes, whereof 29$\frac{11}{14}$ } make 100 aunes of Amſter.

At Lucca, two ſorts of braſſes are in uſe,

Of which { 114$\frac{2}{7}$ for woollens / 119$\frac{1}{7}$ for ſilks } make 100 aunes of Amſterdam.

Eight hundred palmes, or one hundred canes of Naples, make a trifle leſs than three hundred and ten aunes of Amſterdam.

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make two hundred fifty-eight one-eighth palmes, or thirty one-third canes of eight palmes, which palm exactly agrees with three-eighths of an aun, and four lines of a French foot at Amſterdam; and the cane yields there three one-eighth aunes leſs ſix lines of the ſaid foot.

At Palermo, one hundred canes of palmes make a trifle more than two hundred eighty-ſeven three-fourths aunes of Amſterdam; and

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam make thirty-three nine twenty-fifths canes of Palermo.

At Venice, two ſorts of braſſes are uſed, the one to meaſure woollens, and the other for linens and gold ſilver ſtuffs; and that for the woollens conſiſts of two feet eight lines, or two hundred and ninety-ſix lines of the French feet, and is longer by ſix one-fourth *per cent.* than the braſſe for the gold and ſilver ſtuffs; ſo that

One hundred braſſes for woollens make one hundred ſix one-fourth for gold and ſilver ſtuffs, &c. and

One hundred braſſes for gold and ſilver ſtuffs, make ninety-four two-ſeventeenths braſſes for woollens.

100 braſſes for woollens / 100 braſſes for gold, &c. ſtuffs } of Venice, make { 98 / 92$\frac{4}{17}$ } aunes of Amſt.

100 aunes of Amſterdam { 102 braſſes for woollens / 108$\frac{1}{2}$ braſſes of gold, &c. ſtuffs } of Venice.

One hundred pies of Smyrna and Seyde, are computed to be ninety-ſeven aunes of Amſterdam.

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam, make one hundred and three pies of Smyrna, &c.

One hundred pies of Conſtantinople, make ninety-ſeven one-third aunes of Amſterdam.

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam, make one hundred two five-ſevenths pies of Conſtantinople.

One hundred pies of Aleppo, are reckoned to make ninety-eight aunes of Amſterdam.

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam, make one hundred and two pies of Aleppo.

One hundred pies of Alexandria and Roſette, make ninety-ſeven aunes of Amſterdam.

One hundred aunes of Amſterdam, make one hundred and three of Alexandria, &c. and the correſpondency of all the other meaſures in Europe, are to be found in the following table.

MEA

*A table of the agreement and correſpondence which the long meaſure of the principal places in Europe have one with another.*

| The aunes, or ells, of Amſterdam, Haerlem, Leyden, the Hague, Rotterdam, and other cities of Holland; as alſo that of Nuremberg, being all equal, are comprehended under that of Amſterdam; as thoſe of Olnabrug are under thoſe of France; and thoſe of Berne and Baſil are equal to thoſe of Hamburgh, Francfort, and Leipſick. | Make | Aune of England. | Aunes of Holland, or Amſterdam. | Aunes of Brabant, or Anvers, &c. | Aunes of France, or Paris. | Aunes of Hamburgh, Francfort, Leipſick, and Cologn. | Aunes of Breſlaw in Silefia. | Aunes of Dantzick. | Aunes of Bergue and Dronthem. | Aunes of Sweden, or Stockholm. | Aunes of St. Gall, for linens. | Aunes of St. Gall, for cloth. | Aunes of Geneva. | Canes of Marſeilles and Montpelier. | Canes of Toulouſe, &c. | Canes of Genoa of nine palmes. | Canes Rome. | Yards of England, or London. | Varas of Spain. | Varas of Portugal, or Lisbon. | Cavidos of Portugal, or Lisbon. | Braſſes of Venice. | Braſſes of Bergamo, Bologna, Modena, Mantua, &c. | Braſſes of Florence and Leghorn | Braſſes of Milan. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 100 aunes of England | | 100 | 166 2/3 | 162 4/6 | 97 1/2 | 200 1/4 | 208 1/3 | 187 1/2 | 183 1/4 | 195 1/2 | 143 7/8 | 186 2/3 | 100 | 38 1/4 | 62 3/5 | 50 1/3 | 55 1/3 | 125 | 133 1/3 | 101 2/3 | 66 2/3 | 170 1/3 | 174 1/2 | 194 1/7 | 214 1/6 |
| 100 aunes of Holland, or Amſterdam | | 60 | 100 | 98 3/4 | 58 1/2 | 120 | 125 | 112 | 110 | 116 2/3 | 86 | 112 | 60 | 35 | 37 1/2 | 30 | 33 | 74 | 80 | 61 | 100 | 102 | 105 4/5 | 117 | 128 4/5 |
| 100 aunes of Brabant, or Anvers | | 60 4/5 | 101 1/4 | 100 | 58 1/2 | 121 1/2 | 126 3/5 | 114 | 111 2/3 | 118 | 87 | 113 4/5 | 60 3/5 | 35 4/5 | 38 | 30 | 33 | 76 | 81 | 61 3/4 | 101 1/4 | 102 | 106 3/5 | 118 | 130 |
| 100 aunes of France | | 102 | 174 2/3 | 166 2/3 | 100 | 205 1/4 | 213 3/5 | 192 3/5 | 193 1/4 | 199 1/2 | 147 | 191 1/2 | 102 3/5 | 29 1/5 | 31 1/5 | 27 1/5 | 29 1/5 | 66 | 71 1/5 | 54 1/5 | 85 | 85 | 93 3/4 | 106 1/2 | 115 1/2 |
| 100 aunes of Hamburgh, Francfort, &c. | | 50 3/5 | 83 1/3 | 82 1/5 | 48 4/5 | 100 | 104 1/5 | 93 4/5 | 96 4/5 | 97 1/4 | 68 2/3 | 93 1/4 | 54 3/5 | 28 | 31 1/2 | 25 1/4 | 27 1/2 | 60 | 64 | 48 5/6 | 83 1/3 | 83 1/3 | 87 1/2 | 92 1/4 | 112 1/2 |
| 100 aunes of Breſlaw | | 48 3/4 | 80 | 79 | 46 3/5 | 96 | 100 | 90 1/4 | 91 | 93 3/4 | 65 1/4 | 89 1/4 | 52 1/2 | 27 | 30 | 24 1/5 | 26 1/4 | 54 | 61 1/2 | 46 1/2 | 80 | 80 | 87 1/2 | 87 1/4 | 103 1/4 |
| 100 aunes of Dantzick | | 53 1/4 | 89 | 87 1/2 | 53 1/4 | 106 1/4 | 111 1/4 | 100 | 98 | 100 | 76 3/4 | 99 1/4 | 53 3/5 | 31 1/4 | 34 | 27 1/5 | 30 | 68 1/4 | 72 1/5 | 54 1/5 | 89 | 91 | 92 1/4 | 106 1/2 | 115 1/4 |
| 100 aunes of Bergue and Dronthem | | 53 3/4 | 91 | 89 1/4 | 53 1/4 | 109 1/5 | 113 3/4 | 102 3/4 | 100 | 102 1/4 | 68 1/4 | 102 | 54 3/5 | 31 1/2 | 34 1/3 | 27 1/5 | 30 | 68 1/4 | 72 1/5 | 55 1/2 | 91 | 92 1/4 | 103 | 112 1/2 | 122 |
| 100 aunes of Sweden, or Stockholm | | 52 | 87 1/2 | 86 1/2 | 51 1/4 | 105 | 109 1/4 | 96 1/4 | 96 1/4 | 100 1/3 | 75 1/4 | 100 2/3 | 53 | 30 1/4 | 32 3/4 | 25 1/4 | 28 | 65 1/4 | 70 | 55 1/2 | 87 1/2 | 87 1/4 | 136 1/2 | 149 1/2 | 163 1/2 |
| 100 aunes of St. Gall, for linens | | 70 | 116 2/3 | 115 5/6 | 68 1/4 | 140 | 145 3/4 | 131 1/4 | 128 1/4 | 136 1/3 | 100 | 130 2/3 | 70 | 40 1/4 | 43 1/4 | 38 1/4 | 40 | 92 1/4 | 92 1/4 | 71 | 116 | 119 | 122 3/4 | 136 1/2 | 149 1/2 |
| 100 aunes of ditto for cloth | | 53 | 89 1/3 | 88 3/4 | 52 1/4 | 107 5/6 | 111 3/4 | 100 | 98 1/4 | 102 1/4 | 76 3/4 | 100 | 53 1/4 | 31 1/4 | 33 1/2 | 27 1/4 | 29 1/2 | 97 | 101 1/4 | 54 1/2 | 89 1/2 | 91 1/5 | 94 | 104 1/2 | 114 1/4 |
| 100 aunes of Geneva | | 99 3/4 | 166 2/3 | 164 5/6 | 97 1/2 | 200 | 208 1/3 | 187 1/2 | 183 1/4 | 194 1/3 | 143 3/4 | 186 2/3 | 100 | 58 1/3 | 62 1/4 | 53 3/4 | 55 | 124 3/4 | 133 1/3 | 101 1/4 | 166 2/3 | 170 | 175 1/3 | 193 1/4 | 214 1/6 |
| 100 canes of Marſeilles and Montpelier | | 171 3/4 | 266 2/3 | 263 1/4 | 156 | 343 1/5 | 357 1/3 | 321 1/4 | 314 1/4 | 333 1/3 | 246 | 320 | 171 3/4 | 93 1/3 | 107 1/4 | 87 1/4 | 88 | 214 1/2 | 228 1/4 | 162 2/3 | 266 2/3 | 291 1/4 | 301 | 333 1/5 | 367 1/2 |
| 100 canes of Toulouſe, and Languedoc | | 160 3/4 | 266 2/3 | 263 1/4 | 156 | 320 | 333 1/3 | 300 | 293 1/3 | 311 | 229 1/2 | 298 1/4 | 160 | 114 1/2 | 122 2/3 | 100 | 108 | 200 | 213 1/3 | 162 2/3 | 266 2/3 | 272 | 180 3/5 | 309 1/3 | 342 1/2 |
| 100 canes of Genoa of nine palmes | | 196 | 327 1/3 | 323 | 191 1/2 | 392 4/5 | 408 1/3 | 367 1/2 | 359 1/4 | 381 1/2 | 281 1/4 | 366 1/4 | 196 1/2 | 105 | 113 3/4 | 92 1/2 | 100 | 245 1/4 | 261 1/3 | 184 1/2 | 327 | 333 1/4 | 344 1/2 | 381 | 420 1/2 |
| 100 canes of Rome | | 187 1/2 | 303 | 299 1/2 | 177 1/4 | 353 1/2 | 378 1/4 | 340 1/2 | 333 1/4 | 353 1/2 | 260 1/4 | 339 1/2 | 181 1/2 | 46 2/3 | 50 | 40 1/4 | 44 | 227 1/4 | 242 1/2 | 184 1/2 | 303 | 309 | 319 | 353 | 389 1/2 |
| 100 yards of England | | 80 1/4 | 133 1/3 | 131 1/3 | 78 | 160 | 166 2/3 | 150 | 150 | 146 | 114 1/2 | 149 1/3 | 80 | 43 1/4 | 46 1/4 | 38 1/2 | 40 1/4 | 100 | 106 1/3 | 81 1/3 | 133 1/3 | 136 | 140 1/2 | 154 2/3 | 171 1/4 |
| 100 varas of England | | 75 | 125 1/16 | 123 1/2 | 73 1/2 | 150 | 156 1/4 | 140 2/3 | 137 1/4 | 146 | 107 1/2 | 140 | 75 | 43 1/4 | 46 1/4 | 38 1/2 | 40 1/4 | 100 | 106 1/3 | 76 1/4 | 125 | 127 1/2 | 131 1/2 | 145 1/2 | 160 1/4 |
| 100 varas of Spain | | 75 | 164 | 162 | 96 | 150 | 156 1/4 | 140 2/3 | 137 1/4 | 141 | 107 1/2 | 140 | 75 | 43 1/4 | 46 1/4 | 38 1/2 | 40 1/4 | 100 | 106 1/3 | 76 1/4 | 125 | 127 1/2 | 131 1/2 | 145 1/2 | 160 1/4 |
| 100 cavidos of Portugal, &c. | | 60 | 100 | 98 3/4 | 58 1/2 | 120 | 125 | 112 | 110 | 116 2/3 | 86 | 112 | 60 | 35 | 37 1/2 | 30 | 33 | 74 | 80 | 61 | 100 | 102 | 105 4/5 | 117 | 128 |
| 100 braſſes of Venice | | 58 4/5 | 98 | 96 3/4 | 57 1/2 | 117 3/4 | 122 1/2 | 110 1/4 | 107 1/4 | 114 3/4 | 84 1/4 | 109 3/4 | 58 3/4 | 34 1/3 | 36 3/4 | 29 1/4 | 32 1/4 | 73 1/4 | 78 1/4 | 59 3/4 | 96 | 98 | 103 1/3 | 114 5/6 | 126 |
| 100 braſſes of Bergamo, &c. | | 57 | 95 | 93 3/4 | 55 5/6 | 114 | 118 3/4 | 106 3/4 | 104 1/2 | 111 | 81 1/4 | 106 3/4 | 57 | 33 1/4 | 35 3/4 | 28 1/2 | 31 1/4 | 71 1/4 | 76 | 58 | 95 | 95 | 100 | 111 | 122 |
| 100 braſſes of Florence and Leghorn | | 51 1/2 | 85 | 84 5/6 | 50 | 102 3/4 | 106 1/2 | 96 | 96 | 100 | 73 1/2 | 99 | 51 3/4 | 30 | 32 | 25 1/4 | 28 1/2 | 64 | 68 3/4 | 52 1/2 | 85 1/2 | 87 1/2 | 90 | 100 | 109 4/5 |
| 100 braſſes of Milan | | 46 3/4 | 78 | 77 | 45 3/4 | 93 3/4 | 97 1/2 | 87 3/4 | 87 1/5 | 91 | 67 | 100 | 46 3/4 | 27 3/4 | 29 1/4 | 23 4/5 | 25 1/4 | 58 1/2 | 62 5/8 | 47 1/2 | 78 | 79 1/2 | 82 2/5 | 91 | 100 |

By means of the above table may be ſeen, viz. that one hundred aunes of Holland make ninety-eight three-fourths of Brabant or Anvers, and fifty-eight of France. And the fame in reſpect of the agreement of all other meaſures therein mentioned, which may be eaſily found, by going along the lines, to the column of the meaſures fought: for example, if it is wanted to be known how many canes of Marſeilles or Montpelier, make one hundred aunes of France, look for this latter in the left-hand column, and from thence trace the line to the column which has at the head, canes of Marſeilles and Montpelier, and it will be found, that fifty-nine four-fifths canes make the hundred aunes, and ſo for the reſt.

*The following are the measures of France and other countries reduced into feet, inches, and lines, of which twelve lines make an inch, and twelve inches a foot, which may in some measure illustrate the preceding table.*

| | feet. | inc. | lines | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The aun of Paris contains | 3 | 7 | 8 | little more |
| The cane of Provence, Avignon, and Montpelier | 6 | 0 | 9 | |
| The cane of Toulouse, and varra of Arragon | 5 | 5 | 6 | |
| The yard of England | 2 | 9 | 11 | |
| The aune of Holland, Antwerp, and Tournay | 2 | 0 | 11 | little more |
| The aune of Flanders, Brabant, and Germany | 2 | 1 | 5 | |
| The varra of Caſtille | 2 | 7 | 2 | little more |
| The varra of Valencia in Spain | 2 | 9 | 7 | |
| The ras of Piedmont, and the braſſe of Lucca | 1 | 9 | 10 | |
| The braſſe of Venice, Bologna, Modena, and Mantua | 1 | 11 | 3 | |
| The palm of Genoa | 0 | 9 | 1 | |
| The braſſe of Bergame | 2 | 0 | 3 | |
| The braſſe of Florence | 1 | 9 | 4½ | |
| The yard of Seville | 2 | 6 | 11 | |
| The cane of Naples | 6 | 10 | 2 | |
| The aune of Troyes, and arc in the dutchy of Bar | 1 | 5 | 1 | little more |
| The aune of Liſle and Arras | 2 | 2 | 2 | ditto |
| The braſſe of Milan for ſilk | 1 | 7 | 5 | |
| The d° for woollens | 2 | 0 | 11 | little more |

To the above contents of various meaſures, we herewith add a correſpondency of the length of a foot in diverſe places into parts.

| | parts. |
|---|---|
| The foot in England, divided into | 1000 |
| The royal foot of Paris | 1068 |
| The foot of Leyden | 1033 |
| The foot of Amſterdam | 942 |
| The foot of Antwerp | 946 |
| The foot of Louvain | 958 |
| The foot of Malines | 919 |
| The foot of Middlebourg | 991 |
| The foot of Dort | 1184 |
| The foot of the Brille | 1103 |
| The foot Rhindlandick, and that of Berlin | 1033 |
| The foot of Vienna | 1053 |
| The foot of Frankfort on the Maine | 948 |
| The foot of Cologn | 954 |
| The foot of Straſbourg | 920 |
| The foot of Bavaria | 954 |
| The Roman foot | 967 |
| The foot of Venice | 1153 |
| The foot of Mantua | 1569 |
| The foot of Turin | 1062 |
| The foot of Caſtile | 1001 |
| The foot of Toledo | 899 |
| The foot of Liſbon | 917 |
| The foot of Copenhagen | 965 |
| The foot of Dantzick | 944 |
| The foot of Riga | 1831 |

The ſame receptive dry meaſure as is uſed for corn, ſerves alſo in England for ſalt, lime, coals, &c. they being all meted by the Wincheſter meaſure, tho' the firſt is now generally ſold from the pits by weight, reckoning ſeven pounds avoirdupois to the gallon, or fifty-ſix pounds to the buſhel, in freight computation forty-two buſhels is accounted a ton, five buſhels is a ſack, and four hundred weight a quarter. When ſold by meaſure, this commodity and coals muſt be heaped, or elſe five ſtricken pecks are allowed to the buſhel, and of the latter thirty-ſix buſhels make a chaldron. In other parts of Europe, ſalt (which is a more ſtaple and current merchandize than almoſt any other) is bought and ſold by different meaſures, according to the ſeveral places of its diſpatch: for at Amſterdam (where vaſt quantities are imported) it is ſold by the *cent.* of four hundred and four meaſures, or ſcheppels, which *cent.* is reckoned to be ſeven laſts or fourteen tons, and the laſt to weigh four thouſand pounds, ſo that the ſaid ſeven laſts or fourteen tons make twenty-eight thouſand pounds, called the *cent.* of ſalt, which alſo contains two hundred and eight ſacks, tho' ſome of this commodity is much heavier than others. Salt is carried to Amſterdam and all the cities of Holland; Flanders, Brabant, Zeland; other places of the North, and up the Baltic, from Marans, Brouage, Sude, the iſles of Rhé and Oleron; Meche, Rochelle, and other places of Saintonge, and the country of Aunis; from Poliguen, Croiſil, Guerand, the bay of Bourneuf, and other parts of Bretagne; from St. Ubes in Portugal, and from Cadiz, Alamat, and Ivica in Spain.

In the cities and other parts of France, ſalt is ſold by the muid, whoſe ſize varies, acccording to the different places of its manufacture and diſpatch: at Paris this meaſure is reckoned to contain twelve ſetiers, or forty-eight minots, which minot is alſo divided into leſs fractions.

The *cent.* of ſalt from Marans, Brouage, Sude, the iſles of Rhé, &c. contains twenty-eight ſtricken muids, and each muid twenty-four boiſſeaux, which yields at Amſterdam eleven one-half laſts, or twenty-three tons, a little more or leſs, according to the good or bad meetage made at the ponds, or its waſte in the voyage. The ſalts of the iſle of Rhé and Brouage are deemed heavier than thoſe from Oleron, Marans, Mornac, &c. And the *cent.* of theſe weighty ſalts yield at Hamburg eleven one-fourth to eleven one-half laſts, which are forty-five to forty-ſix thouſand pounds.

In Denmark, or Copenhagen, the ſaid *cent.* only renders nine one-half laſts, the laſt being reckoned here equal to eighteen tons, and the fifty laſts to correſpond with fifty-two of Coningſberg; at which place the *cent.* produces about ten laſts, or forty thouſand pounds.

At Riga the ſaid *cent.* yields the ſame meaſure as at Coningſberg, and about ſix one-fourth laſts of Riga make the great *cent.* of Amſterdam.

The ſaid French *cent.* produces at Dantzick eleven one-half to twelve laſts that meaſure, of which laſts ſeven one-fourth to ſeven one-half make likewiſe the great *cent.* of Amſterdam.

At Stetin in Pomerania, the French *cent.* yields ten laſts, making forty thouſand pounds, meaſure and weight of the ſaid place.

In Portugal, ſalt is bought by the muid, of which four make a laſt, and ſeven the *cent.* of Amſterdam, containing (as above) four hundred and four ſcheppels.

At Alamat and Ivica 'tis ſold by the modin, which weighs from twenty-ſeven one-half to twenty-eight hundred Engliſh, and at both places the quantities made are prodigious, being all for the king's account.

Of liquid meaſures in Great Britain, the ordinary ſmalleſt one is called a pint (with its fractions) of which two make a quart, two quarts make a pottle, two pottles make a gallon; eight gallons make a firkin of ale, and nine a firkin of beer; two firkins a kilderkin, and two kilderkins a barrel; one barrel and half a hogſhead, two hogſheads a pipe or butt, and two pipes a tun.

The Engliſh wine meaſures are ſmaller than thoſe of ale and beer, and are proportioned as four to five; ſo that four gallons beer meaſure are almoſt five gallons of wine meaſure; of which latter a gallon is two hundred and thirty-one cubical inches, and eight pounds one ounce, and eleven drams avoirdupois of rain water. Of theſe gallons a runlet of wine holds eighteen, half a hogſhead thirty-one gallons and a half, a tierce forty-two gallons, a hogſhead ſixty-three gallons, a puncheon eighty-four gallons, a pipe or butt one hundred and twenty-ſix, and a tun two hundred and fifty-two gallons, or 2016 pints; by which meaſure are ſold wine, brandy, vinegar, cyder, &c.

Foreign veſſels for containing wine, vinegar, &c. have various denominations, according to their different ſizes, and places of their fabrication.

The wooders of Germany, for holding Rheniſh and Moſelle wines, are different in their guages; ſome containing fourteen aumes Amſterdam meaſure, and others more, or leſs.

The aume is reckoned at Amſterdam for eight ſteckans, or twenty verges or veertels; or for one-ſixth of a tun of two pipes; or four barrels of France or Bourdeaux, which one-ſixth is called at this latter tierçon, becauſe three of them make a pipe, or two barrels, and ſix the ſaid tun.

The ſteckan is ſixteen mingles, or thirty-two pints; and

the verge or veertel is in reſpect of ſaid Rheniſh and Moſelle, and ſome other ſorts of wine, of ſix mingles; but in meaſuring brandy, it conſiſts of ſix mingles and one-ſixth. The aume is divided into four anckers, and the ancker into two ſteckans or thirty-two mingles.

The ancker is taken ſometimes for one-twenty-fourth of a tun, of four barrels; on which footing the Bourdeaux barrel ought to contain at Amſterdam (when the caſk is made according to the juſt guage) twelve ſteckans and one-half, or two hundred mingles, wine and lees; or twelve ſteckans or one hundred and ninety-two mingles racked wine; ſo that the Bourdeaux tun of wine contains fifty ſteckans or eight hundred mingles, wine and lees; and forty-eight ſteckans, or ſeven hundred and ſixty-eight mingles, of pure wine.

The barrels or poinçons of Nantes, and other places on the river Loire, contain only twelve ſteckans Amſterdam meaſure. The wine tun of Rochelle, Cognac, Charente, and the iſle of Rhé, differs very little from the tun of Bourdeaux, and conſequently from the barrels and pipes.

A tun of wine of Chaloſſe, Bayonne, and the neighbouring places, is reckoned ſixty ſteckans, and the barrel fifteen, Amſterdam meaſure.

The muid of Paris contains one hundred and fifty quarts, or three hundred pints, wine and lees, or two hundred and eighty pints clear wine; of which muids three make a tun, and the fractions are,

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The muid | containing | 36 ſetiers |
| The ſetier | | 4 quarts |
| The quart | | 2 pints |
| The pint | | 2 chopins |
| The chopin | | 2 demi-ſetiers |
| The demi-ſetier | | 2 poiſſons |

The muid is alſo compoſed of pipes, poinçons, quarteaux, queues, and demi-queues. Theſe poinçons of Paris and Orleans contain about fifteen ſteckans, Amſterdam meaſure, and ought to weigh with the caſk, ſix hundred and ſixty-ſix pounds a little more or leſs.

In Provence they reckon by milleroles. The millerole of Toulon weighs about one hundred and thirty pounds mark, and ought to contain ſixty-ſix Paris pints, which is near equal to one hundred pints of Amſterdam.

In lower Languedoc, as at Montpelier, &c. the muid contains eighteen ſetiers, and the ſetier thirty-two pots or peckez, ſo that the muid makes five hundred and ſeventy-ſix pots, and yields at Amſterdam thirty-five ſteckans, or five hundred and ſixty mingles; ſo that the pot or peche of Montpelier is leſs than the mingle: but the caſks of Montpelier are never of an equal guage, and ſome muids contain more than others.

The butts or pipes from Cadiz, Malaga, Alicant, Benicarlo, Saloe, and Mataro, in Spain, and from the Canaries ſubject to that crown, from Liſbon, Oporto, and Fayal in Portugal, are very different in their guages, tho' in affreightments are all reckoned two to the tun.

Vinegar is meaſured as the wine; but as the meaſures for brandies are different, we ſhall now give an account of them.

Theſe ſpirits from France, Spain, Portugal, &c. are generally ſhipp'd in large caſks, called pipes, butts and pieces, according to the places from whence they are exported, and differing in their contents, not only from one another, but even among thoſe embarked at the ſame place.

In France brandy is ſhipped in caſks called pieces at Bourdeaux; and pipes at Rochelle, Cognac, the iſle of Rhé, Nants, and other neighbouring places; which contain (as before obſerved) ſome more and ſome leſs, even from ſixty to ninety Amſterdam verges, or veertels, according to the capacity of the veſſels, and the places they come from, which being reduced into barrels, will ſtand as follows, viz.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| At Rochelle, Cognac, the iſle of Rhé, and the country of Aunis | 27 veertels | per barrel |
| At Nants, and ſeveral places of Bretagne, Anjou | 29 veertels | |
| At Bourdeaux and different parts of Guienne | 32 verges | |
| At Amſterdam and other cities of Holland | 30 veertels | |
| At Hamburgh and Lubeck | 30 verges. | |
| At Embden | 27 verges | |

In Provence and Languedoc brandy is ſold by the quintal, the caſks included, and at Bruges in Flanders the verges are called ſeſters, of ſixteen ſtops each, and the ſpirits ſold at ſo much *per* ſtop.

The mingle of brandy at Amſterdam weighs two pounds four ounces mark weight, and the verge or veertel fourteen pounds, a little more or leſs; at which rate the thirty verges muſt weigh four hundred and twenty pounds.

The pieces of brandy ſold at Bourdeaux commonly contain from fifty to eighty verges, and thirty-two verges is reckoned (as has been mentioned) to a barrel; the verge contains three one-half pots, or a little leſs, and the barrel near one hundred and ten pots, Bourdeaux meaſure.

Olive oil is alſo ſhipped in caſks of various ſizes, according to the cuſtom of the places where it is embarked, and for the conveniency of ſtowage. Gallipoly, Leghorn, France, Majorca, and ſeveral other parts of Spain, Portugal, &c. ſupply the northern parts of Europe with this commodity, as well for eating, as cleanſing of woollens, and making of ſoap. In England it is ſold by the tun of two hundred and thirty-ſix gallons, and at Amſterdam by the tun of ſeven hundred and ſeventeen mingles, or fourteen hundred and thirty-four pints; the caſks it is imported in, contain from twenty to ſeventy ſteckans, at ſixteen mingles *per.* ſteckan, the mingle weighing two pounds, and two, three, or four ounces, according to the place of the oil's growth.

It is reckoned that the barrel of oil at Genoa weighs near one hundred and eighty-ſeven one-half pounds nett that weight, which is equal to one hundred and twenty-five pounds at Amſterdam, and fourteen of theſe barrels or thereabouts make the ſaid ſeven hundred and ſeventeen mingles, which ought to weigh ſeventeen hundred and fifty pounds at the laſt mentioned place.

At Leghorn the barrel of oil weighs eighty-five pounds, which a little exceeds fifty-nine pounds at Amſterdam, and is more frequently ſhipp'd in jars and flaſks than caſks.

In Provence it is ſold by millerols of ſixty-ſix Paris pints, which make about one hundred pints of Amſterdam.

From Spain and Portugal it is brought in pipes or butts of different guages; at the firſt it is ſold by roves, of which about forty go to the butt, and at the latter by almoudas, whereof twenty-ſix make a pipe; the almouda contains twelve canadors, and the canador makes near a mingle at Amſterdam.

Train oil is ſold in England by the tun, and at Amſterdam by the barrel of twelve ſteckans.

Honey is ſold with us by the pound, tho' in Amſterdam, where great quantities are imported from Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Bretagne, Provence, Hamburgh, Bremen, and ſeveral other places, it is ſold by the tun, or barrel.

Beer at Amſterdam is commonly put in tuns or barrels, half, quarter, and half quarter of barrels, and ſometimes in pipes, butts, and other ſuch large caſks for their Eaſt and Weſt India proviſions. The tun or barrel ought to contain one aum, or eight ſteckans, making one hundred and twenty-eight mingles, and the other veſſels in proportion.

MECHANICAL ARTS. It is a maxim generally received, that one of the moſt effectual means to ſettle and improve commerce, or any other political intereſts, is the patronage of princes, diſpenſing rewards, and exciting emulation by inveſting with honours, and other marks of diſtinction, thoſe perſons, who, by the force of genius or application, have made new diſcoveries, or improved upon any thing laudable, and conducive to the intereſt of the public; more eſpecially ſuch, as upon the ſtrength of their own genius, and at their ſole charge, have ſet up and maintained manufactories, and other works of the mechanic arts beneficial to the community, and when the introduction of them has been entirely owing to their induſtry and public ſpirit.

MECHOACAN, is the root of a plant of the convolvulus kind, brought to us from the province of Mechoacan in South America. It grows likewiſe in many other parts of America; and in great abundance, according to Mr. Savary, in the iſland of St. Domingo. The beſt ſort of this root is in compact, white ſlices, having a rough bark, and its internal ſubſtance cquable, without any appearance of fibres. It has a ſweetiſh taſte, with a ſmall degree of acrimony. Slices of bryony-root are ſaid to be mixed with thoſe of mechoacan; but the former may be eaſily diſtinguiſhed from the latter by their bitter taſte and fungous appearance.

pearance. This root is rarely to be met with in the ſhops, the paler kinds of jalap being ſold for it; but jalap is a far ſtronger purgative than this. Mr. Geoffroy is of opinion, that mechoacan is one of the ſafeſt and beſt purgatives; and Hoffman orders from the quantity of half a drachm to a drachm of it to be given to boys.

MECKLENBURG, called alſo *Mecklebourg*, a dutchy in Germany, has Pomerania on the eaſt; part of the marquiſate of Brandenburg, and the dutchy of Lunenburg, on the ſouth; the Baltic on the north, and Holſtein and Saxe-Lawenburg on the weſt; being about one hundred miles long, and ſixty broad. It abounds with corn, fruit, fiſh, and fowl; it is well watered with lakes and rivers, and extremely well ſituated on the Baltic for a foreign trade, ſome of the principal Hanſe-towns lying in this dutchy, viz. Roſtock, Wiſmar, Scwerin, &c. [*See* HANSE-TOWNS] which are its principal places of trade.

At Roſtock their chief commodity is beer, that which was formerly called Lubec beer, which they export in large quantities: ſome years ſince they had no leſs than two hundred and fifty privileged brewers, who, it is ſaid, brewed as many thouſand tuns a year, beſides what particular perſons brew for their own uſe: ſo that the duke's revenue, ariſing from the exciſe on beer, is greater than that from all the other articles together. Its river is navigable to the very walls, but large ſhips come no farther than Wamemunde, a little town ſeven miles lower, where the Swedes built a fort formerly.

MECONIUM, the concreted or dried juice of the poppy, which has been expreſſed from the heads and leaves, or from the whole plant; whereas opium is a tear diſtilling from the heads of the poppy, after a ſlight inciſion made therein.

MEDAL, a piece of metal, in the form of a coin, with ſome peculiar ſtamp thereon, deſtined to preſerve to poſterity the portrait of ſome diſtinguiſhed perſonage, or the memory of ſome illuſtrious action.

It not being conſiſtent with the tenor of our work to conſider this article in the mere light of an antiquarian, we ſhall take notice of it only as an object of traffic among the learned and curious, where intereſt frequently is no way concerned, the emulation among ſuch being to inrich their cabinets, and to complete their collections of thoſe eſtimable monuments of antiquity.

There are, however, as Mr. Patin remarks, in many of the principal cities of Germany, many dealers who may properly enough be called antiquarian merchants, ſince they collect medals only with a view to ſell them again for gain; a traffic, ſays the beforementioned learned author, that has its frauds as well as moſt others, and wherein the purchaſer ſhould well examine the merchandize, if he would not receive thoſe for rare and valuable which are of a counterfeit ſtamp.

Meſſieurs Tournefort, Cornelius le Bruyn, and Paul Lucas, the latter in his account of Egypt, and the two others in their voyages to the Levant, ſpeak of the like commerce carried on in the iſlands of the Archipelago, and in almoſt all the ports of the Levant, where the inhabitants of the country, well informed of the taſte which ſtrangers have for curioſities of this nature, take pains to collect them together, and diſpoſe of them at a dear rate, and often with leſs fidelity than the German antiquarians.

Beſides this commerce in medals in Germany and the Levant, which relate only to antiquity, there is a traffic carried on in France for thoſe of a modern kind, which is more to be depended on.

This trade conſiſts chiefly in that numerous and rich ſeries of medals which were ſtruck in order to perpetuate to poſterity the moſt celebrated events in the reign of Lewis the Grand, and thoſe that are yet ſtruck every day, ſays our author, in regard to the reign of Lewis XV.

MEDALLION, *medalion*, a medal of uncommon bigneſs.

Medallions were ſtruck purely to ſerve as public monuments, or as preſents to a perſon in token of honour or eſteem, which the Romans called *miſſilia*.

We have a Nero, a Trajan, and an Alexander Severus. Medallions of gold are very rare, as alſo thoſe of a large copper.

MEDITERRANEAN, is that which paſſes through the midſt of the earth; and for that reaſon the ſea which ſtretcheth itſelf from weſt to eaſt, dividing Europe, Aſia and Africa, is called the Mediterranean Sea; it is mentioned 12 *Car.* II. in the ſtatute of tonnage.

*One per cent. inwards*

By 14 *C.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 35, 36. — { was firſt granted from 29 Septemb. 1662, } during the king's life.

By 1 Jac. II. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 4. continued —— during his life.

By the ſeveral acts which continued the reſt of the branch of cuſtoms —— } continued for ever.

This duty is payable in ready money upon all goods and merchandizes (liable to cuſtoms) imported from any port or place of the Mediterranean Sea beyond the port of Malaga, into any port of Great-Britain, in any ſhip or veſſel that hath not two decks, and doth carry leſs than ſixteen pieces of ordnance mounted, together with two men for each gun, and other amunition proportionable. But Britiſh ſhips exporting from any of his majeſty's dominions fiſh (taken and cured by his majeſty's ſubjects only) ſo that one moiety of their full lading be fiſh only, in that caſe, the goods or merchandizes imported in the ſame ſhip for that voyage, are not liable to this duty. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 3.

| | The duty. |
|---|---|
| The practical method of computing this duty, is by taking | $\frac{1}{5}$th part of the net old ſubſidy and additional duty. |
| Upon exportation | Not drawn back. |

As the ports in the Mediterranean Sea are very numerous, and many of them not commonly known, here follows a liſt of the names of ſuch as are beyond the port of Malaga, collected from the beſt maps and treatiſes of geography.

*Ports in the Mediterranean Sea, beyond the port of Malaga.*

| Ports. | Provinces, &c. | Kingdoms, &c. |
|---|---|---|
| Almunecar, Adra | Granada | Spain. |
| Alboran | an iſland near | Barbary. |
| Almeria, Vera | Granada | Spain. |
| Tenes | | Barbary. |
| Cartagena | Murcia | Spain. |
| Oran | | Barbary. |
| Alicant, Denia | Valencia | Spain. |
| Ivica | an iſland on the coaſt of | Spain. |
| Gandia | Valencia | Spain. |
| Majorca, Minorca | iſlands on the coaſt of | Spain. |
| Algiers | | Barbary. |
| Valencia, Morviedro | Valencia | Spain. |
| Tortoſa, Tarragon, Villa Franca, Barcelona, Girona, Roſes, Perpignan | Catalonia | Spain. |
| Narbonne | Languedoc | France. |
| Marſeilles, Toulon, Hieres, Frejuls, Grace, Antibes, Vence | Provence | France. |
| Nice, Villa Franca | Piedmont | Italy. |
| Monaco, Vintimiglia, Oneglia, Albegna, Finale, Savona, Noli, Genoa, Raphello, Sarzana | Genoa | Italy. |

| Ports. | Provinces, &c. | Kingdoms, &c. |
|---|---|---|
| Lucca | Lucca | Italy |
| Leghorn, Piombino | Tuſcany | Italy |
| Corſica, Sardinia, Several ſmall | iſlands on the coaſt of Italy. | |
| Gigel, Bona, Biſerta, Tunis | Algier, Tunis | Barbary |
| Orbitello | Tuſcany | Italy |
| Civita Vecchia, Oſtia | Papacy | Italy |
| Gaeta, Naples, Sorrento, Amalfi, Salerno, Policaſtro, Tropea, Regio | Naples | Italy |
| Lipra, Sicily, Several ſmall | iſlands on the coaſt of Italy. | |
| Mahometa, Cabes, Malta, and other ſmall iſlands, Tripoli | on the coaſt of Barbary. | |
| Squillacce, Taranto, Gallipoli | Naples | Italy. |
| Otranto, Brindiſi, Bari, Trani, Barletta, Manfredonia | Naples | Italy. |
| Fermo, Ancona, Fano, Rimino, Ravenna | Papacy | Italy. |
| Venice, Aquileia, Pola, Trieſta, Cabo d'Iſtria, Citta Nouva | Venice | Italy. |
| Charſo, Oſero, Veglia, Arba, Pago, And other | iſlands on the coaſt of | Dalmatia. |
| Zara, Sebenico, Spalutro, Raguſa, Cartaro | Dalmatia | Turkey in Europe. |
| Doleigno, Aleſſio, Durazzo, Vallona | Albania | Turkey in Europe. |
| Saſeno, an iſland on the coaſt of Epirus. | | |
| Chimera, Butrinto, Larta | Epirus | Turkey in Europe. |
| Lepanto | Achaia | Turkey in Europe. |
| Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Several ſmall | iſlands | on the coaſt of Greece. |
| Morea | a peninſula | on the coaſt of Greece. |
| Candia | an iſland | on the coaſt of Greece. |
| Archipelago | iſlands on the coaſt of Romania | Turkey in Europe. |
| Rhodes, Cyprus, Chios or Scio, Several ſmall | iſlands on the coaſt of | Aſia Minor. |
| Smyrna | Ionia | Aſia Minor. |
| Alexandretta or Scandaroon | Syria | Aſia Minor. |

*One per cent. Outwards.*

By 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 35. was firſt granted from twenty-nine Sept. 1662. during the king's life.

By 1 Jac. II. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 4. continued during his life.

By the ſeveral acts which continue the ſubſidy outwards, continued, for ever.

This duty is payable in ready money, without diſcount, upon all goods and merchandizes liable to ſubſidy (except foreign goods uſed in dying) exported from any port of Great-Britain, capable of a ſhip or veſſel of two hundred tons upon an ordinary full ſea, to any part or place of the Mediterranean Sea, beyond the port of Malaga, in any ſhip or veſſel that hath not two decks, and doth carry leſs than ſixteen pieces of ordnance mounted, together with two men for each gun, and other amunition proportionable.

| | The duty. |
|---|---|
| It is one-fifth part of the aforeſaid ſubſidies upwards, or for every twenty ſhillings of the reſpective rates or values of the goods. | 0 0 $2\frac{8}{20}$ or 1 *per cent.* |

For the places ſubjecting ſhips to this duty, ſee as above, one *per cent.* inwards.

MEDITERRANEAN PASSES. Counterfeiting, altering, or eraſing them, or knowingly uttering or publiſhing ſuch counterfeited, altered, or eraſed paſſes, is felony without benefit of clergy. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1.

MEDWAY RIVER, pilots thereon how to be licenſed, 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20.

MELASSES, *molaſſes*, *moleſſes*, that groſs fluid matter that remains of ſugar after refining, which no boiling can bring to a conſiſtence more ſolid than that of ſyrup.

Properly melaſſes are the ſediment of one ſugar called chypre, or brown ſugar: there is a kind of ſpirit diſtilled from melaſſes. *See* SUGAR.

Melaſſes, to what duties liable, 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſs.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 35.

MELETITES, in natural hiſtory, is of the nature of the thyites, which is indurated clay, and accordingly has, from its hardneſs and compact texture, been taken for ſtones, and called, by the writers in general on theſe ſubjects, *lapis meletites*, *lapis galactites*, &c.

This is a very compact, denſe, and firm ſubſtance, leſs hard indeed than the thyites or morochthus, but more ſo than any other of the bodies of this claſs; it is naturally of an extremely ſmooth and gloſſy ſurface, and ſo ſoft to the touch, that it might be ſuſpected, by a perſon unacquainted with theſe bodies, to have been rubbed over with ſome fat ſubſtance.

When broken it appears of an even and regular ſtructure, and not compoſed of arrangements of any viſible corpuſcles: it is uſually met with in ſmall maſſes of an ounce or two in weight, which are frequently rounded into the ſhape of pebbles: this has been ſuppoſed by ſome to be the effect of art, but it is a natural conſequence of their having been rolled about in the beds of rivers, and having had their angles rubbed off by the continual friction againſt other harder bodies.

If heated in a common fire, it loſes its yellow colour entirely, becoming of a fine bright white, but it acquires little or no additional hardneſs; when urged by a more violent heat, it turns into a blue coarſe glaſs, but it requires a very ſtrong one to do that.

It was anciently found in Egypt and Ethiopia; at preſent it is often found in the German mines, filling up many fiſſures in the rocks, and likewiſe in the beds of rivers, in Italy, and ſome parts of France. When found in the earth, we uſually ſee it in flat pieces of various irregular figures; but that which is found in rivers, is uſually of the pebble ſhape, rounded and of a very regular ſurface. The ancients eſteemed it a vulnerary, and they ground it down into a thick liquor with water, and waſhed ulcers with it: they alſo gave it internally to people who were to ſuffer operations in ſurgery, which, in their time, were terrible enough, in order to prevent their feeling the pain; but this ſeems to have had

had very little foundation in reaſon. At preſent it is little known in the world, and where it is found, is uſed for no better purpoſe than that of marking in the manner of chalk. It obtained its name from the Greek Μελ, *honey*. Some Authors tell us, that it was thus called from its having the ſweetneſs of that ſubſtance, but it ſeems much more likely to have been ſo denominated from its colour, which comes much nearer to honey than its taſte does.

MELILOT, *melilotus* in botany, is one of the *diadelphia decandria* of Linnæus, and one of the *herbæ flore papilionaceo trifoliatæ* of Ray's. It is deſcribed by all the botanical writers under the name of *melilotus vulgaris*, *melilotus flore luteo*, and *melilotus Germanica*.

Melilot is ſcarce ever given internally, but, externally uſed, is a great emollient, reſolvent, and digeſtive. It is a good ingredient in cataplaſms and fomentations of this intention, and in clyſters. It uſed to be an ingredient in the plaiſter employed in dreſſing bliſters, but its virtues in that form being very little, and the green colour expected from it eaſily counterfeited with verdigreaſe, it is now left out of that compoſition. The flowers are recommended by ſome in infuſion, in the manner of thoſe of camomile, as a remedy for the *fluor albus*.

MELINDA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

MELLI. The country formerly called Melli, now chiefly inhabited by the Mundingoes, who ſtill retain pretty much of the character aſcribed to the people of Melli, lies to the ſouth of the river Gambia; on the weſt it borders on the kingdom of Kabo, on the ſouth it has Melli properly ſo called, and the mountains that part it from Guinea, and on the eaſt it extends to the kingdom of Gago.

A great part of this country we are little acquainted with, as is the caſe with regard to moſt of the inland territories of Africa, but towards the ſea coaſt this country is a little better known.

The firſt place of note we meet with is, Kachao, a Portugueſe colony, ſituated on the river of St. Domingo, which falls into the ſea about twenty-ſix leagues below this town.

About twenty-ſix leagues above Kachao, on the ſame ſide of the river, is another trading town called Farini, where, in the months of October and November, one may trade for about half the quantity of wax and ivory which is traded for at Kachao. Here are alſo ſome ſlaves to be bought.

Bot is a village near the mouth of the river Geſves, where moſt of the traders buy rice, which is in great plenty here, and very good.

Geſves is a village on a river of the ſame name, on which the Portugueſe have a factory. At Geſves one may trade yearly for two hundred and fifty ſlaves, eighty or one hundred quintals of wax, and as many of ivory.

Near the mouth of the river of Geſves, is a village called Kurbali, where there is a conſiderable trade for ſalt: here are alſo ſold ſome ſlaves and ivory.

Rio Grande, or the Great River, runs about ten or twelve leagues to the ſouth of the river of Geſves. About eighty leagues from the mouth of it is a nation of negroes, who are good traders in ivory, rice, millet, and ſome ſlaves. They are called Analous.

Over againſt the mouth of Rio Grande, is a cluſter of iſlands called Biſſago iſles, the moſt conſiderable of which is Caſagut, being about ſix leagues long and two broad: its ſoil is very good, and produces millet, rice, and all kinds of pulſe, beſides orange and palm trees, and many others. This iſland, with thoſe of Carache, Canabac and La Gallina, are the only ones where the Europeans may trade with ſome ſecurity. They trade, however, ſometimes at the other iſlands, but they muſt be extremely cautious; for after all their precautions, they will be robbed and murdered, if they venture to go aſhore.

The river Nunho runs ſixteen leagues to the ſouth of Rio Grande; it is very conſiderable, and comes from a vaſt diſtance in land. One may buy here three hundred quintals of ivory, and one hundred ſlaves a year. Rice grows here admirably well, and is very cheap. There are every where ſugar canes, which grow naturally, and plants of indigo, which might turn to good account. The trade is carried on here from March till Auguſt.

In the river of Sierra Leone, the late Royal African company of England had, in the year 1728, two iſlands; the one called Taſſo, a large flat iſland, near three leagues in circumference, in which the company's ſlaves had a good plantation: the reſt of the iſland is covered with wood, among which are ſilk, and cotton-trees of a prodigious ſize.

The other iſland is Benſe, whereon ſtood a regular fort. It was formerly the reſidence of one of the Engliſh chiefs.

MEMBERS. *See* PORTS.

MEMCEDA, a liquid meaſure uſed at Mocha in Arabia, it contains three chopines of France, and forty memcedas make one teman.

MEMPHITES, *lapis memphiticus*, in natural hiſtory, a kind of ſtone of a pinguious ſubſtance, parti-coloured, and found near Memphis in Egypt, from which it took its name. Dioſcorides relates, that this ſtone levigated and rubbed on the parts which are to ſuffer cutting or burning, they become inſenſible. What this ſtone was, has been unknown ſince the time of Dioſcorides.

MENTZ, an archbiſhopric and electorate in Germany. It lies on the banks of the river Mayne, between the electorate of Triers on the weſt, the Palatinate on the ſouth, Franconia on the eaſt, and the Wetteraw on the north. It is about ſixty miles in length, from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and about fifty in breadth.

A conſiderable part of the elector's revenue ariſes from the toll on the Rhine and the Mayne, and from the tax on the excellent wines produced in his country.

The chief towns of any trade are, 1. Mentz, on the Rhine, near its confluence with the Mayne. This city claims a right to the invention of the art of printing, which certainly was firſt brought to great perfection by Fauſt, or Guttenberg, about the year 1450.

Here is a very beautiful key along the river, defended by ſeveral works, well fortified with cannon. That part of the city which extends towards the river is moſt populous. The beſt vineyards for Rheniſh wines being in this neighbourhood, Mentz has a flouriſhing trade in that commodity more particularly, and its commerce is the briſker, by reaſon that all the merchandize which paſſes up and down the Rhine ſtops in its harbour, to change bottoms. In this neighbourhood is Hockhem, ſo celebrated for good wines, that the beſt Rheniſh is from thence called *old hock*.

2. Bingen is a pleaſant ſmall town, which ſtands in the diſtrict called Rhingaw, which is ſo populous, that it looks like one entire town, intermixed with gardens and vineyards. The riſing grounds about it produce wines that are eſteemed preferable to thoſe of Baccharac, ſo much in vogue heretofore.

3. Elfeld, five miles weſt from Mentz, is a ſtrong fortified town, on the north ſide of the Rhine, and the chief of the Rhingaw. Here is Roderheim, a place noted for the growth of the beſt wines in theſe parts.

4. Wieſbaden lies between ſix and ſeven leagues from Frankfort, and about five or ſix miles north of Mentz: it is the metropolis of a country belonging to the branch of Naſſau Saarbrack, and is famous for its mineral waters.

MERCATOR'S *Chart*, in navigation. *See Mercator's* CHART.

MERCATOR'S *Sailing*, that performed by Mercator's chart.

MERCER'S COMPANY, proviſions for relief of their creditors, 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. Three hundred pounds to be paid annually to the mercer's company towards payment of annuities, debts, &c. 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. For the relief of the bond and other creditors of the wardens and commonalty of the myſtery of mercers of the city of London, 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 50.

MERCHANT. The term *Merchant*, (in Latin *Mercator*) or *Trader*, from *Tradendo*, as Minſhew derives it, is in England, according to the general acceptation of the word, now confined to him who buys and ſells any commodities in groſs, or deals in exchange; that trafficks in the way of commerce, either by importation or exportation; or that carries on buſineſs by way of emption, vendition, barter, permutation, or exchange; and that makes a continued aſſiduity or frequent negociation in the myſtery of merchandizing his ſole buſineſs.

It is true, that formerly every one, who was a buyer or ſeller in the retail way, was called a merchant, and they continue to be deemed ſo ſtill, both in France and Holland; but here ſhopkeepers, or thoſe who attend fairs and markets, have loſt that appellation.

The mercantile profeſſion is very ancient, and generally eſteemed noble and independent: in France, by two arrets

of Lewis XIV. the one in 1669, and the other of 1701, a nobleman is allowed to trade both by land and ſea, without any diſparagement to his nobility; and we have frequent inſtances of merchants being ennobled in that country, in regard of the utility their commerce, and the manufactures they have ſet up, has produced to the ſtate. In Bretagne, even a retail-trader does not derogate from his nobility, which only ſleeps whilſt he continues to exerciſe it, or, in other words, he only ceaſes to enjoy the privileges of his nobleſſe, whilſt he carries on commerce, and re-aſſumes it by giving over trade, without any letter or inſtrument of rehabilitation. In many other ſtates, and more eſpecially in the republics of Venice, Holland, and Genoa, its value increaſes, and we wiſh we could ſay the ſame regard was paid it in England, as it merits from a trading nation; but its importance is not ſo juſtly conſidered by us as it ought to be, more eſpecially, as we enjoy every deſirable advantage for carrying it on; and, could the gentlemen engaged in it be brought to this way of thinking, and be perſuaded to do juſtice to a profeſſion we all eſteem honourable, by a ſtricter imitation of the above-mentioned ſtates, and, not only to ſtudy, but appropriate their aſſiduity and diligence (more eſpecially that practiſed by our induſtrious Flemiſh neighbours) from a ſincere conviction of the excellency of the mercantile employ, we ſhould ſoon outſtrip every competitor, and render the Britiſh merchant as celebrated as the Britiſh valour or the Britiſh power, which he, more than others, contributes to ſupport. It is true, that trade ſtands ſo fair in the eſteem of an Engliſhman, and promiſes ſo many occaſions either for raiſing or improving a fortune, that many younger ſons and brothers of peers are frequently bred up to, and embrace it; but then they are too apt to quit it on ſucceeding to the dignities of their families, or to ſome public employment, and withdraw thoſe funds, which might otherwiſe be continued in it, both to their own and the nation's emolument; whereas, was a contrary practice obſerved, and could many (whoſe immenſe riches enable them) be perſuaded to purſue their firſt beginnings, and deſtine part of their great effects to run into this channel, we ſhould ſee commerce yet daily improve, and many more active profeſſors ſhining at the head of it than we now do, a number of important enterprizes might be undertaken, and happily concluded, to the no ſmall increaſe both of public and private intereſt: but it is an unhappineſs in regard to traffic, that many gentlemen who have been enriched by it, or their inheritors, frequently withdraw from it, either to live in retirement, or, by an advancement to honours and poſts, change the tranquil and pleaſurable mercantile employ for the more troubleſome, though ſplendid one, of grandeur and power; and notwithſtanding ſuch may, and undoubtedly often do, look down on their quondam buſineſs, as derogatory and now beneath them, yet a prime miniſter of France, and ſeveral ſucceſſive grand dukes of Tuſcany, we ſhould think might countenance any one's continuance in it, as they deemed it no diſparagement to their high ſtations, to be diſtinguiſhed for their trade, as well as for their eminence and greatneſs. And, to ſhew how commerce is thought of by moſt foreigners, we may ſubjoin to the examples quoted of the regard paid it, that many of the Italian princes are the principal merchants of their ſtates, and think it no diſcredit to make their palaces ſerve as warehouſes. Many of the kings of Aſia, moſt of thoſe on the coaſt of Africa and Guinea, traffic with the Europeans, either in perſon or by their miniſters; ſo that, in reality, Spain is the only country we know of, where the mercantile employ is in diſrepute; and there it is counted leſs ignoble and ungenerous to beg, than ſolicit a ſupport, or improve a fortune, by merchandizing. And, before we proceed to mention the laws in force concerning traders, we ſhall here deſcribe their neceſſary qualifications, and give ſome few rules for their conduct, tending to ſecure them the ſucceſs they aim at.

Previous to a man's engaging in a general trade, and becoming an univerſal dealer, he ought to treaſure up ſuch a fund of uſeful knowledge, as may enable him to carry it on with eaſe to himſelf, and without riſking ſuch loſſes and diſguſts, as great ill-concerted undertakings will naturally expoſe him to; wherefore, to reduce this neceſſary ſcience to a proper regulation, we ſhall recommend the following particulars to his acquirement, and, if his trade is more limited, his learning and knowledge may be ſo too.

*The general merchant then ſhould learn,*

1. To write properly and correctly.
2. All the rules of arithmetic, which have any affinity or relation to commerce.
3. To keep books of double and ſingle entry, as journals, leidger, &c.
4. To be expert in the order and forms of invoices, accounts of ſales, policies of inſurance, charter-parties, bills of lading, and bills of exchange.
5. To know the agreement between the monies, weights, and meaſures of all parts.
6. If he deals in ſilk, woollen, linen, or hair manufactories, he ought to know the places where the different ſorts of merchandizes are manufactured, in what manner they are made, what are the materials of which they are compoſed, and from whence they come, the preparations of theſe materials before working up, and to the merchandizes after their fabrication.
7. The lengths and breadths which ſilk, woollen, or hair ſtuffs, linens, cottons, fuſtians, &c. ought to have, according to the divers ſtatutes and regulations of the places where they are manufactured, with their different prices according to their times and ſeaſons, and, if he can add to his knowledge the different dyes and ingredients which enter for the formation of the various colours, it will not be uſeleſs.
8. If he confines his trade to that of oils, wines, &c. he ought to inform himſelf particularly of the appearances of the ſucceeding crops for his government in diſpoſing of what he has on hand; or to learn, as exactly as he can, what they have produced when got in, for his direction in making the neceſſary purchaſes and engagements.
9. What are the ſorts of merchandizes which are found more in one country than another, them which are ſcarce, their different ſpecies and qualities, and the propereſt method for bringing them to a good market, either by land or ſea.
10. Which are the merchandizes permitted or prohibited, as well entering as going out of the kingdom or eſtates where they are made.
11. The price of exchange, according to the courſe of different places, and what is the cauſe of its riſe and fall.
12. The cuſtoms due on importation or exportation of merchandizes, according to the uſages of the places, tariſs, and regulations, that he trades to.
13. The beſt manner of folding up, embaleing, or tunning the merchandizes for their preſervation.
14. The price and condition of freighting, and inſuring ſhips and merchandizes.
15. The goodneſs and value of all neceſſaries for the conſtruction and repairs of ſhipping, the different manners of their building, what the wood, the iron, the maſts, the cordage, the anchors, cannons, ſails, and all requiſites may coſt.
16. The wages commonly given to the captains, officers, and ſailors, and the manner of engaging with them.
17. The foreign languages (or at leaſt as many of them as he can attain to) which may be reduced to four principal ones, viz. 1. The Spaniſh, which is in uſage in almoſt all the Eaſt, particularly on the coaſt of Africk, from the Canaries to the Cape of Good Hope. 2. The Italian, underſtood on all the coaſts of the Mediterranean, and in many parts of the Levant. 3. The Teutonick, or German, which is underſtood in almoſt all the Northern countries. And, 4. French, which is now become almoſt univerſally current, faſhionable, and uſeful.
18. The conſular juriſdiction with the laws, cuſtoms, and uſages, of the different countries he does or may trade to; and generally all the ordinances and regulations which have any relation to commerce, either at home or abroad.
19. In fine, although it is not preciſely neceſſary that a merchant be very learned, it is, notwithſtanding, very proper that he knows ſomething of hiſtory, particularly that of his own country, geography, hydrography, or the ſcience of navigation, and that he has knowledge of the diſcoveries of the countries where trade is eſtabliſhed, in

what manner it is ſettled, of the companies which are formed to ſupport thoſe eſtabliſhments, of the colonies that they have ſent out, of which he need not want memoirs, as almoſt all are inſerted in this work, and which he may alſo learn from the relations of travellers; all theſe things are of a very great utility for the enterprizes of commerce, which he may have a deſign to undertake.

We may add to the foregoing requiſites for forming a merchant, that he ought, on all occaſions, to have a ſtrict regard to truth, and avoid fraud and deceit as corroding cankers to his reputation and fortune; for, however cunning the maſk is wore, chance may, or time certainly will, diſcover the cheat, and render the wearer expoſed to the contempt and inſults of thoſe he has impoſed on; and, to what has been ſaid, permit us to ſubjoin the advice, that he who undertakes a foreign trade ſhould do it with great caution and circumſpection, obſerving ſeveral circumſtances tending to ſecure him ſucceſs: as firſt to make himſelf maſter of that branch of commerce he intends to engage in; and, if he does not tranſact this buſineſs perſonally, to be cautious in his choice of factors; above all, that they be noted for their capacity and integrity, otherwiſe the beſt laid ſcheme may be rendered abortive, and produce a conſiderable loſs, inſtead of an expected advantage, through the treachery, neglect, or ignorance of the agent; for which reaſon, a trader ſhould not be drawn in to employ a factor, with whoſe character he is unacquainted, from any motive whatſoever, even from that moſt prevailing one, of ſerving for a leſs commiſſion than what others commonly do, as we are ſure no trade is worth carrying on, that will not afford the allowance generally made to thoſe the merchant thinks proper to ſubſtitute and employ. His firſt care, therefore, ſhould be the choice of ſuch a correſpondent as he can depend on, whoſe integrity will naturally lead him aſſiduouſly to ſolicit and promote the intereſt of his principal, unbiaſſed by any ſiniſter views of his own. But as merchants, who engage in the foreign trade, as well as thoſe who confine themſelves to one at home, tranſact a great part of the buſineſs themſelves, we ſhall here add ſome valuable remarks for their government in purchaſes and ſales, partly extracted from M. Savary's *Parfait Negociant*, and partly what our own experience has furniſhed us with, as they may be equally ſerviceable to an Engliſh and French reader, though Mr. Savary's ſhare of them was principally intended for the latter.

Trade becomes more or leſs troubleſome, according as it is more or leſs extenſive; and it is for this reaſon that merchants ought to appropriate different maxims and conſiderations for the conduct and management of their affairs.

Thoſe who traffic in the merchandizes of our own manufactories, or confine their trade to the conſumption of one city only, run leſs riſques, and carry on their buſineſs eaſier than thoſe who diſpoſe of their goods, not only in the place of their reſidence, but to dealers or retailers in other parts of the kingdom, or abroad; this ſhall be explained after treating of the manner which merchants ought to obſerve in the purchaſe of commodities, and the eſtabliſhing fabrics themſelves.

And for this it is to be remarked, that in places where any conſiderable manufactories are ſettled, there are generally aſſociated merchants, who ſupply the fabricators with the neceſſary materials for their works, which they ſell them, and in payment take their goods, which they afterwards diſpatch in other places, or on the ſpot, to ſupply commiſſions given them.

Though there are ſome of the artificers ſo opulent, as to buy and procure the ingredients they want for the ſupply of their manufactories from firſt hands; yet there are others, who (being maſters of leſs ſtock) ſell their goods to the firſt purchaſers that aſk after them.

Now merchants muſt govern themſelves in their dealings with theſe three ſorts of men, according as the times and ſeaſons ſhall dictate; for in thoſe, when the merchandizes are ſcarce and in demand, they muſt buy of all as well as they can, and according to the advantages that may preſent; but, when commerce is dead, or little ſtirring, and abundance of goods lying on hand, they ſhould then act with circumſpection, and obſerve the following maxims in all their purchaſes.

1. When goods begin to riſe in price (which commonly proceeds from theſe two cauſes, either that the value of the materials is conſiderably augmented on account of their ſcarcity, or that there are but few goods ready-made, to ſupply a briſk demand) it is natural for thoſe that are perfected to increaſe in eſteem, in proportion to the want and paucity of them; but it is prudence in him that would buy under ſuch circumſtances, to examine the cauſes that produce this augmentation; and, if the goods are of ſilk, enquire whether the crop of that commodity has been good or bad, though, if the ſeaſon has been moiſt and rainy at the place of its growth, he may be aſſured of the latter, and that the ſcarcity of the merchandize proceeds from this of the principal material.

It is equally the ſame in the manufactories of cloth, and other woollens, when wools are ſcarce and riſen in price; and the ſame with linens under the ſhortneſs of the crop of hemp and flax, and indeed of all ſorts of materials, which compoſe the manufactures of the different ſorts of merchandizes, current in trade; becauſe the ſcarceneſs of theſe (as has been ſaid) augments their price, and conſequently that of the commodities made of them.

There is no doubt, that when the augmented price of merchandizes proceeds from the ſcarcity of their materials, that it not only remains ſo long, but that it daily riſes by little and little, and in this caſe affords the merchant no room for deliberation, who ought immediately to buy and make his bargain, to receive yet afterwards (in a certain time) the quantity he judges he may want to ſell.

If the riſe of goods comes from there being few in the fabrics, and a great demand for them, and not through a want of the materials which compoſe them, the buyer ought to act with ſagacity and prudence in their purchaſe; becauſe this probably is a fire that will ſoon paſs, and this augmentation laſt no longer than the warmth that occaſioned it, for two reaſons; the firſt, becauſe it may be chance effected it, proceeding from ſome merchants of different places accidentally giving their commiſſions at the ſame time, or that they happened to meet at the manufactories, which makes the fabricators ſtand firm to their prices; though, when theſe merchants are ſupplied, things return to the ſame ſtate they were in before, and ſuch an occurrence makes them ſometimes even diminiſh greatly in their value, becauſe the workmen, ſeeing themſelves ſought after, engage deeply in their fabrics, and the abundance then occaſions a cheapneſs, in the ſame manner, as a ſcarcity before produced the reverſe; and theſe conſiderations are very important towards ſucceſsful purchaſes.

2. The ſecond maxim, neceſſary to be obſerved in the buying of merchandizes, is, to be extremely circumſpect in his words, that his deſire of having the goods he is treating for, may not appear; and he ſhould not ſlight or undervalue them, in order to be thought not to want them, as this cunning only ſerves to embarraſs the mind of the manufacturer, and make him more firm and tenacious under the uncertainty, whether this is a feint or not, and is a means of his not ſo ſoon reſolving to part with his goods at the price offered, for fear of being ſurprized: on the contrary, he ought to act with ſincerity and frankneſs, accompanied, however, with prudence, workmen liking better to deal with ſuch ſort of chapmen, than with thoſe who uſe tricks and ſubtlety.

3. The third is to conſider whether the merchandize has diminiſhed in price from a higher degree to which it was before mounted, or whether it augmented in price from a lower one, at which it was, by reaſon of a dulneſs in trade, or by the too great abundance that there has been in the fabricks: this is the greateſt nicety in the buyers.

For if it is at the height of its dearneſs, and it comes to fall, then you ought not to buy, becauſe it is certain, that if the cauſe which made it mount to ſo high a price ceaſes, that it will daily diminiſh, till it returns to the point of its juſt value.

On the contrary, if the goods are at their loweſt value, and the price begins to riſe, it is then a time to buy, becauſe it is certain that it will daily augment, ſo long as the cauſe which gave room for its augmentation laſts.

And though what has been ſaid may appear a paradox, it is, however, a truth founded on experience, and by which

which the moſt ſkilful and ingenious merchants have greatly loſt or gained, according as they have timely taken their meaſures or neglected them.

4. The fourth maxim in the purchaſe of goods is, both to know and reflect where they will meet the beſt ſales, and then ſuit their quality to the taſte of the inhabitants.

5. The fifth maxim is to buy of the pooreſt workmen, becauſe, they, not having the means to lay up their manufactures, muſt ſell cheaper than the more powerful ones will, who have ſubſtance, and can keep their goods till a fit opportunity offers for a more advantageous ſale.

6. The ſixth maxim is, not to be drawn in to engage beyond your capital by the tempting bait of a cheap purchaſe, and from a wrong calculation of your ability to pay at the time agreed on; as a failure of punctuality herein will occaſion a loſs of credit among the fabricators not to be recovered.

7. The ſeventh maxim is not to employ, as factors at the fabric, any who act as merchants, and ſell the materials to the manufacturers; for they always buy the goods dearer than others who have nothing to ſell, becauſe they give a part in payment, and very often to recover from their debtors, they take of them merchandizes in payment, which are neither ſo good nor handſome as thoſe bought with ready money.

8. The eighth and laſt maxim, which we ſhall mention on this ſubject, is, that if the buyer has a partner, one of them ſhould be on the ſpot, for two reaſons; firſt, becauſe, being intereſted in the trade, he is more diligent, and takes better care of what he does, than a factor, who often regards nothing more than his own intereſt, and who, having commiſſions from ſeveral merchants, favours thoſe he pleaſes: the ſecond is, becauſe affairs are tranſacted more ſecretly, and, many times, opportunities offer for good purchaſes, which one commiſſioned doth not dare to engage in, though on ſuch adventures large profits are frequently to be made.

Theſe maxims alſo hold good in the purchaſe of all other commodities, and, if carefully attended to, will lead the merchant in the ſteps he ought to tread, to ſecure ſucceſs; and as theſe have been directed to guide him in laying out his money to the beſt advantage, we ſhall now borrow the aſſiſtance of the ſame author to furniſh him with proper directions for his management in conducting his ſales. And,

Firſt, The merchant ſhould avoid many words and circumlocutions in his dealings, as this looks more like a retailer than one who is not ſo; and, ſuppoſing he is treating with one of this laſt diſtinction, he may be aſſured, that the buyer underſtands the value of the goods, ſo that the merchant only occaſions himſelf an unneceſſary trouble to aſk much out of the way; therefore, what is principally to be obſerved in ſales on truſt is, that his debtor be one noted for his punctuality and honeſty, and alſo diſpatches large quantities of goods, as theſe motives ſhould induce a preference to be given one ſo qualified, (though with leſs profit) rather than to another with an inferior credit and a ſhorter trade.

2. If the merchandizes dealt in are ſuch as are dependent, in ſome ſort, for their value on the mode, ſeaſons ought to be conſulted for advantageous ſales; ſo that, if thoſe proper for the winter are aſked for at the latter end of it, it is not reaſonable to expect ſo much then as in the beginning, neither is it conſiſtent with the owner's intereſt to keep them, as he may have no other offers till the returning year, and he then riſques their continuing in faſhion, ſo that it will be prudent to embrace any tolerable offer, under theſe circumſtances, that is made him.

3. He ought not to truſt too much to any one perſon; for, in caſe of a failure, it may ſtraiten him, and, in the end, bring him to the ſame misfortune; therefore prudence will direct him to diſperſe his effects in many hands, that, if one or two miſcarry, he may be leſs ſenſible of his loſs, and better able to ſupport it: this is a very neceſſary maxim to be obſerved by thoſe who have large dealings, as the ſufferings by a contrary practice are innumerable, and there is no one article of miſconduct that has brought ſo many to ruin as this.

4. A merchant ſhould not inconſiderably engage with young men, who have little more to recommend them to credit than being the children of rich parents, as a truſt on this account is the product of a very falſe maxim; becauſe, if they do otherwiſe than well, their fathers would hardly pay their debts, as the creditor may have flattered himſelf, neither is it reaſonable to expect it, no more than to think they ſhould incommode themſelves, or hurt their other children, purely to ſupport a ſon, whom gaming, debauchery, or at beſt imprudence, has reduced.

5. If it happens, that debtors omit paying what they owe at the time agreed on, the creditors ſhould not oppreſs them with an extravagant intereſt; for, though neceſſity obliges them ſeemingly to ſubmit, it is a ſure canker to their fortunes, which too often at laſt involves both the truſted, and him that truſts, in ruin. Beſides, if the latter eſcape a failure he has drawn the other into, we ſhould think he could not the laſhes of conſcience, when he reflects on his occaſioning the debtor's misfortunes, by the extortion he had impoſed.

6. The ſixth maxim is never to lend to any ſort of perſons whatſoever on an unjuſtifiable ſecurity, nor to take an unwarrantable intereſt; for this is a deteſtable act, and expoſes the uſurer to the penalty of the law, and renders him abominable both in the ſight of God and man.

It is, however, both reaſonable and prudent for a merchant to take pledges or ſecurities from his debtors, and to be cautious of what they conſiſt; for, if they are in merchandize, the colours, faſhions, &c. of them may change, or the quality may ſuffer by keeping, ſo that whilſt he imagines he has the value of what is owing him in hand, he may be miſtaken by the half: and in theſe caſes of lending or ſelling on truſt, and taking pawns inſtead of notes for ſecurity, the ſeller or lender ſhould add to the above precaution, that of making the terms of the depoſit very clear and apparent, in caſe of a failure in the debtor, and a conſequential claim of the goods by the other creditors, as a joint property, otherwiſe he may be accuſed of endeavouring to abſcond the bankrupt's effects; and if he has not taken the prudent ſteps he ought in his dealings, may be obliged to give up what he has received as (and eſteemed) a ſecurity, beſides ſuffering in his reputation, for being unable to juſtify what he aſſerted and pretended; it would therefore be very proper to have the affair tranſacted before witneſſes, or at leaſt to have all the goods that are pledged particularly expreſſed, in the note or obligation given for the truſt or loan, by which means the aforementioned inconveniences would be avoided.

7. A merchant ſhould always endeavour to promote the ſales of ſuch goods as are decaying, damaged, or growing unfaſhionable, as ſoon as he conveniently can; and if money is not obtainable for them, he ſhould truck them, if he can do it, on a tolerable footing; regarding, however, in this caſe, not to make the exchange, as one may ſay, with his eyes ſhut, but, firſt, to obſerve, that he is well verſed in the quality, and has a perfect knowledge of the goods he takes in return, otherwiſe he may verify the proverb of being *out of the frying-pan into the fire.* As deceits are very common in theſe ſorts of negociations, ſecondly, he ought to know where, and on what terms he can get rid of his new effects, otherwiſe he may riſk loſing more by them than his old ones. And, thirdly, he ſhould always avoid giving any ſhare of ready money in the bargain, if he poſſibly can, as he that parts with it is ſure to have leſs advantage in theſe uncertain dealings, than he that receives it.

8. And, laſtly, a merchant ſhould never ſell any of his goods in ſmall parcels, except drove thereto by mere neceſſity, as this is derogating from his character, and will certainly occaſion to him a loſs of his retail cuſtomers.

Merchants here were always particularly regarded by the common law, though the municipal laws of England, or indeed of any one realm, are not ſufficient for the ordering and determining the affairs of traffic and matters relating to commerce; merchandizing being ſo univerſal, and extenſive, that this is impoſſible: therefore, the law-merchant (ſo called from its univerſal concern) all nations take ſpecial knowledge of; and the common and ſtatute laws of this kingdom leave the cauſes of merchants in many caſes to their own peculiar laws. In the reign of king Edward IV. a merchant ſtranger made ſuit before the king's privy council, for ſeveral bales of ſilk feloniouſly taken from him, wherein it was moved, that this matter ſhould be determined at common law; but it was anſwered by the lord chancellor,

chancellor, that as this ſuit was brought by a merchant, he was not bound to ſue according to the law of the land. 13 *Edw.* IV.

In former times it was conceived that thoſe laws that were prohibitory againſt foreign goods did not bind a merchant ſtranger; but it has been a long time ſince ruled otherwiſe, for in the leagues that are now eſtabliſhed between nation and nation, the laws of either kingdom are excepted, ſo that as the Engliſh in France, or any other foreign country in amity, are ſubject to the laws of that country where they reſide, ſo muſt the people of France, or any other kingdom, be ſubject to the laws of England, when reſident here. 19 *Hen.* VII.

Engliſh merchants are not reſtrained to depart the kingdom without licence, as all other ſubjects are; they may depart, and live out of the realm, and the king's obedience, and the ſame is no contempt, they being excepted out of the ſtatute 5 *Rich.* II. *c.* 2. and by the common law they might paſs the ſeas without licence, though not to merchandize. *Mich.* 12 and 13 *Eliz. Dyer* 206.

By *Magna Charta* it is enacted, that all merchant ſtrangers in amity, (not publicly prohibited) ſhall have ſafe-conduct to come into, depart out of, and remain in England, and to travel by water or land, in and through the ſame to buy and ſell, &c. 9 *Hen.* III. *c.* 30.

And if any diſturbance or abuſe be offered them, or any other merchant in a corporation, and the head officer there do not provide a remedy, the franchiſe ſhall be ſeized, and the diſturber ſhall anſwer double damages, and ſuffer one year's impriſonment, &c. *Stat.* 9 *Edw.* III. *c.* 1.

All merchants (except enemies) may ſafely come into England, with their goods and merchandize. 14 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 2.

Merchant ſtrangers may come into this realm, and depart at their pleaſure, and they are to be friendly entertained: and merchants alien ſhall be uſed in this kingdom as denizens are in others by the ſtatute. 5 *Rich.* II. *c.* 1. 5 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 7.

No merchant ſhall be impleaded for another's debt, whereof he is not debtor, &c. and if a difference ariſes between the king and any foreign ſtate, alien merchants ſhall have forty days notice, or longer time, to ſell their effects, and leave the kingdom. 27 *Edw.* III. *c.* 17.

N. B. The time for merchants to withdraw their effects has been by all late treaties enlarged to ſix months, during which term they are to remain free and unmoleſted as well in perſon as goods. *Treaty of Commerce with Spain, and other Powers.*

All merchants may buy merchandize of the ſtaple, and any merchant may deal in more merchandizes than one; he may buy, ſell, and tranſport all kinds of merchandize, excepting by latter acts, wool, &c. 27 *Edw.* III. *c.* 3. and 38 *Edw.* III. *c.* 2.

Merchant ſtrangers are to find ſureties, that they ſhall not carry out the merchandize which they bring into England. 18 *Edw.* II. *c.* 21.

And when they bring any merchandize into the realm, and ſell the ſame for money, they are to beſtow it upon other merchandizes of England, without exporting any gold or ſilver in coin, plate, &c. on pain of forfeiture. 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 15. 5 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 9.

This law is altered, permitting gold or ſilver bullion, or any foreign coin, or jewels to be exported. *Act for Trade*, 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7.

The ſame extends as well to denizens as ſtrangers, and in ſtrictneſs of law, they ought not to receive any gold in payment. But now payment may be made in any of the current coins of this kingdom. 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 24. 3 *H.* VII. *cap.* 8.

And the reaſons of theſe laws were to keep the gold and ſilver within the realm, and at the ſame time increaſe our manufactures by encouraging their exportation abroad. 1 *Rich.* III. *c.* 9.

Foreign merchants are to ſell their merchandize at the port where they land in groſs, and not by retale.

And merchandize is to be laden and unladen at certain ports, and in the day-time, under penalties. 1 *Eliz. cap.* 11.

It ſhall be lawful for merchants to tranſport iron, armour, piſtols, muſkets, ſaddles, ſwords, bridles, &c. *Stat.* 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4.

Merchants, &c. corrupting or adulterating wine, or ſelling the ſame adulterated, are liable to penalties. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 1. *c.* 34.

On importation of tobacco, merchants have an allowance of eight *per cent.* &c. 12 *Ann. c.* 8.

All merchants ſtrangers, that ſhall be made denizens, either by the king's letters patents, or by act of parliament, muſt pay for their merchandize, like cuſtom and ſubſidy, as they ought, or ſhould pay before they were made denizens. 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 14. 22 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 8. 1 *Eliz. c.* 1. *Co.* 2. *Inſt. fol.* 742.

The wares, merchandizes, debts, or duties that merchants have as joint-traders or partners, ſhall not go to the ſurvivor, but ſhall go to the executor of him that is deceaſed *; and the executor may join in an action with the ſurviving merchant. 31 *Edw.* III. *c.* 7. *Coke on Littleton, fol.* 182. 2 *Levinz.* 188.

In copartnerſhips between merchants it is not neceſſary to provide againſt ſurvivorſhip. 1 *Vern.* 217.

If two joint merchants occupy their ſtock, goods, and merchandize in common, to their common profit, one of them naming himſelf a merchant, ſhall have an account againſt the other, naming him a merchant, and ſhall charge him as *receptor* † *denariorum, &c.* that is, *as receiver of the money of him, B, from whatever cauſe and contract it ſhall redound to the common profit of them, A and B, as may be made appear by* lex mercatoria, 10 *Hen.* VII. 16. a.

So where there are two joint merchants, and one of them dies, the other ſhall have account againſt their factor, without the joining of the executor of the deceaſed. *Lord Raymond*, 340.

In an action upon the caſe againſt A, the plaintiff declares upon the cuſtom between merchants, &c. that if two merchants are found in arrear upon an account, and they promiſe to pay it at certain days, that any or either of them may be charged for the whole ſingly; and then ſhewed the account, that A and B were found in arrears ſo much, &c. and promiſed to pay it at certain days, but did not, and the plaintiff brought his action againſt A only, and reſolved that it lay. 2 *Rolls Abr.* 702, 703.

To call a merchant alien bankrupt, is actionable. *Tarloot cont. Morriſon.*

Debt upon a bill by a merchant to pay foreign coin, amounting to ſo much to be paid upon the feaſt of the purification, called Candlemas-day. Upon *non eſt factum* pleaded, verdict for the plaintiff. Moved in arreſt of judgment, that the declaration was not good, becauſe payment at Candlemas is not known in our law; yet the judgment was affirmed, for that amongſt merchants ſuch payment is known to be on the 20th of February, and the judges ought to take notice of it, being uſed among merchants, for the maintenance of traffic. *Yel.* 198. 1. *Bulſt.* 134. *Yel.* 135. 1. *Brow* 103. *Perneſon* and *Pountney*'s caſe.

No ſhip ſhall be obliged to come to any port of England, nor to abide, againſt the will of the maſter, or of the merchants, whoſe the goods be; and if ſuch ſhips come of their good will, or be driven by misfortune, to any port in England, and the maſters or merchants will ſell part of their merchandizes, it ſhall be lawful for every man to buy ſuch merchandizes, albeit the ſame be not put to land to ſell; ſo that no merchant or other go to meet ſuch ſhips to foreſtal the merchandizes; ſo that the maſters and merchants, after they have ſold that which pleaſeth them, and paid the cuſtom, may freely depart, and none ſhall diſturb any ſhip to come to any port of England, but to the port where the maſters and merchants will of their free will arrive, nor ſhall meddle with the ſale of the merchandizes, nor diſturb the merchants; and if any ſet diſturbance, he ſhall incur a grievous forfeiture to the king. 28 *Edw.* III. *cap.* 13. *ſect.* 3. confirmed by 20 *Rich.* II. *cap.* 4.

* Sed quære, *for it hath been ſince held, that the executor and ſurvivor cannot join, for the remedy ſurvives, though the duty doth not; and therefore on recovery, he muſt be accountable to the executor for that.* Martin v. Crump. Salk. 414.

† Co. Litt. 172. lib. Incrat. 17, 18, 19. F. N. B. 117. D.



*Indebi-*

*Indebitatus aſſumpſit* for one thouſand pounds for monies had and received, and alſo an *inſimul computaſſet*, upon account, the one thouſand pounds became due; the defendant pleaded the ſtatute of limitations; the plaintiff replied, that he is a merchant, and the proviſo, and exception for merchants accounts. By *Twiſden*, *Rainsford*, and *Moreton*, *abſente Kelyng*, ſtated accounts between merchants as this caſe is, are not within the proviſo, but only accounts current, *Webber cont. Tyrell.* 1 *Levinz.* 287. 2 *Keeble* 622. 2 *Sand.* 124. where judgment for defendant; yet the caſe of *Martin* and *Delboe*, 1 *Levinz.* 298. to the contrary upon an account ſtated between merchants; yet the ſame caſe, 1 *Mod.* 70. judgment for defendant, 2 *Keeble* 674. 1 *Vent.* 89. and 1 *Ibid.* 465. See likewiſe the caſe of *Farrington* and *Lee*, 1 *Mod.* 268. and 2 *Mod* 311.

All kinds of merchandizes may be exported and imported from and to Ireland, by aliens, as well and denizens; but wool and woollen manufactures, &c. are prohibited to be exported from thence into foreign parts, by a modern ſtatute. 34 *Edw.* III. *c.* 18.

Cattle, butter, cheeſe, &c. are not to be imported from Ireland into this kingdom, on pain of forfeiture to the poor. 32 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. But ſince allowed on particular occaſions by ſome acts of *Geo.* II. and III.

The inhabitants of the iſlands of Jerſey and Guernſey may import into Great-Britain goods of their own growth and manufacture cuſtom free. *Stat.* 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4.

No wine, brandy, tobacco, Eaſt-India goods, &c. ſhall be brought from the Iſle of Man into Great-Britain or Ireland, on pain of forfeiture, &c. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28.

A woman that uſeth a trade in London without her huſband, is chargeable without him, as a feme ſole merchant, ſhe ſhall plead as ſole, and if condemned be put in priſon till ſhe pay the debt, alſo the bail for her are liable if ſhe abſent herſelf, and the huſband ſhall not be charged. *Privil. Londini.*

It ſhall not be lawful without licence from the king to import by way of merchandizes, gunpowder, arms, ammunition or utenſils of war, on pain to forfeit the ſame; and the importers, or they in whoſe cuſtody ſuch gunpowder, &c. ſhall be found, ſhall forfeit treble the value thereof. 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 2.

All perſons which ſhall tranſport beer beyond the ſeas for merchandize ſhall, if a ſtranger before tranſporting, if a ſubject born, then within four months after, bring into this realm, for every ſix tons of beer two hundred of clapboards, fit for to make uſe of, in length three feet and two inches, or elſe the ſame caſk again, or ſo much other good caſk; or if the tranſporting be into Ireland, then to bring ſo much ſhaffold board, as the clapboard amounteth to. 35 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 2.

No ſtranger ſhall tranſport beyond the ſeas any pilchards or other fiſh in caſks, unleſs the ſame perſon have brought into this realm, for every ſix tons of fiſh, according to the rate aforeſaid of clapboard or caſk, upon pain of forfeiture of the beer, pilchards and caſk. *Sect.* 3

It ſhall not be lawful to tranſport wine caſks out of this realm with beer or beer-eager, nor any wine caſk ſhaken, except for the victualling of any ſhip, or of her majeſty's garriſons and forces, upon forfeiture of forty ſhillings for every ton of caſk. *Sect.* 4.

This act ſhall not extend to the tranſportation of herrings in caſks. *Sect.* 5.

Continued indefinitely by 3 *Car.* I. *c.* 4. and 16 *Car.* I. *c.* 4.

The juſtices of Ireland ſhall not arreſt ſhips or goods, but merchants may carry their merchandizes forth of Ireland to England or Wales; and if any juſtice do the contrary, he ſhall ſatisfy double damages, and be grievouſly puniſhed by the king. *Ordin. pro. ſtat. Hibern.* 17 *Edw.* I. *c.* 3.

Merchants may come into Ireland with their merchandizes, and from thence freely return with their merchandizes and victuals, ſaving to the king his ancient cuſtoms and other duties. *Idem.* 34 *Edw.* III. *c.* 17.

When the prices of corn, Wincheſter meaſure, do not exceed the rates following, viz. the quarter of wheat forty-eight ſhillings, of barley or malt twenty-eight ſhillings, of buck wheat twenty-eight ſhillings, of oats thirteen ſhillings and four-pence, of rye thirty-two ſhillings, of peaſe or beans thirty-two ſhillings, it ſhall be lawful for all perſons to tranſport the ſaid corn to any parts beyond the ſea as merchandize. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 2.

When the prices of the ſaid corns do not exceed the rates above-mentioned, at the place where they ſhall be imported, there ſhall be paid for cuſtom of every quarter of wheat five ſhillings and four-pence, of rye four ſhillings, of barley or malt two ſhillings and eight-pence, of buck wheat two ſhillings; of oats one ſhilling and four-pence, and for peaſe or beans four ſhillings. *Idem. ſ.* 3.

It ſhall be lawful for every perſon, native or foreigner, at any time to tranſport as merchandize all ſorts of corn, although the prices exceed the rates in 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. and when the prices of corn at the places where the ſame ſhall be imported, exceed not the rates following, there ſhall be paid for cuſtom theſe rates, viz. for every quarter of wheat, when the ſame ſhall not exceed fifty-three ſhillings and four-pence, ſixteen ſhillings; when the ſame ſhall exceed fifty-three ſhillings and four-pence, and not exceed four pounds, there ſhall be paid eight ſhillings. For every quarter of rye, when the ſame doth not exceed forty ſhillings, ſixteen ſhillings. For every quarter of barley, malt, or buck wheat, when the ſame doth not exceed thirty-two ſhillings, ſixteen ſhillings. For every quarter of oats, when the ſame doth not exceed ſixteen ſhillings, five ſhillings and four-pence. For every quarter of peaſe and beans, when the ſame doth not exceed forty ſhillings, ſixteen ſhillings; each quarter to contain eight buſhels, and each buſhel eight gallons. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1.

When the prices of corn ſhall not exceed the rates aforeſaid, there ſhall be paid the duties payable before the making of this act. *Idem. ſ.* 2.

Continued by 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 3. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 2. and 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 2. and made perpetual by 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7.

When malt or barley ſhall be at twenty-four ſhillings *per.* quarter, rye at thirty-two ſhillings *per.* quarter, and wheat at forty-eight ſhillings *per.* quarter, or under, in any port of this kingdom, every perſon who ſhall put on board in Engliſh ſhipping, (the maſter and two-thirds of his mariners being Engliſh ſubjects) any ſorts of the corn aforeſaid, with intent to export the ſame, ſuch perſon ſhall bring a certificate under his hand, containing the quantity and quality of corn ſo ſhipped, to the collectors of the cuſtoms, and upon proof of ſuch certificate, by one perſon upon oath, and upon bond given of two hundred pounds for every hundred tons of corn ſhipped, that the ſaid corn (dangers of the ſeas excepted) ſhall be exported beyond ſea, and not again landed in England, Wales, Guernſey, Jerſey, or Berwick; every merchant ſo ſhipping, &c. ſhall receive from the collectors for every quarter of barley or malt two ſhillings and ſix-pence, for rye three ſhillings and ſix-pence, for wheat ground or unground five ſhillings, without any fee: and upon certificate returned under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate of any place beyond ſea, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Engliſh merchants upon the place, that ſuch corn was then landed, or upon proof that ſuch corn was taken by enemies, or periſhed upon the ſeas, the bond ſhall be delivered up without fee. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2.

Where malt or barley of Engliſh growth ſhall be at twenty-four ſhillings the quarter or under, rye at thirty-two ſhillings, wheat at forty-eight ſhillings, in Berwick; every perſon who ſhall put in Engliſh ſhipping (the maſter and two-thirds of his mariners being their majeſty's ſubjects) any of the corn aforeſaid, from the port of Berwick, to export the ſaid corn, and ſhall purſue the method preſcribed by 1 *Will.* and *Mar. cap.* 12. ſhall have the benefit of the ſaid act. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 18.

The ſubſidy and all other duties payable upon exportation of wheat, rye, barley, malt, beans, peaſe, and other corn, ground or unground, bread, biſcuit, and meal, ſhall ceaſe. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 4.

If the collector of the cuſtoms have not ſufficient in his hands to ſatisfy ſuch money as ſhall be due to any exporter of corn, by 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 12. ſuch collector ſhall give the perſon demanding ſuch money, without fee, a certificate of what is due to ſuch perſon for the corn exported from ſuch port, certifying to the commiſſioners, that he hath not money ſufficient; which certificate being affixed to the debenture for the corn, and produced, the com-

miſſioners are required to cauſe the monies to be paid in three months by the general receiver, out of monies ariſing out of ſuch duties in the port of London, as are chargeable with the ſame. 12 and 13 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 93.

For all oatmeal and grain, called beer or bigg, which ſhall be exported from England, Wales, or Berwick, there ſhall be the like premium given upon exportation, as is to be given by the articles of union, upon exportation of oatmeal and beer from Scotland; the merchant bringing a certificate under his hand, containing the quantity of ſuch oatmeal or beer, to the collector of the cuſtoms, and making proof of ſuch certificate by one perſon upon oath, and giving bond in ten pounds for every ton of oatmeal, and for every forty buſhels of beer, that the ſame ſhall be exported beyond ſea, and not re-landed: which premium the merchant ſhall receive of ſuch collector, and upon certificate returned under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, in any place beyond ſea, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Engliſh merchants upon the place, that ſuch oatmeal or beer was there landed, or upon proof that the ſame was taken by enemies, or periſhed upon the ſeas, the bond ſhall be delivered up without fee.

Every perſon exporting malt, made of wheat, ſhall receive of the collectors of the cuſtoms, &c. five ſhillings for every quarter ground or unground. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 10.

The officers of the cuſtoms ſhall admeaſure all corn whereon there is an allowance payable for exportation, and ſuch admeaſurement ſhall be made by a meaſure containing four Wincheſter buſhels; and if ſuch corn ſhall be brought to be ſhipped in ſacks, the officers are to make choice of two of theſe ſacks, out of any number not exceeding twenty, before the ſame ſhall be put on board, and thereby compute the quantity intended to be ſhipped, and, according to ſuch computation, the allowance ſhall be paid to the exporter, upon his producing a certificate from the officers of the cuſtoms, atteſting the quantity and quality of the corn ſhipped for exportation. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

The like regulations ſhall be extended to the aſcertaining the prices and quantity of beer or bigg, oatmeal and wheat malt intended for exportation. Provided, that nothing in this act ſhall alter the preſent practice of ſhipping corn from the port of London; but the ſame may be meaſured by ſworn meters, by whoſe certificate the ſearchers or other officers of the cuſtoms are to certify the quantity of corn ſhipped for exportation, as hath been practiſed. *Ditto. ſ.* 5.

It ſhall be lawful for the juſtices of peace, for the ſeveral counties within England, Wales, and Berwick, wherein foreign corn ſhall be imported, at their quarter ſeſſions, to give in charge to the grand jury, to make preſentment of the market prices of middling Engliſh corn of the ſorts mentioned in an act 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 1.

Such preſentment ſhall be certified by the juſtices, to his majeſty's chief officer of the cuſtoms, in every port where ſuch corn ſhall be imported, and be hung up in the cuſtom-houſe. *Sect.* 2.

The duty of foreign corn imported ſhall be paid according to the prices contained in ſuch certificates. *Sect.* 3.

Nothing in this act ſhall prejudice the authority given by the act 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 19, to the mayor, aldermen, and juſtices of peace of the city of London. *Sect.* 4.

No warrant, cocket, &c. ſhall be granted for carrying to ſea, from any port within England, Wales, and Berwick, to any other port of the ſame, any foreign corn after importation thereof; and no perſon ſhall tranſport any foreign corn, or foreign corn mixed with Engliſh, under penalty, that all ſuch corn that ſhall be tranſported or laden contrary to this act ſhall be forfeited, and every offender ſhall forfeit twenty ſhillings, for every buſhel of ſuch corn, and the ſhip upon which ſuch corn ſhall be laden, ſhall be forfeited; and the maſter and mariners of ſuch ſhip wherein ſuch offence ſhall be committed, knowing ſuch offence, and aſſiſting thereunto, ſhall be impriſoned three months. *Sect.* 5.

If any perſon beat, wound, or uſe any violence to hinder one from buying corn, and ſhall ſtop or ſeize on any carriage loaded with wheat, flour, &c. and deſtroy the ſame, or ſhall take away, or hurt any of the horſes or drivers, &c. upon conviction, he ſhall be ſent to gaol or houſe of correction, and be kept to hard labour, not exceeding three months, nor for leſs than one, and ſhall be once publickly whipped at the market-place on a market day. 11 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 1.

If any perſon after conviction ſhall commit any of the offences a ſecond time, or ſhall pull down or deſtroy any ſtore-houſe, or place where corn ſhall be kept to be exported, or ſhall enter on board any ſhip, and from either of theſe depoſitories carry away or deſtroy any corn, meal, &c. ſuch offenders ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall be tranſported for ſeven years. *Sect.* 2.

The inhabitants of every hundred in England wherein ſuch offence ſhall be committed ſhall make ſatisfaction for all damages ſuſtained not exceeding one hundred pounds. *Sect.* 5.

Provided that no perſon be enabled to recover damages by this act, unleſs they by themſelves or their ſervants, within two days after damage done, ſhall give notice of ſuch offence to one of the conſtables of the hundred, or to the headborough, &c. of the town, &c. in or near which ſuch fact ſhall be committed, and ſhall within ten days after ſuch notice give in their, or their ſervants examinations upon oath, before any juſtice of the peace where ſuch fact ſhall be committed. *Sect.* 6.

Where any offence ſhall be committed againſt this act, and any one of the offenders ſhall be apprehended and convicted within twelve months after the offence, no hundred ſhall be liable to make ſatisfaction. *Sect.* 7.

No perſon ſhall be enabled hereby to ſue or bring any action againſt any hundred till after the expiration of one year, nor unleſs the parties ſuſtaining ſuch damage ſhall commence their action within two years after the offence. *Sect.* 8.

If any goods of any merchant born denizen ſhall be taken by enemies or pirates upon the ſea, or periſh in any ſhip that ſhall be taken or periſhed, whereof the duties ſhall be paid or agreed for, and that duly proved before the treaſury or chief baron of the exchequer, by the examination of the merchants, or by two witneſſes, or other reaſonable proof; the ſame merchants may newly ſhip, in the ſame port where the goods were cuſtomed, ſo much other goods as the goods loſt ſhall amount unto in cuſtom, without paying any thing, ſo as the proof be recorded and allowed in the exchequer, and certified to the collectors of the port; and every merchant denizen, who ſhall ſhip goods in any carrack or galley, ſhall pay all cuſtoms and ſubſidies in any alien born. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4.

Provided that it ſhall be lawful to all ſubjects to tranſport in ſhips, and other veſſels of ſubjects, all herrings and other ſea-fiſh to be taken by ſubjects out of any port, to any place out of his majeſty's dominions without paying cuſtom. *Sect.* 5.

It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to tranſport by way of merchandize any of theſe goods following, viz. iron, armour, bandeleers, bridle-bits, halbert-heads, and ſharps, holſters, muſkets, carbines, fowling-pieces, piſtols, pike-heads, ſword and rapier-blades, ſaddles, ſnaffles, ſtirrops, calf-ſkins dreſſed, or undreſſed, geldings, oxen, ſheep ſkins dreſſed without the wool, and all manufactures made of leather, paying the rates appointed by this act. *Sect.* 10.

It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to tranſport by way of merchandize gunpowder, when the ſame doth not exceed the price of five pounds *per.* barrel: but this was prohibited by proclamation during the late war with France, begun in 1756. *Sect.* 11. Theſe are the laws in force immediately concerning merchants.

MERCURY, is a fluid metallic ſubſtance, of a ſhining ſilver colour, very heavy (being to water as fourteen to one) volatile, and incongealable by any degree of cold hitherto known, tho' ſome late experiments made in Ruſſia, ſeem to prove that it is congealable. It is found ſometimes in its fluid form, in the bowels of the earth, and is then called *virgin mercury*; but much the greateſt quantity is drawn by diſtillation, from a mineral called *native cinnabar*, and from a kind of hard ſtony ore, of the colour of *crocus metallorum*. There are conſiderable mines of it in Friuli; others in Hungary and Spain; but we receive the greateſt quantities from the Eaſt-Indies.

This capital article of the *materia medica*, is too frequently adulterated with lead, biſmuth, and other mixtures; but the abuſe may be diſcovered by the hydroſtatical balance, or by boiling it with vinegar, which will remain unaltered, if

the mercury be pure, but acquire a ſaccharine ſweetneſs if adulterated: it may likewiſe be diſcovered by ſimple evaporation, when the mercury will intirely exhale, and leave the foreign metallic ſubſtance behind.

From the experiments of Boerhaave, we are taught, that this fluid mineral, by agitation alone in glaſs veſſels, or by being expoſed to a ſmall heat, yields a ſoft, black powder, of a ſharp, braſſy taſte: that a greater degree of heat changes mercury into a heavy, ſhining, red, friable powder, of a ſharp, nauſeous taſte; and that both the powders may be revived into fluid quickſilver by a more intenſe heat. Mercury is ſoluble in all the mineral acids, but with greater facility in one than in another: vinegar, and the acids extracted from vegetables, have no effect upon it; neither have alcaline or neutral ſalts: the nitrous acid readily diſſolves it into a pellucid liquor; but neither the marine or vitriolic act upon it, unleſs highly concentrated. When quickſilver has been diſſolved in ſpirit of nitre, and the menſtruum evaporated by fire, the mercury remains in form of a red powder; but if the ſame ſolution be precipitated with fixed alcaline ſalt, a ſaffron-coloured powder falls to the bottom; with ſea-ſalt, it gives a white precipitate; with lime-water, a yellow. Quickſilver, triturated with ſulphur, unites with it into a black powder, which, on ſublimation, becomes an intenſely red, ſhining, radiated maſs.

*Solution of* MERCURY. Take of pure quickſilver, double *aqua fortis*, each equal quantities. Digeſt them together in a phial placed in a ſand-heat, that a limpid ſolution may be made.

The ſtrength of *aqua fortis* is ſo precarious, that it is hardly poſſible to determine, without an experiment, how much thereof is requiſite to diſſolve a certain quantity of quickſilver, ſo as to procure a perfectly ſaturated ſolution. It is therefore convenient, in caſe the mercury ſhould be intirely taken up by the quantity of acid above preſcribed, to add occaſionally a few drops of the former, till ſome remain undiſſolved by the menſtruum in a boiling heat.

*Calx of* MERCURY. Take of the ſolution of quickſilver, what quantity you pleaſe. Evaporate it, over a gentle fire, to a white dry maſs.

*White precipitate of* MERCURY. Take of the ſolution of quickſilver, any quantity at pleaſure. Pour upon it, by degrees, ſome very ſtrong brine of ſea-ſalt, till all the quickſilver is precipitated into a very white powder, which is to be waſhed upon a filter with warm water, till the water comes off without any acrimony. The powder is then to be placed between the folds of paper, and dried with a very gentle heat.

The white precipitate of mercury is uſually directed to be made after this manner; but this preſcription is rarely complied with. Some chemiſts ſubſtitute to it the next preparation (here called *ſweet precipitate of mercury*, to diſtinguiſh it from the foregoing.) The *white precipitate*, as the commentator on the London draught obſerves, is not only a very corroſive, but likewiſe a very unfrugal preparation; for ſea-ſalt, in whatever proportion it be added, will not intirely precipitate all the mercury from its ſolution: this may be made evidently to appear, by adding a ſmall quantity of a ſolution of fixed alcaline ſalt, or volatile alcaline ſpirit, to the liquor which remains after the precipitate is fallen, when the liquor will again grow turbid, and let fall a conſiderable quantity of freſh precipitate. Mr. Homberg obſerves, that if the acid ſpirit bears an overproportion to the mercury, no precipitation at all will follow upon the effuſion of the brine of ſea-ſalt.

If this precipitate be waſhed too often with hot water, it will all intirely paſs the filter. The ſame accident will likewiſe happen, if the brine employed at firſt to throw down the mercury, be ſuffered to ſtand too long upon the precipitate.

*Sweet precipitate of* MERCURY. Take of corroſive mercury ſublimate, what quantity you pleaſe. Diſſolve it in hot water, as much as is ſufficient. Gradually drop into the ſolution ſome ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, as long as any precipitation enſues. Waſh the white precipitated powder upon a filter, with ſeveral freſh parcels of warm water; and afterwards dry it for uſe.

The intire ſolution of corroſive ſublimate in water is much more difficultly effected than one would imagine. Hence ſome have been accuſtomed to mix a certain quantity of crude ſal ammoniac along with the ſublimate, which is by this means made eaſily and quickly to diſſolve in cold water. And it is upon this foundation that the College of London have now directed the following method of making their white precipitate:

"Take of ſal ammoniac and corroſive ſublimate, each equal weights. Diſſolve them together in water, filter through paper, and precipitate with a ſolution of any fixed alcaline ſalt: then waſh the precipitated powder till it is perfectly ſweet."

A ſolution of two ounces of ſal ammoniac, and as much ſublimate in three pints of water, required three ounces and a half of a ſtrong lixivium of pure fixed alcaline ſalt. The precipitate, when waſhed and dryed, was extremely white, and weighed a very little leſs than the ſublimate employed.

*Brown precipitate of* MERCURY, commonly called *Wurtz's precipitate*. Take of the ſolution of mercury any quantity. Gradually drop into it, of oil of tartar *per deliquium*, as much as will be ſufficient, that is, till the effervescence, which ariſes upon each affuſion, ceaſes. A powder will be precipitated to the bottom, which is to be edulcorated as the foregoing.

This precipitate was more in uſe ſome years ago than at preſent, as a gentler emetic than the turbith mineral. It does not differ in ſtrength or effects from the preceding preparation.

*Red calcined* MERCURY, *commonly called red precipitate of mercury*. Take of the calx of mercury as much as you pleaſe, reverberate it in a crucible with ſucceſſive degrees of heat. The white colour of the calx will, by this means, be changed firſt into a brown, and afterwards a yellow; at length, upon increaſing the fire, it paſſes into a deep red powder.

The preparation of red precipitate, as it is called, is by ſome ſuppoſed to be a ſecret not known to our chemiſts; and that hence we are under a neceſſity of importing it from other places. But this reflection ſeems to be intirely founded upon miſinformation; for we have often ſeen it prepared in London, in great perfection, whether we regard its colour, lively ſparkling appearance, or conſider it as a medicine uſed by the ſurgeons. It is true, we ſometimes receive great quantities from abroad; but this depends upon the price of the ingredients (which are commonly cheaper in Holland than here) not upon any ſecret in the preparation.

The *aqua fortis* employed by our chemiſts for this purpoſe, is that which comes over in the making of corroſive ſublimate, or, in its room, common *aqua fortis* drawn over from a little ſea-ſalt: the marine acid, which is in a ſmall quantity in both theſe ſpirits, is ſaid to diſpoſe the calx to take the bright ſparkling look admired in this preparation; but perhaps this and the colour depend as much at leaſt upon the management of the fire, as upon any thing particular in the menſtruum.

The college of phyſicians of London have lately received the following proceſs in their *pharmacopœia*:— "Take equal weights of purified quickſilver and of compound *aqua fortis*. Pour them into a veſſel which has a wide bottom; place it in a ſand-furnace, and apply a gradual fire, till the maſs has loſt all its humidity, and acquired a due degree of redneſs." The compound *aqua fortis* for this proceſs is made by drawing over ſixteen ounces of ſingle *aqua fortis* from one dram of ſea-ſalt.

*Green precipitate of* MERCURY. Diſſolve four ounces of ſublimate corroſive mercury (previouſly reduced to a powder) in a quart of hot water.

Digeſt an ounce and a half of copper-filings with eight ounces of ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, in a matraſs, till a deep blue tincture is extracted. Filter the tincture, and drop it by degrees into the mercurial ſolution. When the precipitate has fallen, evaporate in a ſand heat to dryneſs.

This is not ſo much in uſe as formerly, though there is ſtill ſome demand for it. The preparation was once a very rough medicine. It has been made after this form by our chemiſts for ſome time; and the college have very reaſonably adopted it, as it is a much milder and ſafer preparation than the old one.

*Yellow precipitate of* MERCURY, or *turbith mineral*. Take of pure quickſilver, four ounces; rectified oil of vitriol,

vitriol, ſixteen ounces. Cautiouſly mix them together, and diſtil in a retort placed in a ſand-furnace, to dryneſs. The white calx, which is left at the bottom, being ground into powder, and thrown into water, immediately grows of a yellow colour: waſh this in freſh parcels of water renewed ſeveral times, till it has loſt all its acrimony; then dry it for uſe.

The proportion which the vitriolic acid bears to the mercury in this preſcription is too great: if the proceſs be well managed, and the oil of vitriol be perfectly ſtrong and good, ſomewhat leſs than two parts of this will effectually corrode one of the other. Boerhaave directs this preparation to be made in an open glaſs, ſlowly and gradually heated, and then placed immediately upon burning coals, with care to avoid the fumes, which are extremely noxious. This method will ſucceed very well, with a little addreſs, when the ingredients are in ſmall quantity; but when the mixture is large, it is better to uſe a retort placed in a ſand-furnace, with a recipient luted to it, containing a ſmall quantity of water. Great care ſhould be taken, when the oil of vitriol begins to bubble, to ſteadily keep up the heat without at all increaſing it, till the ebullition ceaſes, when the fire may be augmented to the utmoſt degree; for by how much the more perfectly the calx is exſiccated, by ſo much the greater will the yield of the turbith prove.

The edulcoration of this preparation, which is attempted by repeated ablutions with freſh water, does but ill ſucceed; eſpecially if the vitriolic acid has been uſed in too large a proportion, or the calx not duly exſiccated; in which caſes, great part of the turbith will be taken up by the water, as will evidently appear upon pouring in a little ſolution of pure ſalt of tartar into the water employed for this purpoſe, which will occaſion it to depoſit a conſiderable quantity of yellowiſh precipitate, greatly reſembling the former, except that it is leſs violent in its operation. The beſt method therefore of edulcorating this calx, ſo as to render it a medicine of a certain degree of ſtrength, ſeems to be by impregnating the water intended to be uſed in its ablution with a determined quantity of fixed alcaline ſalt. By this means, we conceive the waſhed calx would not only be greater in quantity, but, what is of more conſequence, always have one equal degree of ſtrength; a point which deſerves particularly to be conſidered, eſpecially in making ſuch preparations, as from an error in the proceſs may prove too violently corroſive to be uſed with any tolerable degree of ſafety.

*Corroſive* MERCURY *ſublimate.* Take calx of mercury, decrepitated ſea-ſalt, of each equal quantities. Powder and mix theſe well together, and put them into a matraſs, of which they may fill nearly one-half: place the veſſel in a ſand-furnace, and proceed to ſublimation, applying at firſt a gentle heat, and afterwards gradually increaſing it, till all the ſublimate has aroſe in a white cryſtalline maſs, to the upper part of the matraſs: ſeparate this from the red ſcoriæ, and purify it, if needful, by a ſecond ſublimation.

The compilers of the Edinburgh Diſpenſatory, ſenſible of the great inconveniencies which attended the making of corroſive ſublimate after the common method, introduced this ſimple and elegant one in the year 1722. Mr. Boulduc communicated to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, in 1730, another method equally as ſimple and practicable as this. We have not had competent experience to determine which of the two is the moſt advantageous: but as there is ſomething extremely curious in the management of the latter, we ſhall inſert the proceſs, with ſome directions of our own.

Upon any quantity of pure quickſilver in a retort, pour an equal weight of good oil of vitriol: draw off the phlegm, and that part of the acid which does not unite with the mercury: continue the diſtillation till the white maſs at the bottom of the retort becomes perfectly dry: this being taken out, is ſpeedily to be rubbed in a glaſs mortar, with an equal weight of well-dried common ſalt: afterwards, the mixture is to be ſet to ſublime in a matraſs placed in a ſand-furnace, with a gradual fire; at firſt, a few drops of moiſture will appear in the neck of the glaſs; theſe are ſoon followed by ſaline ſpicula; at this time, the fire may be raiſed till all the ſublimate is elevated; when the matraſs is to be immediately removed from the furnace, that the cold air may break it; this is more convenient than to let it cool gradually, and afterwards break it with a blow, which might occaſion ſome part of the ſublimate to fall down upon the *caput mortuum.*

Though both methods are admirably well contrived, they will not anſwer the purpoſes of trade, without a little farther management, to give the ſublimate the appearance of a placenta, or cake, which it has in the ſhops. This form may me obtained very eaſily, when large quantities of the ingredients are employed, by placing the matraſs no deeper in ſand than the ſurface of the matter contained in it, and removing a little thereof from the ſides of the glaſs as ſoon as flowers begin to appear in the neck, when the heat ſhould likewiſe be ſomewhat lowered, and not at all raiſed till the end of the proceſs. The ſublimation may be known to be completed, by the edge of the cryſtalline cake, which will form upon the ſurface of the *caput mortuum*, appearing ſmooth and even, and a little removed from it.

*Sweet* MERCURY *ſublimate*, commonly called *mercurius dulcis.* Take of ſublimate corroſive mercury (ground in a glaſs mortar) four ounces; pure quickſilver, three ounces. Mix them exquiſitely together in a mortar, till the quickſilver ceaſes to appear. Put the powder into an oblong phial, of ſuch a ſize, that only one-third may be filled: ſet the glaſs in a ſand-furnace, ſo as that the ſand may reach up to one-half its height. By degrees of fire ſucceſſively applied, almoſt all the mercury will ſublime, and adhere to the upper part of the veſſel. The glaſs being then broken, and the red powder which is found in its bottom, with the whitiſh one which ſticks about the neck, being thrown away, let the white mercury be again ſublimed three or four times.

If this operation be repeated ſeven times, the preparation is called *calomel*, or *aquila alba.*

The trituration of corroſive ſublimate with quickſilver, is a very noxious operation; for it is almoſt impoſſible, by any care, to prevent the lighter particles of the former from ariſing, ſo as ſometimes violently to affect the operator's eyes and mouth. This inconvenience has occaſioned this part of the proceſs to be either ſlightly performed or neglected, though it is undoubtedly of the utmoſt conſequence, unleſs ſupplied by digeſting the ingredients together, till they are perfectly united, before the heat be raiſed ſo as to ſublime them. It is, indeed, ſtill neceſſary to pulverize the ſublimate before the mercury is added to it; but this may be ſafely performed, with a little caution, eſpecially if during the pulverization the matter be now and then ſprinkled with a little ſpirit of wine: this addition does not at all impede the union of the two ingredients, or prejudice the ſublimation: it is convenient not to cloſe the top of the ſubliming glaſs with a cap of paper at firſt (as is uſually practiſed) but to defer this till the mixture begins to ſublime, that the ſpirit may eſcape.

The notion that repeated ſublimation, by the ſimple act of triture, wears away, or breaks, the points of the ſublimate, on which its corroſiveneſs depends, is erroneous; for if this was true, ſublimate corroſive itſelf would become mild, barely by repeating the operation; which is manifeſtly contrary to all experience. The only method of dulcifying ſublimate is, to add ſo much mercury to it, as may intirely ſatiate the acid ſpirit of ſea-ſalt contained therein: triture and digeſtion are neceſſary operations to perform this effect, as they facilitate the combination of a ſufficient quantity of mercury with the acid; while ſublimation ſeems to be of no manner of uſe at all in the proceſs; ſince either the union of the two ingredients is perfectly completed before it happens, or elſe remains ſo imperfect for want of a due degree of digeſtion, as to require a repetition of the whole proceſs.

*Panacæa of* MERCURY. Take of calomel levigated, as much as you pleaſe; ſpirit of wine, four times as much. Digeſt them together in a ſand-heat for twenty days, frequently ſhaking the veſſel: then pour off the ſpirit, and dry the powder for uſe.

This preparation differs very little, if at all, from good *mercurius dulcis:* for as Mr. Lemery obſerves, the ſpirit of wine does not diſſolve any part of the calomel. Some chemiſts, therefore, recommended a proof ſpirit, or common water,

water, as more ſuitable for this purpoſe than rectified ſpirit of wine; but the matter is not much mended by this alteration; at leaſt, there is no danger that either of theſe liquors ſhould deprive this medicine ſo far of its ſaline parts, as to render it not different from a white indolent earth; for the ſpirit of ſalt and mercury are ſo cloſely united to each other by the foregoing proceſs, as not to admit of any ſeparation by the means here propoſed.

*Æthiops mineral.* Take quickſilver, flowers of ſulphur, of each equal parts. Grind them together in a glaſs mortar, with a glaſs peſtle, till the mercurial globules intirely diſappear.

The union of the mercury with the ſulphur may be greatly facilitated by the aſſiſtance of a little warmth. Hence ſome are accuſtomed to make this preparation in a more expeditious manner, by melting the ſulphur in an iron ladle over a gentle fire, and then adding the quickſilver, and ſtirring them together till the mixture is completed.

Many perſons condemn this practice, and particularly order the æthiops to be made without fire, which is fondly ſuppoſed to make a diſagreeable impreſſion upon this medicine. But ſurely the ſmall degree of heat here required cannot reaſonably be ſuppoſed to injure ſubſtances which have already undergone much greater fires, and which are more perfectly united by its means, than by the triture which is uſually beſtowed on them.

MERCURY *prepared with ſugar.* Take of pure quickſilver, brown ſugar-candy, each half an ounce; diſtilled oil of juniper, ſixteen drops; grind them together, in a glaſs mortar, till the mercury intirely diſappears.

The college have dropt the *mercurius alcalizatus*, the labour of making which was a great temptation to a grievous abuſe. The addition of the chemical oil in the preparation here given, is not only convenient to promote the extinction of the mercury, but neceſſary to prevent its ſeparation from the ſugar, and running into its original form, which it conſtantly did upon the ſugar's being diſſolved in water.

MERIGAL, a ſpecies of gold coin current at Sofala, and in the kingdom of Monomotapa; it weighs a little more than a Spaniſh piſtole.

MERIONETHSIRE can boaſt only of ſheep for its products, and wrought cotton for its manufactures; ſo that it affords nothing for enlargements in its deſcription.

MESCAL, a ſmall Perſian weight, making near the hundredth part of a French pound of ſixteen ounces; this is the demi-derhem, or demi-dragme of Perſia. Three hundred derhems, or ſixty meſcals, make the batman of Tauris, which weighs five pounds fourteen ounces French. *See* BATMAN.

MESCHED. *See* CHORASAN.

METAL, *metallum*, in natural hiſtory, a hard, ſhining, mineral body, fuſible by fire, concreſcible by cold, ductile, and capable of being amalgamated, or intimately united to quickſilver.

There are properly but ſix metals, gold, ſilver, copper, tin, iron, and lead: to which ſome have added mercury, though it agrees with them in nothing but weight, and being found in the bowels of the earth.

Metals are divided into perfect and imperfect; perfect metals are thoſe which undergo all trials by fire, without any ſenſible loſs: ſuch are gold and ſilver, particularly the former: imperfect metals are thoſe which loſe much by being expoſed to the fire, as lead, tin, iron, and copper.

The characteriſtic of metals is, that of all known bodies they are the heavieſt.

Dr. Halley found by experiments the weight of gold to be to that of glaſs, as nine to one; and the weight of tin, the lighteſt of all metals, to that of gold, as ſeven to nineteen, which conſiderably ſurpaſſes the weight of all marbles, gems, &c. nor is there any body in nature but a metal, that is one-third of the weight of gold.

The weight of ſeveral metals, &c. having been hydroſtatically examined in air and water by the Royal Society, they found that, taking the ſame weights of gold and water, the bulk of the former was to the latter, as 19636 to 1000; conſequently gold is to water nearly as nineteen to one.

*The ſpecific weights ſtand thus:*

| | |
|---|---|
| Gold | 19636 |
| Quickſilver | 14019 |
| Lead | 11345 |
| Silver | 10535 |
| Copper | 8843 |
| Iron | 7852 |
| Tin | 7321 |
| Granate | 3978 |
| Water | 1000 |
| Air | $\frac{3}{1\,1}$ |

| the cubic inch of | weights | oun. | dr. | gr. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| gold | | 12 | 2 | 52 |
| quickſilver | | 8 | 6 | 8 |
| lead | | 7 | 3 | 30 |
| ſilver | | 6 | 5 | 28 |
| copper | | 5 | 6 | 36 |
| iron | | 5 | 1 | 24 |
| tin | | 4 | 6 | 17 |

As to the origin and formation of metals, both ancient and modern philoſophers are of various ſentiments.

Des Cartes takes metals to have ranged themſelves from the beginning, by the laws of gravity, about the center.

Mr. Tournefort thinks that metals, as well as other minerals, have their origin from ſeeds, like plants. Lidyat endeavours to prove all metals generated by a ſubterranean heat, as many of them, when taken out of the earth, are exceeding hot. Du Hamel ſhews, that metals do not take their riſe either from any vaporous exhalations, or from water or earth, as Plato thought; but are generated of mercury, ſulphur, and ſalt. Dr. Woodward maintains, that all metals, now found in the ſtrata of the earth, owe their preſent condition to the deluge; when he alſo imagines the ſtrata of ſtone, earth, marble, &c. were formed.

The ſame ingenious author complains of the great inconſtancy of the mineral and metallic kingdoms, neither the colour, figure, nor ſituation in the earth being to be depended on.

Mr. Geoffroy, from a mixture of ſulphur with a vitriolic ſalt, brought an iron, which he maintained to be a compoſition reſulting from the aſſemblage of certain principles, which exiſted ſeparately in the ingredients that formed the metals: and, obſerving that there were parcels of this metal in the coloured aſhes of plants, &c. he concluded that it might be formed there too.

This Mr. Lemery the younger oppoſed, who maintained that the iron contained in the aſhes of plants was really exiſtent in the plants themſelves, being raiſed in their veſſels along with the juices of the earth; and further, that all the ingredients, whereof Mr. Geoffroy's artificial iron was formed, do really contain in themſelves either more or leſs.

To this it was anſwered, that, in what manner ſoever iron be procured from the ſeveral ingredients ſeparately, there will ſtill be found infinitely leſs in them than when mixed, and that conſequently the mixture produces iron.

Hence it appears, that vegetable matters contain the principles of minerals.

*Bell*-METAL, a compoſition of copper and tin melted together.

*Line of* METALS. On Gunter's ſector are ſometimes two lines, noted with the characters of the ſeven metals, ☉, ☽, ☿, ♄, ♀, ♂, and ♃. Their uſe is to give the proportions between the ſeveral metals, as to their magnitude and weight.

Braſs, copper, latten, bell-metal, pan-metal, gun-metal, ſhruff metal, clean or mixed (except tin and lead) may not be exported, on forfeiture of double the value, and ten pounds for every thouſand weight, 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 2. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 1.

And alſo, except copper and mundic metal, made of Britiſh ore, and foreign copper in bars. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 17. *ſ.* 23. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 19. 12 *Ann. c.* 18. *ſ.* 5. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 2.

Not to be laden coaſtwiſe in any port or creek, where the cuſtomer, or his deputy, are not reſident, on forfeiture thereof, and ten pounds for every thouſand weight. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 6.

Carried coaſtwiſe, if bond be taken without date, the cuſtomer and comptroller forfeit their office, and the value of the metal. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 4.

Cuſtomer or ſearcher knowingly ſuffering the ſame to be ſhipped, and not ſeizing it, forfeit office, and the value. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 5.

Maſters, owners, &c. of ſhips, willingly permitting the illegal ſhipping, or not diſcloſing it within three days to the cuſtomer or comptroller of the port, are to forfeit double the value. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 5.

METECAL, a ſort of gold ducat, ſtruck at Morocco, and in ſome other cities of that kingdom and Fez. This metecal is different from the metical of Fez, only worth twenty Dutch ſtivers; the old meticals excel the new ones both in weight and fineneſs; theſe are of different goodneſs, and conſequently of various values, which occaſions no ſmall difficulty in trade.

METCAL, *or* MITKAL, a ſmall Arabian weight, of which twelve make an ounce.

METRICOL, *or* MITRICOL, a ſmall weight, one-ſixth part of an ounce, which the Portugueze apothecaries and druggiſts uſe in the Eaſt-Indies; beſides which, they have the metricoli, which only weighs one eighth of an ounce.

METZOTINTO-ENGRAVER. This art was invented by prince Rupert, nephew to king Charles I. It is very different from the common method of engraving on copper; and is thus performed: a copper plate being poliſhed, is cut in jagged lines from corner to corner, both croſs and length-ways, till the whole is rendered of an equal roughneſs. The plate, thus prepared, is then blacked over with burnt cork, and the out-lines of the picture drawn with chalk upon this black ſurface. A drawing of the deſign lies before the artiſt, who copies it by ſcraping off the roughneſs on the plate; by which he gives the figure with all its ſhades: thoſe ſcraped the deepeſt, appear the lighteſt; and where the plate is made ſmooth, it is quite white. The artiſt ought to have all the qualifications of a painter, and to be perfect maſter of drawing, in perſpective, and the manner of properly diſpoſing the lights and ſhades. He ſhould have a good eye, a nice hand, and a clear judgment. Thoſe of this buſineſs take from twenty to forty pounds with an apprentice, who may commence maſter with little money, or may gain as journeyman, if a good hand, thirty ſhillings a week. This art is not yet brought to its greateſt perfection.

MEXICO is the firſt country that occurs in North America. It is diſtinguiſhed into Old and New. Old Mexico, or New Spain, lies between north latitude ſeven degrees thirty minutes and thirty degrees forty minutes, and is bounded on the ſouth-eaſt by the iſthmus of Darien, or Panama, and on the north-weſt by New Mexico. It is divided into three audiences, or ſovereign diſtricts, governed by a viceroy appointed by the king of Spain.

The three diſtricts or courts of audience are, 1. Guadalajara, which contains the provinces of Cinalva, Culiacan, Chamephan, Xaliſco, Guadalara Proper, Zacetecas, and New Biſcay. 2. Mexico, including the provinces of Mechoacan, Mexico Proper, Panuco, Haſcala, Guaxaca, Tabaſco, and Yucatan. 3. Guatimala, containing the provinces of Chiapa, Sonocuſca, Guatimala Proper, Vera Paz, Honduras, Nicaragua, Coſta Rica, and Veragua.

Though this country lies for the moſt part within the torrid zone, yet the air is very temperate, and generally reckoned extraordinary wholeſome. It produces divers ſorts of grain, fruits, and herbs; rich mines of gold and ſilver, and good paſturage. Its chief grain is wheat, barley, pulſe and maize; the chief fruits, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, cherries, apples, figs, and cocoa-nuts; and its principal commodities are wool, cotton, ſugar, ſilk, cochineal, feathers, honey, balm, amber, ſalt, tallow, hides, tobacco, ginger, and various medicinal drugs.

The Spaniards, who have been long ſole maſters of this country, and of the far greater part of South America, have taken ſuch care to keep all foreigners out of them, that the lawful commerce between them and Europe is in their hands, and ſubject to the direction of their crown.

But to proceed in our account of Mexico, though common report places mines of gold and ſilver in almoſt all the provinces, yet we are aſſured that both are only found in the province of Mexico. Of ſilver, there are no leſs than a thouſand mines. Some Spaniſh authors ſay, that the gold is only found in Veragua, and New Granada. As to other commodities, there is an exceeding great quantity of ſugar, chiefly on the ſide of the Gulph of Mexico, Guaxaca, &c. ſo that here are more ſugar-mills than in any part of Spaniſh America; but it is chiefly conſumed in the city of Mexico, and particularly the monaſteries, in chocolate, ſweet-meats, preſerves, and confectionary wares; of which, however, there is a vaſt deal ſent from Guaxaca, Guatimala, and other provinces, to Mexico and Panama. From whence it is carried by ſea to Lima, Guaiaquil, and Baldivia. There is a great home trade in the goods manufactured of cotton. They have the beſt indigo in the world; and the trade of cochineal is managed wholly by the merchants of Mexico and Carthagena. It is ſaid the people of Nicaragua and the Honduras employ three hundred thouſand mules and horſes to carry corn, ſugar, cocoa, &c. into the inland provinces, and particularly to the city of Mexico. And when the galleons come from Old Spain, the number of carriages, men, and horſes, employed to carry the treaſure of the country to La Vera Cruz, is incredible. The carriage of the European goods that come by the galleons back again to other parts, is a very conſiderable article of trade, as is alſo the carriage of tobacco, ſugar, and other produce of Guatimala and Guaxaca, which come from the ſouth coaſt to La Vera Cruz, all which is ſaid to employ ſixty thouſand horſes, mules, and aſſes, beſides a proportionate number of men. So much ſilver is alſo brought from Zacatecas, as is ſaid ſix thouſand mules are employed in the carriage of.

*New* MEXICO, ſo called, becauſe of its being diſcovered ſince the Old Mexico, or New Spain, is ſometimes ſtiled by the Spaniards a kingdom, and ſometimes a province. It is bounded on the north by high mountains, beyond which is a country altogether unknown; by Louiſiana on the eaſt; by ſome of the provinces of New Spain on the ſouth; and, on the weſt, by the Gulph of California, and the Rio Colorado. But whether the limits on the north and eaſt ſhould be contracted or extended, is what we ſhall not pretend to determine; for there are no people, that we know of, to the north of Mexico, nor is there a twentieth part of the country within the limits ſpecified, that is either cultivated or inhabited; nor is it any more certain how we might venture to extend the limits of it on the eaſt ſide towards Florida, no one having attempted to fix the bounds between theſe two countries, except the French, who have introduced Louiſiana into their maps in the room of Florida, bounding it with the Britiſh plantations on the eaſt, and New Mexico on the weſt: the extent, however, has not been diſcovered; but what has may be ſaid to extend three hundred leagues north from New Biſcay; and there is no leſs from the Streights of California on the weſt, towards Florida on the eaſt.

As it lies in the midſt of the temperate zone, it is a very pleaſant climate; the ſummers are very warm, and the winters pretty ſharp; but then the former are neither ſultry nor unwholeſome, and the latter are clear, without being intolerable. The weather upon the whole is, generally ſpeaking, agreeable to the ſeaſon, and refreſhing to an European conſtitution. The ſoil is beautifully interſperſed with riſing grounds, and with rivers well-ſtocked with fiſh; abounds with fruit and timber-trees; produces turquoiſes, emeralds, and other precious ſtones; has mines of gold and ſilver, and feeds all ſorts of wild and tame cattle, eſpecially thoſe of the neat kind. Here are alſo ſeveral ſorts of fowl; and, in fact, it is ſaid to be as pleaſant, plentiful, and rich a country as any in the world. There are few great rivers in it, but ſeveral ſmall ones run into the Gulph of Mexico; and there are divers bays and creeks on that coaſt, which might eaſily be converted into ports.

The greateſt part of this country is ſtill in the hands of the natives, the principal of which are the Apachas, a warlike nation differing from all the other natives in language, being clad alſo in deer-ſkins, and living in tents, which they carry with them wherever they go. Thinking themſelves aggrieved by the Spaniſh government, about the cloſe of the laſt century, they made a general inſurrection, and did a vaſt deal of miſchief; but were at laſt ſuppreſſed, and have ſince been curbed by ſtronger garriſons. Moſt of the natives are now Chriſtians.

Some geographers divide New Mexico into fifteen provinces, many of the Spaniſh writers into eighteen, of which they give us barely the names; but the lateſt geographers ſeem to divide it only into five. On the other hand, ſome writers have ſubdivided it into twenty or twenty-five provinces, and furniſhed us with the names of as many towns; but we find no deſcrip ion of any, but that

which is agreed on by all to be the capital city, by name Santa Fé, which ſtands one hundred and thirty leagues from the ſea, near the ſource of Rio Del Nort, which runs a great way through the country ſouthward, and then bending eaſt, falls into the Gulph of Mexico. It is ſaid to be a rich city, regularly built, and is the ſee of a biſhop, ſuffragan of Mexico, as well as the ſeat of the governor of the country. Dampier has more than once mentioned the poſſibility of penetrating in this country to the gold mines, by making a deſcent on the ſhores oppoſite to California.

MIDDLE *Latitude*, in navigation, is half the ſum of two given latitudes.

MIDDLE *Latitude Sailing*, denotes a method of working the ſeveral caſes in ſailing, nearly agreeing with Mercator's way, but without the help of meridional parts.

MIDDLESEX has ſituated in it the celebrated city of London, and though it is the ſmalleſt county but four in England, it is certainly the richeſt and the moſt opulent in trade, not only in this, but every other kingdom of Europe. This country has few manufactures out of its metropolis, though thoſe of Spital-Fields, &c. are very extenſive, and brought to great perfection; ſo that we may venture to aſſert, that our artizans now equal, if not exceed, the French in the beauty of their ſilk fabric, and ſtill continue their wonted ſuperiority in the woollen ones; for though our rivals can carry theſe cheaper to market than we can, and conſequently rob us of a conſiderable ſhare of that trade we ſhould otherwiſe poſſeſs alone, yet this does not procced from any defect in the capacity of our artificers, but from their working ſo much cheaper in that kingdom, and the neglect or abuſe, in the working up our woollens here, which calls for a ſtrict inſpection and regulation. This great city is in a manner the center of both the inland foreign trade, and conſequently the tranſports to it, both by land and water, are vaſt and inconceivable: the concourſe of waggons, horſes, and other carriages for the one, with ſhips, lighters, &c. for the other, continually coming in and going out, are innumerable, and muſt give a foreigner a very exalted idea of that commerce which employs them.

MID-LOTHIAN. *See* EDINBURGH.

MIDSHIPMEN, officers on board a ſhip, whoſe ſtation, when on duty, is, ſome on the quarter-deck, others on the poop, &c.

They are to mind the braces, paſs the word of command from the captain and other ſuperior officers. They all aſſiſt on occaſion in navigating the ſhip, ſtowing, rummaging, &c.

They are uſually gentlemen, who, having ſerved their time as volunteers, are upon their preferment.

MILAN, the capital of Lombardy, is very conſiderable for its commerce, which it furniſhes with gold thread, flowered velvets with gold, ſilver, and ſilk grounds, many fine wrought ſilks, and large quantities of unwrought, exported for France, &c.

MILE, in geography, a long meaſure, whereby the Engliſh, &c. uſe to expreſs the diſtance between places.

It is of different extent in different countries. The geometrical or Italian mile contains one thouſand geometrical paces, *mille paſſus*, from whence mile is denominated.

The Engliſh mile conſiſts of eight furlongs; each furlong of forty poles; and each pole of ſixteen one-half feet.

MILFORD-HAVEN. By 13 *Geo.* II. ten thouſand pounds were granted towards carrying on works for fortifying and ſecuring the harbour of Milford-haven, on account of its convenient ſituation for fitting out fleets, and ſtationing cruizers; but as no duties were laid on ſhipping for perfecting this uſeful work, we ſhall omit mentioning any thing further in relation to it.

MILK, *lac*, a white juice, which nature prepares in the breaſts of women, and the udders of other animals for the nouriſhment of their young.

It is derived from the pure chyle, conveyed by the arteries to the breaſts, and without any other coction filtered through the glands of which they conſiſt, without undergoing any conſiderable change.

Milk is a compoſition of three different parts, butyrous, caſeous, and ſerous: the butyrous parts are the cream and oil that ſwim at top; the caſeous are the groſſer parts and thoſe that coagulate and are made into cheeſe: the ſerous are properly a lymph, and make whey.

By their own milk, all the known lactiferous animals are nouriſhed, both male and female; and from this alone every ſuch animal prepares all the other parts, both the ſolid and fluid, by means of the vital actions. It is alſo certain, that men may live for years upon milk alone, and perform all the actions of life, and have all the ſolid and fluid parts of their bodies perfectly elaborated.

The human milk is very ſweet and thin, the next is that of aſſes, then that of mares, then that of goats, and laſtly of cows: whence it is preſcribed in this order to conſumptive perſons of weak viſcera.

Dr. Cheyne extols a milk diet in his writings, particularly his method of cure in Diſeaſes of Body and Mind, his Eſſays on the Gout, Health, and long Life, &c. which ſee.

The beſt of all other milks is human milk, ſince it is moſt adapted to our natures: for which reaſon it is always to be preferred to the milk of other animals. It ought to be furniſhed by a ſound woman, who uſes due exerciſe, obſerves a laudable regimen, and is in the flower of her age. It is alſo beſt when the breaſts are drawn four or five hours after eating; for then the chyle is changed into concocted milk, and begins to aſſume the nature of the human fluids.

MILK *of the Moon*, or *fluor of ſilver*, in natural hiſtory, a white porous, friable, inſipid earth, frequently found in form of a farinaceous powder, but ſometimes concreted into a maſs not unlike foſſile agaric.

It is chiefly found in ſilver mines, and is ſuppoſed to be a fluor ſublimate from that ore.

MILK *of Sulphur*, *lac ſulphuris*, in chemiſtry, a preparation of fluors of ſulphur and ſalt of tartar, which is ſometimes preſcribed as a ſudorific.

*Virgin's* MILK, *lac virginale*, a kind of coſmetic made of ſugar of lead, or roch-allum, ſpring-water, litharge, and vinegar boiled and ſtrained, in order to check pimples, &c. on the ſkin by its cooling aſtringent properties. But ſuch things are dangerous, as they hinder cutaneous perſpiration, &c.

MILL, properly denotes a machine for grinding; but more generally it denotes all ſuch machines whoſe action depends upon a circular motion. The various kinds may be reduced to wind-mills, water-mills, and hand mills, under the laſt of which are compriſed thoſe worked by horſes, &c.

*Water* MILLS, are thoſe by the force or fall of a river, of which there are two kinds; thoſe where the force of the water is applied above the wheel, are called over-ſhot, and thoſe where it is applied below the wheel, are call under-ſhot.

*Wind*-MILLS, are thoſe which are turned by the force of the wind.

*Hand*-MILLS, are thoſe kept in motion by the hand, or by the force of horſes or other beaſts.

*Mill* alſo denotes any machine, which, when moved by ſome external force, makes a violent impreſſion on things applied thereto.

*Fulling*-MILLS, are machines moved by water, which raiſe and let fall large wooden piſtons in peals or troughs, in order to full and ſcower woollen ſtuffs.

*Paper*-MILL. *See* PAPER.

MILL, *in coinage*, is a machine uſed to prepare the *laminæ* or plates of metal, and to give them the proper thickneſs, hardneſs, and conſiſtence, before they be ſtruck or ſtamped. *See* COINING.

*Forge*-MILLS, are machines turned by water, which raiſe and let fall one or more huge hammers, to beat and hammer the iron into bars, anchors, and other maſſive works.

*Gunpowder*-MILL, is that uſed to pound and beat together the ingredients whereof gunpowder is compoſed.

*Sawing*-MILL, is a machine turned by the water, which ſaws ſeveral planks or boards at the ſame time.

Theſe are common in France, eſpecially in Dauphiné. They were lately prohibited in England, where they were begun to be introduced; becauſe it was apprehended they would have ruined the ſawyers, which would certainly have been the conſequence.

*Sugar*-MILL, a machine which ſerves to bruiſe the ſugar-canes, and expreſs the liquor or juice contained in them.

MILLEPEDES, wood-lice, ſows, or church bugs, in natural hiſtory, are ſmall inſects of an oblong figure, and of a dark bluiſh livid grey-colour; but they can occaſionally roll themſelves up in the form of a ball, which they frequently

quently do, and ſuffer themſelves to be taken, when they might have eſcaped by running.

They are found in great plenty with us, and that generally under logs of wood, or large ſtones, or between the bark and wood of decayed trees; they are a very favourite morſel with many of the larger animals; and, if nature had not inſtructed them to live in this concealed manner, the whole race of them would ſoon have been extinct.

Millepedes are aperient, attenuant, and detergent; they diſſolve viſcous humours, and are good in all obſtructions of the viſcera, and have been by ſome writers celebrated as a remedy for the ſtone, which it is pretended they have a power of reducing to a mucilage, and carrying off; but this is of the number of thoſe praiſes of medicines which redounds very little to the praiſes of thoſe who gave them. They are often found to be of ſervice in aſthmas; and great good has been done by a long courſe of them in diſorders of the eyes.

MILLER. This buſineſs requires no other qualifications but ſtrength. There are but few millers within the bills of mortality; but there are ſome particularly for grinding corn for the ſtarch-makers. They take five pounds with an apprentice; give only about ten ſhillings a week to the men who look after their mills; and require from two hundred to three hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

MILL-MAKER. This buſineſs requires ſtrength; and if the boy, who is put apprentice to it, obtains firſt the knowledge of mechanics, it will be of great ſervice to him, as he may, when a maſter, meet with many profitable jobs, out of the common road of his buſineſs; which is the making of hand mills for the corn-chandlers, and coffee-mills for the grocers. The mill-makers take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will have the common wages of a ſmith; unleſs he ſets up maſter, which he may do with fifty pounds.

MILLET, *milium*, in natural hiſtory, ſerved in former times to make bread, under a dearth of better corn; and it is well known to be a very grateful food to many nations at preſent, particularly the Coſſacks and Tartars. Puddings made of it have been long ago introduced into England, from Germany. It is cooling, drying, binding, ſomewhat windy, and not eaſily digeſted.

MILLINER. The girl deſigned for this employment ought to have a genteel perſon, and be capable of a ready addreſs: ſhe ſhould alſo write a tolerable hand, underſtand the firſt rules of arithmetic, work quick and well at her needle, and have ſome fancy and imagination.

MILLING, in the manufactures, the ſame with fulling, which ſee.

MILLING, *or throwing of ſilk*, a preparation of ſilk before it is dyed, whereby it is twiſted more or leſs at pleaſure.

Before milling, the ſilk is firſt put in boiling water between two linen cloths.

The mill is a ſquare machine, conſiſting of ſeveral pieces mortiſed in each other, in the center whereof are two wheels placed parallel over each over, whoſe axis bears on two poſts. When the machine is ſimple, a ſingle man turns theſe wheels by means of a little cog, and a large handle.

The wheel, put in motion, communicates to eight or more windles or reels; on the arms of which the ſilk is wound from off two rows of bobbins placed on each ſide the machine; each row being at the height of one of the two wheels in the center. Theſe bobbins are moved by means of leather thongs that bear on little wooden cylinders that ſupport them, and at length turn on the two wheels at the center: ſo that the ſilk on each bobbin twiſts, as it winds and forms its ſeparate ſkain.

The ſmalleſt wheel moves two hundred of theſe bobbins, to inſpect which one perſon is ſufficient, in order to ſupply freſh ſpools or bobbins, and knot the ends, when they break.

MILLION, in arithmetic, the number of ten hundred thouſand; or a thouſand times a thouſand.

MILL-REE, or *millerey*, a Portugueſe gold coin, ſomewhat more than the Spaniſh piſtole. It is ſo called, as conſiſting of a thouſand rees; alſo a St. Stephen, as having the figure of that ſaint thereon.

They have alſo a mill-ree with a little croſs, which is half the former, and its value is that cheifly uſed in computations.

MILL-WRIGHT. The mill-wright is an ingenious and laborious buſineſs, in which there is great variety. The boy who is deſigned for it, ought therefore to be ſtrong and ingenious, and alſo to have ſome knowledge in the laws of mechanics, that he may perfectly underſtand the principles upon which mills are conſtructed. The mill-wright takes from five to ten pounds; but, if he works as a journeyman, he will have the common wages of a carpenter.

MINALTOUN, an imaginary ſpecie made uſe of in ſome parts of Perſia, making ten yonſaltouns, two yonſaltouns make one abaſſi, and five abaſſis the minaltoun. The yonſaltoun is alſo called mamoudi-lacize.

MINDANAO. *See* MANILLAS.

MINE, in natural hiſtory, a place under ground, where metals, minerals, or precious ſtones are dug up.

For gold and ſilver mines, the richeſt and moſt celebrated are in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies: iron mines are more abundant in France: copper mines are chiefly in Sweden and Denmark; lead and tin mines abound moſt in England; quickſilver mines in Hungary and Spain; diamond mines in Golconda; ſalt-mines in Poland, &c.

*Metallic* MINES are generally dug for in mountains, though it is probable plains may abound as much therewith, only theſe are commonly cultivated; beſides this, the water will ſcarce allow them to dig: and, as the metallic veins always run either horizontal or oblique, they are eaſieſt found on the ſides of eminences.

The metallic veins are commonly encompaſſed with a ſort of ſtone peculiar to the mine, and accompanied with ſeveral ſtrata of clay, gravel, rock, &c. By all theſe the miners know when they approach a vein.

They diſcover that there is a mine in a mountain by the mineral ſtones that fall from it; the mineral taſte of the waters; the quality of the exhalation; the difference between the earth over the mines, and that of the neighbouring parts; the froſt lying on the adjacent places, when it thaws about the mines. Add to this, that the ground's producing but little graſs, and that but pale, is an indication of a mine.

In ſome mines, the metals are found, at their firſt opening, crude and imperfect, which yet, in time, as ſome ſay, grow ripe and rich.

Mines of copper, &c. ſhall not be royal mines, though gold and ſilver may be extracted, 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 30. *ſ.* 4.

The rates at which the king may take the ore of ſuch mines, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 6.

For relief of the creditors of the company of mine-adventurers, 9 *Ann. c.* 24.

Entering mines of black lead with intent to ſteal, felony, 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10.

MINEHEAD. By 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 1. from the twenty-fourth of June, 1701, for twenty-one years, there ſhall be paid (beſides the ancient acknowledgments accuſtomed to be paid to Tregonwell Lutterell, Eſq; and his anceſtors) for goods imported or exported, into, or out of, the port of Minehead, the duties following, viz. ſuch ſum of money not exceeding one halfpenny *per* ſtone for wool, and one penny *per* ſtone for woollen and bay yarn imported, as the truſtees hereafter appointed ſhall appoint, each ſtone to contain eighteen pounds, the duties to be paid by the perſon into whoſe poſſeſſion, or by whoſe order, the goods ſhall be delivered; and the wool imported ſhall be weighed at the town-hall, according to cuſtom; and for every ton of all other goods there ſhall be paid ſix-pence *per* ton, by every maſter of a ſhip that ſhall take on board or land any goods in the port of Minehead.

For every ſhip which ſhall come into the harbour (the ſaid port not being their diſcharging port) there ſhall be paid by the maſter the tonage and keelage following, viz. for every ſhip uſing the coaſting trade, of thirty tons, and not amounting to fifty tons, one ſhilling, and of fifty tons and upwards, two ſhillings, and for every ſhip of thirty tons, and not amounting to fifty, trading to other parts of Europe, or to his majeſty's plantations in America, two ſhillings and ſix-pence, and of fifty tons and upwards five ſhillings, and for every ſhip of thirty tons, and not amounting to fifty tons, and trading to any place in Aſia, Africa, or America (other than his majeſty's plantations) five ſhillings, and of fifty tons ten ſhillings, and the maſter paying the ſaid keelage ſhall have allowance for the ſame, of the merchants, by average.

All money raiſed by the duties, and recovered for the forfeitures, &c. ſhall be by the truſtees applied to the building

out a new head, clearing the beach, and other works for maintaining the pier and harbour, &c.

After the said term, so long as the harbour shall be kept up, there shall be paid to the lord of the manor of Minehead, the duties following for goods imported; for maintenance of the new head and other works, viz. for every twenty stones of wool, one-penny; for every twenty stones of woollen and bay yarn, two-pence; for every ton of salt, two-pence; for every quarter of corn, two-pence; for every chaldron of coals, two-pence.

*Continued by* 10 Ann. cap. 24. *for sixteen years, and by* 11 Geo. II. cap. 8. *from the 24th of June*, 1738, *for forty years.*

MINERAL, in natural history, in general, denotes fossil, and is applied to any body dug out of the earth. In this sense, minerals are divided into two classes; the one fusible and malleable, which are what we properly call metals: the others want these two properties, and are what we strictly call minerals.

Mineral, in a more accurate sense, denotes a compound fossil in which there is something discovered, and in all respects like metals, only that it is not malleable; joined with some other fossil, as salt, sulphur, stone, or earth: such as antimony, cinnabar, bismuth, &c.

Some ascribe the formation of minerals to the action of the sun without; some to the central fire within; and some think the cold does all by condensing and congealing certain juices of the earth. *See* METAL.

The minerals, metals, and stones, lie in beds, ever since the flood, if not from the creation; yet it is highly probable they have a faculty of growing in their respective beds, as Mr. Boyle thinks. Among other instances, he adds, that, in the forest of Dean in Glocestershire, the best iron, in the greatest quantities, are found in the old cinders, which they melt over again. This some impute to the negligence of former melters; but Mr. Derham thinks it owing to the new impregnations of the old ore or cinders from the air.

The chemists generally take minerals to be nothing else but imperfect metals, which, not having arrived at maturity, may be perfected by chemical operations; which hath given rise to the agreeable, but fatal delusion of searching for the philosopher's stone.

MINGRELIA does not traffic less in slaves than its neighbour territory, Georgia, as above twelve thousand of these unhappy wretches are yearly disposed of in this manner, of which above three thousand are purchased for Constantinople. The other merchandizes that this country produces, are silk, flax, in linen and thread, linseed, hides, martens skins, castor, box, wax, and honey of two sorts, the one white and the other red, though both excellent. It is the Turks of Constantinople, and the merchants of Caffa, Ionia, Iriſa, and Trebisonde, who carry on this trade; and it is common to see twelve sail yearly from Constantinople, and more than sixty feluccas from other parts, which bring here sundry goods and provisions to truck against those of the country, as very little or no money intervenes in these negociations, or any that are transacted by the Mingrelians.

The goods proper for this exchange, are bracelets, rings, glass or small necklaces, small knives, pins, needles, and other minute mercery.

Brimstone and nitre are found near Teflis, as a fossile salt is, in some mines, in the road to Erivan. Olive oil is very dear, so that the natives both eat and burn that of linseed; which is the chief use the Mengrelians and Georgians make of this plant, as they throw it away, for the most part, when the seed is gathered, though they might have excellent flax from it, did they not prefer cotton cloth to linens. *See* GEORGIA.

MINIUM, a mineral colour, called red lead, used by painters, &c. *See* LEAD.

MINORCA, an island in the Mediterranean Sea. The Spanish dons here are above trade, and the rest of the natives are unable to exercise it to any purpose: yet if this infatuated people would set themselves seriously to make the most of their native produce, a few years industry would enable them to traffic with their neighbours to advantage, and even to provide exports of considerable value for an English market. To instance in a few: the cotton shrub has been tried here, and succeeds to admiration: they have



spart growing in many places, in sufficient plenty to make all their own cordage, and to spare. The tunny fish abounds on their coast, and they might easily fall into the method of curing it: by this the French of Languedoc and Provence, their neighbours, make a vast advantage.

They have abundance of olive-trees, yet they make no oil of the fruit, and are utterly ignorant of the right method of pickling it.

Some capers they pickle, and might, from the frequency of the plant, improve this into a very valuable export.

Hemp and flax do extremely well, and might be increased, and manufactured for exportation. Their canes and reeds are of use in the clothiers trade, but they export none; and they have great plenty of excellent slate, but do not work it. It might possibly answer to send their cantoon stone to England as ballast; but certainly their marble would be a very valuable commodity with us, of which no country can boast a greater quantity in proportion, nor of greater beauty or variety, than this poor island.

Squills they have in abundance, mastic, aloes, and some other drugs, which they neglect.

Their bees thrive well, and should be carefully managed, and increased as much as possible; their wax is inferior to none, and their honey cannot fail of being extremely delicate and fine in a country abounding with such a variety of aromatic plants, and is, therefore, in high esteem every where.

They raise a little tobacco, but seldom half the quantity they consume; and they make a kind of snuff in small quantities, which is in no respect inferior to that at Lisbon.

Their neighbours of Majorca make good advantage of their plantations of saffron, which those people use in their cookery, and yet will not take pains to raise it.

Their palm-trees, for want of a proper cultivation, produce no dates, and they send none of their fruit abroad, though they have it in their power to supply us with as good figs, prunes, almonds, raisins, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, and several other kinds, as any country in Europe.

But we will close these hints of what an industrious people might do to enrich themselves, and this indolent generation of men carelessly overlook, with the mention of salt, a ready-money commodity every where, and of which they might easily make a thousand times the quantity they do. Their method requires little trouble. There are a great many places on the coast of the island, where the rock is but little higher than the surface of the sea, and is flat for a great way together. In gales of wind the sea is beat over all these levels; and the salts, have, by degrees, corroded the softer parts of the stone, and reduced its face to an infinite number of small cavities, divided from each other by the more solid veins, which have resisted their impression.

These cavities they fill with water from the sea, by means of scoops, and one day's sun suffices to evaporate the water, and leaves the concreted salt dry in the cells. The women and children gather it in the evening, and carry it home; and the cells in the rock are filled as before.

MINT, *mentha*, in botany, is one of the *didynomia gymnospermia* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ verticillatæ* of Ray. There are several species of it, three of which are used in the shops: 1. The common spear-mint; 2. The pepper-mint; and, 3. The menthastrum, or horse-mint.

Mint is a famous stomachic and carminative; it strengthens the stomach, prevents or stops vomitings, when not from too violent causes, and discusses flatulencies. It is also esteemed a great cephalic, and is prescribed by many in vertigoes, and other disorders of the head and nerves; and some recommend it as an aperient in obstructions of the viscera. We keep a simple water made of it by the alembic in the shops, and an essential oil distilled the same way: both of them possess much of the virtues of the plant; and it is beside these, and its use in infusion or decoction, an ingredient in many of the compositions.

MINT, is the place where the king's coin is formed, be it gold or silver, which is at present, and long hath been, the Tower of London, though it appears by divers statutes, that in ancient times the Mint hath been also at Calais. 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 16. 9 *Hen.* V. *stat.* 5. *c.* 5. The

officers belonging to the Mint have not always been alike: at preſent they are theſe, the warden, who is the chief of the reſt, and is by his office to receive the ſilver of the goldſmiths and to pay for it, and to overſee all the reſt belonging to his function: his fee is a hundred pounds *per annum*. The maſter-worker, who receiveth the ſilver from the warden, cauſeth it to be melted, and delivereth it to the moniers, and taketh it from them again when it is made; his allowance is not any ſet fee, but according to the pound weight. The third is the comptroller, who is to ſee that the money be made to the juſt aſſize, to overſee the officer; and control them, if the money be not as it ought to be; his ſee is a hundred marks *per annum*. Then is the maſter of aſſay, who weigheth the ſilver, and ſeeth whether it be according to the ſtandard: his yearly fee is likewiſe a hundred marks. Then is the auditor to take the accounts. The ſurveyor of melting, who is to ſee the ſilver caſt out, and not to be altered after it is delivered to the melter, which is after the aſſay-maſter hath made trial of it. The clerk of the irons, who ſeeth that the irons be clean, and fit to work with. The graver, who graveth the ſtamps for the money. The melters, that melt the bullion before it comes to the coining. The blanchers, who do anneal, boil, and cleanſe the money. The porters, who keep the gate of the Mint. The provoſt of the Mint, who is to provide for all the monies, and to overſee them. Laſtly, the moniers, who are ſome to ſhear the money, ſome to forge it, others to beat it broad, ſome to round it, and ſome to ſtamp or coin it. Their wages are uncertain, according to the weight of money coined by them. *See* MONEY.

MIRZEOU, is the firſt place of the kingdom of Canara, near the frontiers of that of Viſapour, about eighteen leagues to the ſouth of Goa. The Portugueze had here one of their moſt ancient fortifications; but the Canarians took it from them in 1662, after a defence which neither did honour to the beſiegers nor beſieged.

MISSLETOE, *viſcum*, in natural hiſtory. This plant is never found upon the earth; it grows upon the oak, apple, pear, acacia of America, and ſeveral other trees.

Miſſiletoe is accounted a cephalic and nervine medicine, particularly uſed for all kinds of convulſion fits, for the apoplexy, palſy, and vertigo; for which purpoſes, ſome prefer the miſſiletoe of the hazel to that of the oak.

MISSISSIPI. *See* LOUISIANA.

MISY, in natural hiſtory, a vitriolic mineral, which principally differs from the chalcitis, in that it contains no cupreous vitriol, but only that of iron. *See* CHALCITIS.

MITE, a ſmall coin, formerly current, which was equal to a third of a farthing.

It alſo denotes a ſmall weight among the monyers, which is equal to the twentieth part of a grain, and is divided into twenty-four doits.

MITHRIDATE, *mithridatium*, in pharmacy, an antidote, in form of an electuary, chiefly againſt poiſon.

It is one of the capital officinals, conſiſting of a vaſt number of ingredients, many of which might have been better left out, as they bear no affinity to the main deſign of the whole. It would make a much better medicine, if the other ingredients of the right intention were proportionably increaſed, ſo as to make the opium ſtill bear the ſame proportion to the whole.

Mithridate is greatly uſed as a cordial, an opiate, and a ſudorific. Its doſe is from one ſcruple to two drachms, and is a much better medicine, as a cordial and alexipharmic, than the Venice treacle.

MOCHA, ſituated at the entrance of the Red Sea in thirteen degrees eighteen minutes of north latitude, is at preſent a city of the greateſt commerce in all Arabia Felix, where it was transferred to from Aden, about the middle of the ſixteenth century. There are hardly any maritime nations, either of Europe, Aſia, or Africa, who do not ſend ſhips to Mocha; the Engliſh and Dutch generally ſend theirs here, from the places in India where they are ſettled, as the French did when their commerce was moſt flouriſhing, but they now go there directly.

The other veſſels brought here by every monſoon, which are often fifty or more in number, commonly come from Goa, Diu, Touvel, Dabul, Goga, Calicut, Achen, Mafulipatan, Negeva, Promiens, Cadts, Moſambique, Melinda, and Ethiopia, all loaden with the richeſt products of the places from whence they ſail, or that their freighters have collected from the moſt remote parts of the Eaſt, as from China and Japan; beſides which maritime trade, a very great and rich one is carried on by land, by means of the caravans from Aleppo and Suez, that arrive in the month of March. They are commonly two months on their journey, and generally join on entering Arabia, making part of thoſe that conduct the pilgrims to Mecca and Medina, but which, till then, are only compoſed of merchants and goods.

About a thouſand camels ſerve to tranſport theſe merchandize, eatables, and other neceſſaries for the merchants, and the troops, which go as an eſcort to defend them againſt the Arabs; and theſe caravans are eſteemed but indifferently rich, if they carry leſs in ready money than two hundred thouſand dollars, and a hundred thouſand ducats of gold, either Hungarian, Venetian, or Mooriſh; and this is only to be underſtood of what is entered at the Cuſtom-houſe, there being alſo near as much more unregiſtered, and carried by ſtealth, to ſave the duties, which are very conſiderable. The goods which theſe caravans convey, are velvets, ſattins, armoiſins, gold, Levant ſtuffs, camblets, cloths, ſaffrons, quickſilver, vermillion, and merceries, from Nuremberg. The royal ſhip (loaded yearly for the grand ſeignior's account) from Suez, brings alſo the ſame commodities as the caravan, with the addition of ſome Muſcovy hides, pewter, ſonwa (a drug to dye ſcarlet) and about four hundred thouſand dollars, tho' but fifty thouſand ducats.

The goods which the caravans, royal ſhip, and other foreign veſſels, load at Mocha, in return of thoſe brought there, are partly the products and manufactures of Arabia, and partly what has been introduced by ſhips from India, Africk, and Europe. The Arabians furniſh but little towards this commerce of their own manufactures, as they have only ſome cotton cloth, and this but coarſe; though in recompence of the ſaid defect, their growths ſupply many valuable commodities, as incenſe, myrrh, and ambergreaſe, aloes, balm, caſſia, dragon's blood, gum-arabick, coral, and a quantity of plants, both medicinal and odoriferous, precious ſtones, eſpecially Baharem pearls; but above all, coffee, which, beſides being of the beſt quality, is ſo plenty as to load many ſhips with it yearly, of which this port is generally full from all parts, and under all colours, as from Surate, Cambaye, Diu, Malabar, and all places in India: here are alſo veſſels of Caſſen, Socotra, Maſcate, and all the Gulph of Perſia; and of the Europeans, Engliſh, French, Dutch, Danes, and Portugueze; and beſides the merchants of the above-mentioned nations, this is the rendezvous of many from Barbary, Egypt, Turkey, and all Arabia, and may properly be termed a general magazine, where the merchandizes of an univerſal trade are depoſited.

MODENA *Dutchy*, in Italy, is a pleaſant, fruitful country, abounding in ſilk, corn, wine, rich paſtures, and delicious fruits. Its trade is ſimilar to that of Bologna, for which *ſee* ROME.

MOHAIR, a kind of ſtuff made of ſilk and hair.

Mohair was an article of ſome importance, being conſumed in buttons, button-holes, and camblets: but goats, of whoſe hair this is made, ſometimes rot as our ſheep do, and this occaſioned a diminution in the import, whilſt our home conſumption alſo decreaſed by means of the new faſhion of metal buttons. The buyers of mohair, however, complained aloud that this commodity was imported only from Turkey; and that the merchants had kept it up to an exorbitant price, importing only ſix hundred bags for the ſpace of ſixteen months, and the package of that very inferior.

MOIDORE, *moedore*, *moeda*, a gold coin ſtruck and current in Portugal, is properly the Portugueze piſtole, and equivalent to two mill-rees. There are double piſtoles, and demi-piſtoles.

MOLDAVIA, a principality of European Turkey, bounded by the river Neiſter, which divides it from Poland on the north-eaſt; by Beſſarabia on the eaſt; by the Danube, which ſeparates it from Bulgaria, on the ſouth; and by Walachia and Tranſilvania, on the weſt; being two hundred and forty miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad, ſituate in a good air and fruitful ſoil, producing corn, wine, rich paſtures, a good breed of horſes, oxen,

and ſheep, plenty of veniſon, game, fiſh and fowl, and all European fruits, and is well watered with the rivers Danube, Pruth, Neſter, &c. The capital city is Jaſſy.

MOLOSSES. *See* MELASSES.

MOLUCCA ISLES. Theſe iſles are part of the Oriental Archipelago, and indeed compoſe a particular one themſelves of more than a hundred and thirty iſlands. They are divided into the great and ſmall Moluccas, and theſe laſt again parted into thoſe properly ſo called, and them of Banda; ſome authors placing alſo the iſle of Amboina among them.

All theſe iſlands were diſcovered by the Portugueze in 1511, and their poſſeſſion for ſome time diſputed by the Spaniards, in virtue of the famous diviſion made by the court of Rome, then the acknowledged arbitrator in the partition of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies: however, by the treaty of 1520 between thoſe two nations, the Moluccas were ceded to the former, who occupied them till 1601, when the Dutch, newly arrived in India, began to moleſt them in their poſſeſſion, and finally chaſed them out of all theſe iſlands, commonly called the Spice Iſlands, on account of the growth of nutmegs, mace, and cloves in many of them, and, as Mr. Savary ſays, not in any other part of the world, though Dr. Garcin informs us of their being produced in Borneo.

### *Of the Great Molucca iſles.*

Theſe are, among others, Celebes, Gilolo, Ceram, and Bouton, to which Timor and Arou ought to be added. The firſt is the moſt conſiderable of all, being two hundren leagues long, by an hundred broad, which muſt be underſtood, not of one ſole iſle, but of a cluſter ſo near to one another, that they ſeem to compoſe but one only. It encloſes many kingdoms, of which that of Macaſſar occupies the major part of the ſouthern coaſt, &c. This kingdom is alſo the moſt fertile of any, and almoſt the only one where the Europeans have any trade.

The capital, celebrated for its grandeur, number of inhabitants, and the beauty of its buildings in the European taſte, is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſle, at five degrees, ſix minutes from the line, where the Portugueze formerly carried on almoſt alone, one of the greateſt trades in India. The Dutch ſucceeded them, and, by conſent of the Macaſſarian King, who ſeemed tired of the ſervitude in which the former held him, built here Panakoke and Samboupo forts to ſecure their trade, and as they would make the Macaſſars believe, the liberty of their country. But theſe new gueſts not being more tractable in point of commercial concerns than their predeceſſors; but endeavouring to become maſters of Maſſacar, to the excluſion of all other nations, the Portugueze regained their credit, and the Dutch, being near drove out, prevented the deſigns of their enemies, which they had foreſeen, by appearing before Maſſacar in 1660, with a fleet of thirty-three ſail, and after having been equally victorious at ſea, where they took, burnt, or ſunk, ſix large Portugueze ſhips richly laden, and on ſhore (where in a deſcent they forced, ſword in hand, two forts within gun-ſhot of the city) they ſo intimidated the king and his people (although the braveſt in India) that they obliged him by a treaty concluded at Batavia the ſame year, never to admit the Portugueze again into any part of the kingdom, and to leave the Hollanders in poſſeſſion of their forts and trade: it was not, however, till 1669, that they could intirely ſubdue this reſtleſs and ſavage nation, who, notwithſtanding the treaty of 1660, and another of 1667, continually interrupted their ſpice trade, by ſending ſmall veſſels to traffic with the inhabitants of Banda and the Moluccas, in cloves and nutmegs, which they afterwards ſold to the Engliſh, and maintained, as the Dutch gave out, a correſpondence with their enemies, to take from them Amboina, one of their eight governments in India. And notwithſtanding ſo conſiderable an expence was made, and ſo much blood ſpilt, they have not been able to eſtabliſh an excluſive trade at Macaſſar, the port and city having remained open to all the nations of India and Europe, excepting the Portugueze, who notwithſtanding may come and trade like the others, ſince their imbecility in the Indies no longer affords the Dutch any jealouſy.

The principal commodities exported from hence, are rice in a vaſt quantity, and the beſt in India; gold, ivory, a great deal of brazil wood, and ſome ſanders, cotton, camphire, various ſorts of hard-ware, arms proper for the Indians, ginger, long pepper, and pearls, fiſhed here. The imports conſiſt of ſcarlet cloths, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, Cambaye cloth, pewter, copper, iron, ſoap, and aſſa fœtida, which two laſt come from Surate.

Gilolo has the ſecond rank among the great iſles of the Moluccan Archipelago. Some make it two hundred leagues, and others but an hundred and fifty leagues in circuit. The beſt merchandize extracted from hence is ſagou, or ſago, for making bread, without which the inhabitants of the Leſſer Moluccas and Banda could not ſubſiſt in the want of rice, with which they can only be ſupplied from Macaſſar, &c. It is made of the pitch of a tree like the cocoa-tree, and is now in great eſteem in Europe, as a nouriſhing food for weak and valetudinarian conſtitutions.

Ceram is not leſs than Gilolo, a part of whoſe coaſts have for a long time appertained to the king of Ternate, and were the occaſion of a tedious war between him and the Dutch, on account of the cloves cultivated here. Since the peace made between them in 1631, this place has ſhared the fate of Ternate and the other iſles belonging to it. The clove trees have been rooted up, and the Dutch have built redoubts and forts in many places, to impede all foreign trade, where they have now made themſelves maſters. Of which more hereafter in treating of Ternate.

Bouton is the laſt of the four Great Molucca iſles, and may have about eighty leagues circumference. This produces no rice; but carries on a great trade in ſlaves, and has a ſmall quantity of ambergreaſe of middling quality. Its beſt buſineſs is that of tamettes, a ſort of linen made here, proper for the Moluccas, where the Dutch carry a large quantity yearly.

### *Of the Little Molucca iſles.*

The iſlands properly called the Moluccas, are only five, viz. Ternate, Tidor, Machian (or Makian) Moter, and Bachian, which compoſe one of the ſeven great Dutch governments in Aſia. The land of theſe iſles lies very high, each being an intire mountain, which begins from the coaſts, and have their ſummits run to a great elevation. They are all very ſmall; Ternate, which is the principal, not having above ſeven leagues, Machian near ſix, Moter only four, and Bachian twenty in circuit; but this laſt is half deſert, and very full of ſago trees. All theſe iſles are near the line, Machian is directly under it, and Moter more to the north. The king of Ternate reigned formerly over not only theſe five iſles, but over the greateſt part of the Moluccan Archipelago, and his ſubjects were then obliged to bring their ſpice to his capital; and it was there, that the foreign merchants, whether Javans, Malayans, and the Portugueze (at firſt) came to buy it; but a little after theſe latter were arrived in India, this great power of the Ternatois began to ſhake, and the inhabitants of Macaſſar, Tidor, and many other iſles, having revolted and confederated, went to attack their king.

The Portugueze, always attentive to what might enlarge their empire, and extend their conqueſts in the Indies, ſoon mixed in the quarrel, and improved ſo favourable a conjuncture to their own advantage, obtaining thereby an eſtabliſhment in Ternate, even with the king's conſent; and afterwards by right of conqueſt in Tidor, Machian, Amboina, Banda, Timor, and Solor, where they built forts, which made them maſters of the ſpiceries. In 1605, the Dutch appeared at Ternate, and the Portugueze Ternatois received them, and permitted their building the fort of Tolucco, one of the firſt they had in India.

This change of maſters having in nothing ſweetened the Ternatois ſervitude, who to the Portugueze yoke had now added that of the Dutch, they endeavoured ſeveral times to ſhake off this laſt, but always unſucceſsfully; and were obliged to make various treaties in 1609, 1612, and in 1638, which finiſhed the loſs of the little liberty they had remaining, and intirely excluded all forcigners from the Moluccas, ſecuring to the Dutch only all the trade of the cloves, which grew in thoſe iſles. This treaty, which confirmed all preceding ones, and reſtored to the king of Ternate all the places that the Dutch had ſeized in the laſt war

war of 1638, agreed, that all the king's fubjects ſhould quit Amboina; and that this prince ſhould for ever renounce his right to that iſle in favour of the Dutch, with many other articles to rivet their ſlavery, and exclude all ſtrangers. It ought, however, to be remarked here, that this peace was in ſome fort bought by the Dutch; for although victorious and maſters of one part of the king's territories, who, with his grandees, and brave troops, had retired into inacceſſible places, they choſe rather to ſubmit paying him a kind of an annual tribute, than to riſk the clove trade, of which they were, and are yet, ſo jealous: as they alſo did in favour of the Onimas and Oroncais, to whom they likewiſe yearly pay a ſort of penſion to recompence their rooting up all the clove trees in their lands, and not to permit their vaſſals planting any for the future; and ſince the treaty of 1638, the Dutch have abſolutely remained in poſſeſſion of the five ſmall Molucca iſles: but by various diſputes which have happened ſince, the company has been obliged ſeveral times to augment the different penſions they paid, for the deſtruction of the clove trees in all the iſles, as they found they had ſufficient in thoſe that grew in Amboina. Theſe augmentations were made in 1652, 1682; and laſtly in 1713, when it was finally agreed that they ſhould pay yearly.

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|---|---|---|
| To the king of Ternate | 6600 | rix-dollars |
| To the king of Tidor | 2400 | |
| To the king of Bachian | 700 | |
| To the king of Moter | 150 | |
| To the king of Machian | 2000 | |
| To the grandees of Ternate | 600 | |
| In all | 12450 | rix-dollars. |

None of theſe iſles are fruitful except in cloves, and conſequently furniſh nothing elſe to trade; that of Ternate yielded formerly in a common year between four and five hundred bahares (of five hundred and fifty Dutch pounds each) of cloves, and near one thouſand in the grand crop, which happened every ſeven, or, as others ſay, every four years. Tidor three hundred bahares, and twelve to thirteen hundred in the good ſeaſon. Moter only a hundred; Machian three hundred; Bachian little more than Moter; but theſe three augmented proportionably in the good year; Moter and Bachian yielding near four hundred, and Machian fifteen or ſixteen hundred; but no cloves grow there ſince the aforeſaid treaties. From Ternate a ſmall quantity of tortoiſeſhell is exported, and a large one carried there of coarſe linen, and ſome others, with handkerchiefs called tamettes from Bouton, many ſtuffs, and other merchandize from Europe, for the Dutch in garriſon, or ſettled there.

MOMBAZA, a ſubdiviſion of Zanguebar, on the coaſt of Africa, a country ſubject to the Portugueze, which furniſhes them with ſlaves, gold, ivory, rice, fleſh, and other proviſions, with which they ſupply their plantations in Brazil, &c.

MONCHA, *ar* MONKA, a ſort of boiſeau, or corn meaſure, uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, for meaſuring huſked rice. *See* TROUBAHOUACHE.

MONEY, *moneta*, a piece of metal marked for coin with the arms of a prince, or ſtate, and other devices, that circulates at a ſtated rate for things of different value, to facilitate the buſineſs of commerce.

In the earlieſt ages, the ordinary way of traffic, no doubt, was by exchanging one commodity for another; but in proceſs of time it was found neceſſary to have ſome common ſtandard, according to which all other things ſhould be eſtimated. The firſt account we have of it is in the time of Abraham, who paid four hundred ſheckels for a burying-place.

Money being a common meaſure for reducing wares to a balance, the Greeks called it *νομισμα*, as being eſtabliſhed by law, which they called *νομος*; it was called *pecunia* by the Latins, either as the wealth of thoſe days conſiſted in cattle, or, according to Pliny, as their firſt coin was ſtamped with the figure of a cow: they alſo call it *moneta*, becauſe, when the Romans wanted money, Juno admoniſhed them to uſe juſtice, and there ſhould then be no want of money: hence, ſhe was ſurnamed *Juno Moneta*, and money was coined in her temple. In proceſs of time, money was made a goddeſs, called *Dea Pecunia*, under the figure of a woman holding a balance in one hand, and a *cornucopia* in the other.

Money, at preſent, may be divided into real and imaginary.

Real money includes all ſpecies of gold, ſilver, or copper, which are current in commerce; ſuch as guineas, crowns, piſtoles, pieces of eight, ducats, &c.

The degrees of goodneſs in money are expreſſed in gold by carats, in ſilver by penny-weights. There are ſeveral reaſons for not coining them without alloy, namely, the waſte and expence in refining them, the neceſſity of hardening them to make them the more durable, and the ſcarcity of gold and ſilver.

Among the ancient Britons, iron rings, or iron plates, were uſed for money: among the Lacedemonians, iron bars quenched with vinegar. Seneca obſerves, that anciently there was ſtamped money of leather; a thing which was put in practice in England in the time of the barons wars; and the Hollanders coined great quantities of paſteboard in 1574.

Numa Pompilius made money of wood and leather. The firſt ſilver money the Romans coined was in the year of Rome 484, and their firſt gold money in 546.

The impreſſion on coins has been various in different ages and countries.

No living man's head was ever ſtamped on a Roman coin, till after the fall of the commonwealth; from that time they bore the emperor's head on one ſide; and, henceforward, the practice of ſtamping the prince's image on coins has obtained among all civilized nations, except the Mahometans, who, in deteſtation of images, inſcribe only the prince's name, with the year of their prophet's tranſmigration.

As to the figure of coin, it is either round, as in England; multangular, or irregular, as in Spain; ſquare, as in ſome parts of the Indies; or nearly globular, as in others.

The moſt ancient Engliſh coin Mr. Cambden had known, was that of Ethelbert, king of Kent, in whoſe time money accounts paſſed by the name of pounds, ſhillings, pence, and mancuſes.

Pence, ſo called on account of the juſt weight, were coarſely ſtamped with the king's image on the one ſide, and either the mint-maſter's, or the city's where it was coined, on the other. Five of theſe pence made their ſcilling, probably ſo called from ſcilingus, which the Romans uſed for the fourth part of an ounce: forty of theſe ſcillings made the pound, and four hundred of theſe pounds were a legacy or portion for a king's daughter, as appears by king Alfred's laſt will.

Pence was the only real money they had, the reſt being imaginary monies, that is, names of weights. Thirty of theſe pence made a mancas, the ſame, according to ſome, with a mark or manca, which, from an old manuſcript, appears to have been *quinta pars unciæ*.

Theſe mancas, or mancuſes, were reckoned both in ſilver and gold. In the notes on king Canute's laws, we find this diſtinction, that a mancuſa was as much as a mark of ſilver, and manca a ſquare piece of gold, in value thirty pence.

The Danes introduced a way of reckoning money by ores. It can be gathered from the abbey-book of Burton, that twenty ores were equivalent to two marks.

There was alſo a gold coin, called *bizantine*, or *bezant*, as being coined at Conſtantinople, then called Bizantium. The value of which coin is not only now loſt, but was intirely forgot, even in the time of king Edward III. only that a hundred years before, two hundred thouſand bezants were exacted by the ſoldan, for the ranſom of St. Louis of France; which were then valued at one hundred thouſand livres.

Though the coining of money be a ſpecial prerogative of the king, yet the ancient Saxon princes communicated it to their ſubjects, ſo that every good town had a mint; but, at London, eight; at Canterbury four for the king, two for the archbiſhop, one for the abbot at Wincheſter; ſix at Rocheſter, two at Haſtings, &c.

The Norman kings continued the ſame cuſtom of coining only pence, with the prince's image on one ſide; and,

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on the other, the name of the city where coined, with a croſs ſo deeply impreſſed, that it might be eaſily broken into two halves, called half-pence; or into four parts, called fourthings or farthings.

In the time of Richard I. money coined in the Eaſt parts of Germany, was introduced and called eaſterling money; and ſoon after coiners from that country were ſent for to bring the coin to perfection, which ſince has been called ſterling.

Edward I. who firſt adjuſted the meaſure of an ell by the length of his arm, eſtabliſhed a certain ſtandard for the coin which Greg. Rochley, mayor of London and mint-maſter, expreſſed to this purpoſe: "A pound of money containeth twelve ounces: in a pound there ought to be eleven ounces, two eaſterlings, and one farthing, the reſt alloy. The ſaid pound ought to weigh twenty ſhillings and three-pence in account and weight. The ounce ought to weigh twenty-pence, and a penny twenty-four grains and a half. Note, that eleven ounces two-pence ſterling ought to be of pure ſilver, called leaf ſilver; and the minter muſt add of other weight ſeventeen-pence half-penny farthing, if the ſilver be ſo pure."

About the year 1320, the ſtates of Europe firſt coined gold; and, among the reſt, our Edward III. The firſt pieces were Florences, as being coined by Florentines: afterwards nobles; then roſe-nobles, current at ſix ſhillings and eight-pence; half-nobles, called half-pennies, and quarters, called farthings of gold. The ſucceeding kings coined roſe-nobles, and double roſe-nobles, great ſovereigns, half Henry-nobles, angels, and ſhillings.

King James I. coined units, double-crowns, Britiſh-crowns; then crowns, half-crowns, &c.

*Falſe or baſe money*, is either that ſtruck by an unqualified perſon, and of unſtatutable metals, either clipped, its edges filed, or ſome of its ſurface peeled off; if gold, by *aqua regia*; if ſilver, by *aqua fortis*.

Another kind of baſe money is that made of iron, copper, &c. covered on each ſide with a thin plate of gold or ſilver, neatly ſoldered round the edges, and ſtruck, like other coin, with figures, legends, &c. which are only to be diſtinguiſhed from them by the bulk, weight, and ſound.

*Imaginary money*, or *money of account*, is that which does not exiſt in real ſpecies, but is a denomination invented to facilitate the ſtating of accounts on a fixed footing, not variable like current coins at the pleaſure of the ſovereign; of this kind are pounds, livres, marks, maravedies, &c.

*Engliſh money of account*, is the pound, ſhilling, and penny: the pound contains twenty ſhillings, and the ſhilling twelve pence.

*Scotch money of account*, is the pound, ſhilling, and penny; the pound containing twenty ſhillings, being equivalent to one ſhilling and eight-pence Engliſh; the ſhilling, containing twelve pennies, equal to a penny Engliſh. There is alſo among them an account of merks, a merk being equivalent to one ſhilling, one penny, and one-third of a penny Engliſh, or ſterling. Of this laſt kind they had formerly a ſilver coin.

*French money of account* was formerly the pariſis, tournois, and the ecu, or crown; but, ſince the ordnance of 1667, they only reckon by livres, that is, pounds, ſols, or ſhillings, and deniers, tournois, or pence. The livre is twenty ſols, or one-third of the crown; and the ſol twelve deniers.

The maille, obole, or half-penny, tournois, is now alſo a money of account, though anciently a real coin. The maille is divided into two pites, and each pite into two ſemi-pites, all monies of account. To which muſt be added the frank, of the ſame value with the livre; and the blank, five deniers, tournois, and the carolus, ten; all three anciently real coins.

*Dutch and Flemiſh monies of account.* In Holland, Zealand, Brabant, and Cologne, they uſe the pundt, or livre de groſs, ſchilling, or ſol de groſs, and pening, or deniers groſs. The pundt contains twenty-ſchellings, and the ſchilling twelve penings. The pundt is equal to ſeven livres four ſols French, or ten ſhillings three-tenths ſterling. They alſo account by florins, or guilders, patards, and penings. The florin is equal to one-ſixth of the pound, or twenty patards, and the patard twelve penings.

*Spaniſh money of account*, is the peſo, ducat of ſilver and vellon, rial of vellon, and cornados and maravedis of ſilver and vellon. The peſo is to the ducat, as twelve to ten. The ducat of ſilver contains eleven rials of ſilver; and that of vellon eleven rials of vellon; which makes a difference of near one half, the ſilver rial being current for ſeven ſhillings ſterling, and that of vellon only at three ſhillings and eight-pence ſterling.

Thirty-four maravedis make the rial of vellon, and ſixty-three that of ſilver. The maravedis is divided into four cornados.

*German and Swiſs money of account.* They account, particularly at Francfort, by florins different from that of Holland by creuxes, or creutzers, and penins. The florin is equal to three ſhillings ſterling, and divided into ſixty creuxes, and the creux into eight penins. In Nuremberg, &c. they account by rix-dollars, florins, and creuxes. The rix-dollar is equal to four ſhillings and eight-pence ſterling, divided into a hundred creuxes, and the creux into eight penins. At Hamburgh, Berlin, &c. by rix-dollars, marks lubs, ſchillings lubs, and deniers lubs. The rix-dollar and dollar on the foot of the French crown, or four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling, divided into three marks, and the mark into ſixteen ſchillings, and the ſchilling into twelve penins. At Hamburgh, they alſo uſe the livre, ſchilling, and denier de gros. At Augſburg and Bolzamont, they account by dollars and creuxes. At Namburg, by rix-dollars, gros, and ſenins; the rix-dollar equal to four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling, divided into thirty-ſix gros, and the gros into twelve ſenins. At Straſburg, by florins, creuxes, and penins. The florin equal to one ſhilling and ſix-pence ſterling, divided into ſixty creuxes, and the creux into eight penins.

*Italian monies of account.* At Rome, they account by pounds, ſhillings, and pence of gold di ſtampa. At Venice, by ducats and gros di banco: the ducat divided into twenty-four gros; each gros equal to two pence half-penny ſterl. And by ducats current, called ſequins, equal to nine ſhillings and two-pence ſterling, and by pounds, ſhillings, and pence. At Lucca and Bergamo, they uſe the four laſt; and only the three laſt at Bologna, Mantua, and Savoy. In Geneva, beſides pounds, ſhillings, and pence, they alſo account by florins, containing ſix ſolids, or ſix-pence half-penny ſterling. At Leghorn, and Geneva, beſides pounds, ſhillings, and pence, they account by piaſtres, equal to four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling. At Nova, they account by crowns, ſhillings, and pence of gold de marc. At Raconis, by pounds, florins, and gros. At Ancona, by crowns, ſhillings, and pence. At Naples, by ducats, grains, and tarins, equal to one ſhilling ſterling, divided into twenty grains.

*Sicilian and Malteſe monies of account.* At Meſſina, Palermo, and throughout Sicily, they account by pounds, ounces, tarins, grains, and picciolies, which are ſummed by thirty, twenty, and ſix; the ounce being thirty tarins, the tarin twenty grains, and the grain ſix picciolis: at Malta, by pounds, ounces, carlins, and grains: the ounce thirty grains, or ſixty carlins, or ſix hundred grains; the carlin being equal to ſix-pence farthing ſterling.

*Poliſh monies of account.* Through Poland, moſt of the king of Pruſſia's dominions, and Dantzic, they account by rix-dollars, roups, and grochs. The rix-dollar is equal to four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling, and divided into thirty-two roups; and in the Pruſſian dominions, into twenty-four grochs. In Poland, into ninety grochs. Sometimes they uſe the florin, groch, and penny.

*Swediſh, Daniſh, and Muſcovite monies of account.* In Sweden they account by dalles, equal to thirty-two ſols lubs, or three ſhillings ſterling. In Denmark, by rix-dollars and ſtivers; the rix-dollar being divided into forty-eight ſtivers. In Muſcovy, they account by rubles, altins, and grifs; the ruble is equal to one hundred copees, or two rix-dollars, or nine ſhillings ſterling, divided into ten grifs; three altins and a half make the grif, or ten copees. The copee is equal to thirteen-pence farthing ſterling.

*Turkiſh monies of account.* The Turks, both in Europe, Aſia, and Africa, account by purſes, either of ſilver or gold; the laſt is only uſed in the ſeraglio, with half-purſes of gold, called rizes. The purſe of ſilver is equivalent to fifteen hundred French livres, or one hundred and twelve pounds ten ſhillings ſterling. The purſe of gold fifteen

thouſand ſequins equal to thirty thouſand French crowns, or 6750l. ſterl. which is only uſed for preſents to favourites. A purſe ſimply uſed, denotes a purſe of ſilver. They are called purſes, becauſe all the treaſure of the ſeraglio is kept in leathern bags of thoſe contents. The merchants alſo uſe Dutch dollars, called oſtanc, or abouquels, with meideins and aſpres. The dollar is equal to thirty-five meideins, and the meidein to three aſpres, the aſpre to one-halfpenny ſterling.

*Perſian monies of account.* In Perſia they account by the toman and the dinar-biſti. The toman conſiſts of fifty abaſſis, or one hundred mamodies, or two hundred chapes, or ten thouſand dinars; which accounting the abaſſi on the foot of eighteen French ſols, or the dinar on that of a denier, amounts to three pounds twelve ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling each toman. They alſo account by larins at Ormus, and on the coaſts of the Perſian gulph: the larin is equivalent to eleven-pence ſterling, and ſo uſed in Arabia, and a great part of the Eaſt-Indies.

*Chineſe monies of account*, are the pic, picol, and tael, which, though weights, likewiſe ſerve as monies of account, obtaining in Tonquin as well as China. The pic is divided into one hundred catis, according to ſome into one hundred and twenty-five; the cati into ſixteen taels, each tael being equal to one ounce two drachms. The picol contains ſixty-ſix three-fourth catis; the tael is equal to ſix ſhillings and eight-pence ſterling.

*Japaneſe monies of account*, are the ſchintes, cockiens, cœbans, or oubans, and taels; two hundred ſchintes are equal to five hundred Dutch pounds; the cockien to ten Low Country pounds: one thouſand cœbans make forty-five thouſand taels.

*Mogul monies of account.* At Surat, Agra, and the reſt of the great Mogul's dominions, they uſe lacres, acres, or leeths, which denote a hundred thouſand; a lacre being nearly on the foot of the ton of gold in Holland, or million in France.

Throughout Malabar and at Goa, they uſe taugas, vintins, and pardos xeraphin. The tauga is of two kinds, of good and bad alloy; the good tauga is one-fifth better than the bad; ſo that, four taugas good being allowed the pardos xeraphin, there will be required five of the bad; four vintins good make a tauga likewiſe good; fifteen barucos a vintin. The good baruco is equal to a Portugal ree, a French denier, or one-thirteenth of a penny ſterling. In the iſland of Java, they uſe the ſauta, ſapacon, ſardos, and catis, which laſt with the leeth, or lacre, is much uſed through the Eaſt-Indies. The ſauta is two hundred caxas, or little pieces hung on a ſtring, and is equal to ten-twelfths of a penny ſterling. Five ſautas make the ſapacon. The ſardos is equal to two ſhillings and eight-pence ſterling. The cati contain twenty taels, and the tael ſix ſhillings and eight-pence ſterling.

*Afrıcan monies of account.* From Cape Verd to that of Good Hope, all exchanges are made on the foot of the macoute and piece, which, though, no monies of account, and having no real monies, yet ſerve inſtead thereof. At Loango de Boirie, and other places on the coaſt of Angola, the eſtimations are made by macoutes; and at Malimbo, and Cabindo, on the ſame coaſt, the negroes reckon by pieces. Among the firſt, the macoute is equivalent to ten pieces; ten macoutes make one hundred. To eſtimate any purchaſe, exchange, &c. they fix on the one ſide the number of macoutes required; for inſtance, for a negro, on the other, for how many macoutes they agree to receive each kind of merchandize required for the negro. To make up the number of macoutes in merchandizes, they fix the price of each in macoutes. Two Flemiſh knives are reckoned at one macoute, a copper baſon, two pounds weight, three, a barrel of gunpowder, three, &c. The piece likewiſe ſerves to eſtimate the value of goods, &c. in like manner on either ſide. The cities of Barbary and Egypt, whither the Europeans traffic, reckon much in the ſame manner, as in the Levant, and in the dominions of the grand ſeignior.

*Monies of account in America.* Here they have none of their own, the reſpective monies of account of the Europeans who have made ſettlements there, being eſtabliſhed with them.

Such as be taken for falſe money not bailable. 3 *Edw.* I. *c.* 15.

No money ſhall paſs but of Britiſh coin. *St. de Monetâ*, 20 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 4. 9 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 4.

Money ſhall be viewed at the ports, and ſhall not be concealed in bales, &c. ibid.

Defective money ſhall be pierced, and ſent to the king's exchange. *St. de Monetâ parvâ*, 20 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 5.

The ſeveral ſorts of bad money. *Artic de Monetâ*, 20 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 6.

Importing bad money made capital. *St. de Falſâ Monetâ*, 27 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 3. 17 *Edw.* III. Declared to be treaſon, 25 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 2.

Money and plate ſhall not be exported. *St. de Falſâ Monetâ*, 27 *Edw.* I. 9 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 1. 17 *Edw.* III. 4 *Hen.* 4. *c.* 16. 17 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 1.

Of the diviſion of the penny into half-pence and farthings. *St. de Dives. Denar. Incerti. Temp.*

Falſe money ſhall not be imported. 9 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 2.

Money ſhall not be melted into plate on pain of impriſonment. 9 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 3. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 1. 17 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 1.

Search ſhall be made for money and plate exported, and falſe money imported. 9 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9, 10, and 11. 17 *Edw.* III. 2 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 4.

Counterfeiting money declared to be treaſon. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 2.

None to hold a common exchange. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 12.

The money ſhall not be impaired. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 13.

Money ſhall be delivered at the mint by weight. 25 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 20.

None ſhall be compelled to take foreign money. 27 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 14.

Merchants permitted to re-export their money. 27 *Ed.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 14. reſtrained, 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 15.

The Scotch four-pence to paſs for three-pence. 47 *Ed.* III. *c.* 2. for two-pence, 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 12.

Upon exchanges by aliens, merchandize of the ſtaple to be bought. 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 2.

Foreign money ſhall not be current. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 1. 2 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 6. 13 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 6.

Gold and ſilver found on perſons going abroad, forfeited. 2 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 5.

The third part of the ſilver brought to the mint, ſhall be coined in half-pence and farthings. 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 10.

Shall not be ſent to Rome, &c. 9 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 8.

Gally half-pence, blanks &c. prohibited. 11 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 5. 15 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 6. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 9.

Importing prohibited foreign money made felony. 3 *Hen.* V. *ſtat.* 1.

Waſhing, clipping, and filing of money made treaſon. 3 *Hen.* V. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 5 and 6.

Juſtices of aſſize and of the peace to enquire of counterfeiting money. 3 *Hen.* V. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 7.

One ounce of gold ſhall be brought to the mint for every ſack of wool bought to be carried weſtward. 8 *Hen.* V. *c.* 2.

The mint to be at Calais. 9 *Hen.* V. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 6. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 5.

Gold current only by weight. 9 *Hen.* V. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 11.

Any one ſhall have money coined at the Tower within eight days, and exchanges ſhall be appointed. 9 *Hen.* V. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 2, &c.

The council may aſſign the coinage of money and exchanges in what places they pleaſe. 1 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 1.

The duty of the maſter of the mint, and of the king's aſſayer. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 12.

Great part of the price of ſtaple goods directed to be coined at the mint at Calais. 8 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 18. 11 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 13. 14 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 2. 3 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 1.

Payment in ſilver not to be refuſed. 8 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 24.

None to make exchange without licence. 3 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 6.

Repeal of patents of offices in the mint. 4 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 2.

Falſe money of Ireland prohibited. 17 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 1. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 5.

The forging foreign money that is current, made treaſon. 4 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 18. Miſpriſion of treaſon, 14 *Eliz.* *c.* 3.

The penalty of refuſing good money. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 5.

Diminiſhed money ſhall not be current. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 5.

Bullion, plate, and money, not to be exported to Ireland. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 5.

Regulations of the coinage. 14 and 15 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 12.

Gold, ſilver, or money not to be exchanged for more than the value. 5 and 6 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2.

Counterfeiting foreign coin current within the realm made treaſon. 1 *Mar. Seſſ.* 2. *c.* 2. or importing ſuch counterfeit coin, 1 and 2 *Phil.* and *Mar. c.* 11.

Clipping or leſſening of money made treaſon. 5 *Eliz. c.* 11. 18 *Eliz. c.* 1.

Wife of perſon attainted not to loſe dower. 5 *Eliz. c.* 11.

It is miſpriſion of high treaſon to forge money which is not the coin of the realm. 14 *Eliz. c.* 3.

Melting ſilver coin prohibited on penalty of double the value and diſfranchiſement. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 31.

Money ſhall be delivered at the mint for gold and ſilver brought to be coined, without diſcount. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 5.

Coinage duty impoſed upon wine, brandy, &c. imported. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 6.

The coinage duty to be accounted for by the receiver general of the cuſtoms. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 8.

Gold and ſilver extracted by refining metals in England, ſhall be brought to the mint. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 30.

Penalty of exchanging ſilver money for more than the value. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 17.

Penalty of buying or ſelling clippings. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 17.

Reward for apprehending counterfeiters of the coin, &c. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 9.

Pardon for diſcovering offenders. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 12.

The clipped money directed to be re-coined. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 1. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 47.

Guineas not to paſs at more than 26s. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 18. reduced to 22s. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 12.

The encouragement for coining guineas ſuſpended. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 13. reſtored, 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 1.

Encouragement given to bring plate to the mint. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19.

Clipped money prohibited. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 11.

Guineas may be freely imported. 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 1.

The diſtinct courſe of coining gold and ſilver. 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 3.

Hammered ſilver to be current only by weight. 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 2.

Unlawfully making or having inſtruments of coining, high treaſon. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 26.

Colouring falſe coin high treaſon. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 4.

Coining tools and counterfeit money produced in evidence, to be cut in pieces in court. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 5.

Blanching copper, counterfeiting gold or ſilver, or fraudulently buying or ſelling counterfeit gold or ſilver, or falſe or diminiſhed money, felony. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 6. Proſecutions may be within ſix months. 1 *Ann. c.* 9.

Hammered money prohibited. 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 2.

Any perſon to whom ſuſpected may cut it. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 21.

Increaſe of the allowance out of the coinage duty. 4 *Ann. c.* 22. 7 *Ann. c.* 24. *ſ.* 3 and 4. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12.

Deficiency of the coinage duty ſupplied. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 43. *ſ.* 2.

An allowance of fifteen thouſand pounds a year to the mint. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 5. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 2. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11.

Counterfeiting broad pieces, high treaſon. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26.

Altering ſilver money to reſemble gold, &c. high treaſon. 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28.

Uttering falſe money twice within ten days, or having more, a year's impriſonment. 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 3.

Counterfeiting copper money, two year's impriſonment. 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 10.

Offences in counterfeiting money, bringing falſe or counterfeit money into the realm, and all offences againſt. 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. excepted out of the general pardon, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 9, 10.

Treaſury may defray expences of the mints of England and Scotland out of coinage duties. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 2. *See* COIN.

MONEY-SCRIVENER. Thoſe of this buſineſs are employed in finding out eſtates to purchaſe, in diſpoſing of great ſums on mortgages, &c. We have already given an account of this trade in treating of the *Conveyancer.*

MONEMUGI, *properly ſo called*, lies in the torrid zone, and about the equinoctial line, ſouth of Makoko, weſt of Zanguebar, north of Monomotapa, and eaſt of Congo and of the northern parts of Monomotapa. To aſcertain its extent is too difficult a taſk, being a country ſo little frequented. The country known abounds with gold, ſilver, copper-mines, and elephants. The natives clothe themſelves in ſilks and cottons, which they buy of ſtrangers, and wear collars of tranſparent amber-beads, brought them from Cambaya, which beads ſerve alſo inſtead of money; gold and ſilver being too common, and of little value among them. Their monarch always endeavours to be at peace with the princes round about him, to keep an open trade with Quiloa, Melinda, and Mombazo on the eaſt, and with Longo on the weſt, from all which places the black merchants reſort thither for gold. The Portugueſe merchants report, that on the eaſt ſide of Monemugi, there is a great lake full of ſmall iſlands, abounding with all ſorts of fowl and cattle, and inhabited by negroes. They relate alſo, that on the main land eaſtwards, they heard ſometimes the ringing of bells, and that one could obſerve buildings very much like churches; and that from theſe parts came men of a brown and tawny complexion, who traded with thoſe iſlanders, and with the people of Monemugi. This country affords alſo abundance of palm wine, and oil, and ſuch great plenty of honey, that above half of it is loſt, the blacks not being able to conſume it. The air is generally very unwholeſome, and exceſſively hot, which is the reaſon why no Chriſtians undertake to travel into this empire.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, is a delightful county, tho' noted for nothing but its breed of horſes and goats.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, is one of thoſe counties that affords little worth regard in trade, as its only manufacture is of flannels at Abergavenny, and its products nothing elſe but cattle and corn.

MONOMOTAPA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

MONOPOLY. A monopoly is deſcribed by my lord Coke to be an inſtitution or allowance by the king, by his grant, commiſſion, or otherwiſe, to any perſon or perſons, bodies politic or corporate, of or for the ſole buying, ſelling, making, working, or uſing of any thing, whereby any perſon or perſons, bodies politic or corporate, are fought to be reſtrained of any freedom or liberty they had before, or hindered in their lawful trade. 3 *Inſt.* 181. *Noy.* 182.

And therefore all grants of this kind, relating to any known trade, are made void by the common law; as being againſt the freedom of trade, and diſcouraging of labour and induſtry, and reſtraining perſons from getting an honeſt livelihood by a lawful employment, and putting of it in the power of particular perſons to ſet what prices they pleaſe on a commodity: all which are manifeſt inconveniencies to the public. 1 *Hawk.* P. C. 231. *Townſend's Collection of Proceedings in Parliament*, 244, 245.

And upon this ground it hath been reſolved, that the king's grant to any particular corporation of the ſole importation of any merchandizes is void, whether ſuch merchandize be prohibited by ſtatute or not. 2 *Roll. Abr.* 214. 3 *Inſt.* 182. 2 *Inſt.* 61.

Hence alſo it ſeems, that the king's charter, impowering particular perſons to trade to and from ſuch a place is void, ſo far as it gives ſuch perſons an excluſive right of trading, and debaring all others; and it ſeems now agreed, that nothing can exclude a ſubject from trade, but an act of parliament. *Raym.* 489. 2 *Chan. Ca.* 165. 1 *Vern.* 127. *Sands Ver. Eaſt-India Company. Skin.* 165, 226, 234. 3 *Mod.* 126.

Alſo it hath been adjudged, that the king's grant of the ſole making, importing, and ſelling of playing cards is void; notwithſtanding the pretence, that the playing with them is a matter merely of pleaſure and recreation, and often much abuſed, and therefore proper to be reſtrained; for ſince playing with them is in itſelf lawful and innocent, and the making

making of them an honeſt and laborious trade, there is no more reaſon why any ſubject ſhould be hindered from getting his livelihood by this than any other employment. 11 *Co.* 84. *Moor* 671. *Noy* 173. 2 *Inſt.* 47.

And for the like reaſon alſo it hath been reſolved, that the grant of the ſole ingroſſing of wills and inventories in a ſpiritual court, or the ſole making of bills, pleas, and writs in a court of law to any particular perſon, is void. 2 *Roll. Abr.* 214. 1 *Jon.* 231. 3 *Mod.* 75.

But it ſeemeth clear, that the king may, for a reaſonable time, make a good grant to any one of the ſole uſe of any art invented, or firſt brought into the realm by the grantee. *Noy* 182. 1 *Hawk.* P. C. 231.

Alſo it ſeems to be the better opinion, that the king may grant to particular perſons the ſole uſe of ſome particular employments, (as of printing the Holy Scriptures, and law books, &c.) whereof an unreſtrained liberty might be of dangerous conſequence to the public. 1 *Mod.* 256. 3 *Keb.* 792. 3 *Mod.* 75.

By the *ſtat.* 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 3. it is declared and enacted, "that all monopolies, and all commiſſions, grants, licences, charters, and letters patent to any perſon or perſons, bodies politic or corporate whatſoever, of or for the ſole buying, ſelling, making, working, or uſing any thing within this realm or Wales, or of any other monopolies, and all proclamations, inhibitions, reſtraints, warrants of aſſiſtance, and all other matters whatſoever, any way tending to the inſtituting, ſtrengthening, furthering, or countenancing of the ſame, or any of them, are altogether contrary to the laws of this realm, and ſo are and ſhall be utterly void, and of none effect, and in no wiſe to be put in uſe and execution.

*Sect.* 2. "That all perſons, bodies politic and corporate whatſoever, ſhall be diſabled and incapable to have, uſe, exerciſe, or put in uſe any monopoly, or any ſuch commiſſion, grant, or licence, &c. or other thing tending as aforeſaid, or any liberty, power, or faculty, grounded, or pretended to be grounded upon them, or any of them.

And it is further declared and enacted, *ſect.* 3. "that all monopolies, and all ſuch commiſſions, grants, and licences, &c. and all other things tending as aforeſaid, and the force and validity of them, ought to be and ſhall be examined, heard, tried, and determined by and according to the common laws of this realm, and not otherwiſe.

And it is further enacted, *ſ.* 4. "that if any perſon ſhall be hindered, grieved, diſturbed, or diſquieted, or his goods or chattels any way ſeized, attached, diſtrained, taken, carried away, or detained by occaſions or pretext of any monopoly, or of any ſuch commiſſion, grant, or licence, &c. or other mattter or thing, tending as aforeſaid, and will ſue to be relieved in any of the premiſes, he ſhall have his remedy for the ſame at the common law, by action grounded on the ſaid ſtatute, to be heard and determined in the King's Bench, Common Pleas, or Exchequer, againſt the party by whom he ſhall be ſo hindered or grieved, &c. or by whom his goods ſhall be ſo ſeized or attached, &c. ſhall recover three times ſo much as the damages which he ſuſtained by means of ſuch hindrance, &c. and double coſts; and in ſuch ſuits, or for the ſtaying or delaying thereof, no eſſoin, protection, wager of law, aid, prayer, privilege, injunction, or order of reſtraint, ſhall be in any wiſe prayed, granted, admitted, or allowed, nor any more than one imparlance; and if any perſon ſhall, after notice that the action depending is grounded upon the ſaid ſtatute, cauſe or procure any action at the common law grounded thereon, to be ſtayed or delayed before judgment, by colour or means of any order, warrant, power, or authority, ſave only of the court wherein ſuch action ſhall be depending; or, after judgment, ſhall cauſe or procure the execution to be ſtayed or delayed by colour or means of any order, warrant, power, or authority, ſave only by writ of error or attaint, that then the ſaid perſon or perſons ſo offending ſhall incur a premunire.

It is ſaid, that the firſt branch of this laſt clauſe, relating to the delay of cauſes of this kind before judgment, not only extendeth to the Privy Council, Chancery, Exchequer-chamber, and the like, but alſo to thoſe who ſhall procure any warrant from the king for ſuch purpoſe; and, it is ſaid that the latter branch, relating to the delaying of execution after judgment, extendeth even to the judges of the court where the cauſe is depending. 3 *Inſt.* 183.

But it is provided, *ſect.* 6. "that no declaration in the ſtatute mentioned, ſhall extend to any letters patents, and grants of privilege for the term of fourteen years, or under, of the ſole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm, to the true and firſt inventor and inventors of ſuch manufactures, which others, at the time of making ſuch letters patents and grants, ſhall not uſe; ſo as alſo they be not contrary to the law, nor miſchievous to the ſtate, by raiſing prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient; the ſaid fourteen years to be accounted from the date of the firſt letters patent, or grant of ſuch privilege; but that the ſame ſhall be of ſuch force, as they ſhould be if the ſaid act had never been made, and of none other.

It hath been reſolved, that no new invention concerning the working of any manufactures, is within the meaning of this exception, unleſs it be ſubſtantially new, and not barely an additional improvement of an old one. 3 *Inſt.* 184.

Alſo it hath been holden, that a new invention to do as much work in a day by an engine, as formerly uſed to employ many hands, is not within the ſaid exception, becauſe it is inconvenient to turn ſo many labouring men to idleneſs. 3 *Inſt.* 184.

Alſo it ſeems clear, that no old manufactures in uſe before, can be prohibited in any grant of the ſole uſe of any ſuch new inventions. 3 *Inſt.* 184.

It is further provided, *ſect.* 7. "that nothing in the ſaid act contained ſhall extend to any grant or privilege, power or authority whatſoever, before the ſaid act made, granted, allowed, or confirmed by any act of parliament, ſo long as the ſame ſhall continue in force.

Provided alſo, *ſect.* 9. "that nothing in the ſaid act contained ſhall be in any wiſe prejudicial to any city, borough, or town corporate within this realm, concerning any grants, charters, or letters patents to them made; or concerning any cuſtom uſed by or within them; or unto any corporations, companies, or fellowſhips of any art, trade, occupation, or myſtery; or to any companies or ſocieties of merchants within this realm, erected for the maintenance, enlargement, or ordering of any trade or merchandize; but that the ſame charters, cuſtoms, corporations, &c. and their liberties and immunities ſhall be of ſuch force and effect, as they were before the making of the ſaid act, and of none other; any thing before in the ſaid act contained to the contrary in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

And it is further provided, *ſect.* 10. "that nothing in the ſaid act contained ſhall extend to any letters patents, or grants of privilege concerning printing; nor to any commiſſion, grants, or letters patents, concerning the digging, making, or compounding of ſalt-petre or gun powder; or the caſting or making of ordnance, or ſhot for ordnance; nor to any grant or letters patents of any office, erected before the making of the ſaid ſtatute, and then in being and put in execution, other than ſuch offices as had been decried by proclamation; but that all ſuch grants, &c. ſhall be of the like force and effect, and no other, as if the ſaid act had never been made.

But it is enacted by 16 *Car.* I. *c.* 21. "that it ſhall be lawful for all perſons, as well ſtrangers as natural born ſubjects, to import any quantities of gun-powder whatſoever, paying ſuch cuſtoms and duties for the ſame as by parliament ſhall be limited; and that it ſhall be lawful for all his majeſty's ſubjects of this his realm of England, to make and ſell any quantities of gun-powder at pleaſure; and alſo to bring into this kingdom any quantities of ſalt-petre, brimſtone, or any other materials for the making of gun-powder; and that if any perſon ſhall put in execution any letters patents, proclamations, edict, act, order, warrant, reſtraint, or other inhibition whatſoever, whereby the importation of gun-powder, ſaltpetre, brimſtone, or other the materials aforementioned, ſhall be any ways prohibited or reſtrained, he ſhall incur a premunire.

And it is further provided by the ſaid ſtatute of 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 11, 12. "that nothing in the ſaid act contained ſhall extend to any commiſſion or grant concerning the digging, compounding or making of allum or allum mines, &c. nor concerning the licenſing of the keeping of any tavern, or ſelling of wines, to be ſpent in the manſion-houſe, or other place in the tenure or occupation of the party ſelling the ſame; and a further proviſion is made, in

An Accurate MAP of the
MARQUISATE
of
MORAVIA,
from the Sieur Robert:
with Improvements.
BOHEMIA
SILESIA
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
To Moravia
CIRCLE OF OLMUTZ
CIRCLE OF PRERAU
CIRCLE OF HRADISCH
CIRCLE OF BRUNN
CIRCLE OF ZNAYM
CIRCLE OF IGLAU
Olmutz
Prerau
Hradisch
Znaym
Iglau
Brunn
Austerlitz
Troppaw
Ostrau
Wesely
Nicolsburg
Teltsch
Budwiz
Krumau
Auspitz
Schomberg
Neustadt
Littau
Sternberg
Hof
Gratz
Meseritsch
Stramberg
Weiskirchen
Wischau
Kremsier
Ungarisch Brod
Feldsburg
Egenburg
Longit: East from London
British Miles 69 to a Degree.
5
10
20
30

the latter part of the ſtatute; for ſome particular grants to particular corporations and perſons, as Newcaſtle upon Tyne, &c.

But it is ſaid, that the ſaid clauſe relating to allum was needleſs; becauſe all ſuch mines belong of courſe to the perſons in whoſe grounds they are, and therefore no privilege concerning them can be granted but in the king's own ground. 3 *Inſt.* 185.

Charters for the ſole making of brandy, &c. made void. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 12.

MONSOON, *or* Mousson, a regular or periodical wind, in the Eaſt-Indies, that for ſix months blows conſtantly the ſame way, and the contrary way the the remaining ſix; it is a ſpecies of trade wind.

In the Ethiopic ocean, the winds blow all the year round the ſame way. The points and times of ſhifting by theſe winds, in the Indian ocean, differ in different parts thereof.

The occaſion of them, in general, is this: when the ſun approaches the northern tropic, there are ſeveral countries, as Arabia, India, &c. which become hotter, and reflect more heat, than the ſeas beyond the equator, which the ſun has left; the winds, therefore, inſtead of blowing from thence to the parts under the equator, blow the contrary way; and, when the ſun leaves theſe countries, and draws near the other tropic, the winds turn about and blow on the oppoſite point of the compaſs.

Lucretius and Apollonius mention *eteſia flabra*, or annual winds, which ſeem to be the ſame with monſoons.

MONTAUBAN. In this province are collected from twelve to fifteen hundred quintals of different ſorts of wool, which, jointly with large parcels from abroad, are worked up by the inhabitants, into various ſorts of ſtuffs and cloths, making in all about ſixty thouſand pieces. At Montauban and Cahors, are made ſeveral ſorts of ſerges and corded ſtuffs. At Gourdon, Lectoure, Realville, Vicfefenſac, Auche, Mauvezin, Mur-de-Barras, Eſpalion, Foiz, Pamiers, Milland, St. Giron, Taraſcon, Carlat, St. Gaudans, Aſpect, Guinon, Montrejan, Montpezat, and la Cauſſade, are made druggets, ſerges, crapes, and coarſe cloths, as they are at Beaumont de Lernaige, St. Clar de Lomagne, Villefranche, Camaras, St. Aularis, and many other places; and alſo at ſome few of them are made barragons, and fine ſtuffs. At Montauban, Gourdon, and Jovillat, there are manufactures of hats; and at this latter, ſeveral tanners. Stockings and caps are made at St. Clar de Lomagne, Pamiero, St. Giron, Montrejan, and Mirande. Hempen linen at Gourdon, Villefranche, St. Clar de Lomagne, and St. Antonin, paper at this laſt and St. Giroul, and tickings at St. Clar de Lomagne. The greateſt number of forges are on the ſide of Taraſcon, which are twenty-ſeven in number. At St. Giroul, there are four, and ſome hammers for beating copper. At Foix, there are three hammers; and in the neighbourhood of Villefranche are ſeveral hammers and forges, all which, joined to the fabrics before-mentioned, employ a great number of hands, and occaſion a currency of large ſums of money.

MONTFERRAT, a dutchy in Italy, is bounded on the north by Savoy, on the eaſt by the Milaneſe, on the ſouth by the territory of Geneva, and on the weſt by Piedmont. It is computed to be twenty-ſix miles in length, and forty-eight in breadth, and was formerly divided into the Mantuan and Savoyard Montferrat. Both countries are very pleaſant and fertile, though hilly, and, beſides the great plenty of all neceſſaries, afford vaſt quantities and variety of game. It abounds in ſilk, cotton, wine, and oil, wherein it has a pretty conſiderable trade.

MONTREAL, taken in the late war by our forces, and ſecured to us with Canada and its dependencies by the definitive treaty of 1763, is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name, in the river of St. Laurence, and is about fourteen leagues long, and four wide, where broadeſt, and very fertile in corn, fruits, &c. This town carried on a prodigious trade with the natives, whoſe chiefs went firſt to pay their duty to the governor, and make him ſome preſents, in order to prevent the prices of goods, which they came for, being raiſed to an exorbitant height. This concourſe began about June, and ſome of them came hither from places diſtant about five hundred leagues; the fair was kept along the banks of the river, where they exchanged their commodities with the French; and centinels were placed at proper diſtances, to prevent the diſorders, which might otherwiſe happen from ſuch vaſt crowds of different nations. This concourſe laſted for near three months. The Indians brought thither all ſorts of furs, which they bartered for guns, powder, ball, great-coats, and other garments of the French manufacture; iron and braſs work, and trinkets of all ſorts. Montreal was not long ſince deſtroyed by fire. *See* Canada, Quebec.

MOORING, at ſea, the laying out of anchors in a proper place, for the ſecuring of a ſhip.

MORAT, ſituated on the lake of the ſame name, is the ſtaple for all the wine of the country of Vaud, ſent to Berne, and a great paſs for goods, both by land and water. Linens are printed here, and the town is dependent on Berne and Fribourg.

MORAVIA MARQUISATE, a principality of the kingdom of Bohemia, bounded by Sileſia and Poland on the north and caſt, Auſtria and part of Hungary on the ſouth, and Bohemia on the weſt. The north and weſt parts are woody and mountainous, but the reſt is fair and champaign good ſoil, yielding much corn of all ſorts, with wine, both red and white, and abounding with ſpacious towns and villages.

The paſtures are filled with horſes, black cattle, ſheep, and goats; and the woods with hares, foxes, wolves, and beavers. Its rivers abound with trout, cray-fiſh, barbels, eels, jack, perch, and many other ſorts of fiſh.

*Olmutz*, its metropolis, is twenty miles weſt from the borders of Sileſia, twenty-eight north-eaſt of Brin, eighty north of Vienna, forty-five ſouth-weſt of Teſchen, and ninety-four ſouth of Breſlaw. It is a ſmall, but neat, well built, ſtrong, and populous city; and has a trade, by means of its river Morawa, with Bohemia, Hungary, Poland, Sileſia, and Auſtria.

*Brin* is a pretty large well built town, and is held by ſome to be the capital.

*Iglaw*, or *Ghilawa*, is a pretty large, ſtrong, well built, and populous town, on the borders of Bohemia. Its principal trade is in beer and coarſe woollen cloth, which they make and dreſs themſelves.

*Znaim, or Znogmo*, on the river Taya, not above five miles from the borders of Auſtria, has a pleaſant ſoil and wholeſome air; and being on the road from Prague to Vienna, brings a tolerable trade to it. There are many vineyards in the neighbourhood, which afford a pretty palatable wine.

MORESCO, *or* Morisco, a kind of carving, painting, &c. done in the manner of the Moors, where ſeveral groteſque pieces and compartments are promiſcuouſly intermingled, not containing any perfect figure, but a wild reſemblance of birds, beaſts, trees, &c.

They are alſo called arabeſques, and particularly uſed in embroideries, damaſk-work, &c.

MORGES, a town ſituated on the borders of Lake Leman, two leagues from Lauſanne, is well built, and has a good incloſed port. This is the receptacle of goods from divers countries, that arrive by water and land; the Genevan barks tranſport here weekly the merchandize that the Swiſs get from Italy, Piedmont, Savoy, Dauphiny, Lyons, Languedoc, Provence, and Bourdeaux (by the canal of Languedoc) and reload thoſe which are arrived from England, Holland, the North, Germany, and Switzerland, deſtined for Geneva, Piedmont, Italy, Spain, and the ſouthern provinces of France.

MORLING, *or* Mortling, is that wool taken from the ſkin of a dead ſheep, either dying of the rot, or killed. 4 *Edw.* IV. *cap.* 2 and 3. 27 *Hen.* VI. *cap.* 2. This is written markin, 3 *Jac. cap.* 18. morling or ſhorling, 3 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 1. and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *See* Shorling.

MOROCCO. *See* African Coasts.

Morocco, *marroquin*, the ſkin of a goat, or ſome other animal like it, called *menon*, frequent in the Levant, &c. dreſſed in ſumac or galls, and coloured of any colour at pleaſure, much uſed in tapeſtry, book-binding, &c.

Theſe ſkins are brought us from the Levant, Barbary, Spain, Flanders, and France, of all ſorts of colours.

MOROCTHUS, or *white marking-ſtone*, in natural hiſtory, a very hard, fine, indurated clay: it is of an extremely denſe and compact texture, and of a ſmooth and very gloſſy ſurface when rubbed. It is very ſoft and unc-

tuous to the touch, and, when broken, appears of an uniform ſtructure. It is brought to us in maſſes, ſome of them conſiderably large, and of an irregular figure, though the greateſt part are flattiſh. It is remarkably heavy, and has a greyiſh white colour for its baſis; but this is variegated with duſky green, diſpoſed in a ſort of irregular veins and clouds, and varying in its degree of ſtrength or paleneſs, not only in the ſeveral pieces, but frequently in the ſeveral parts of the ſame maſs. If held up againſt the light in thin pieces, in ſome degree it is found to be tranſparent; applied to the tongue, it does not adhere at all to it; taken into the mouth, it melts very ſlowly, and has an unctuous ſoftneſs, and very diſagreeable taſte.

The ancients had it with their galactites and meletites from Egypt and Ethiopia. At preſent, the whole world is ſupplied with it from France, where it is found in vaſt abundance. We do not at preſent give any credit to the ancients, who eſteemed it an aſtringent and lithontriptic, and accordingly gave it in diarrhæas and hæmorrhages of all kinds, and in nephritic caſes. They alſo uſed a collyrium made of it, with water, in diſorders of the eyes and eye lids, and this probably with more ſucceſs. At preſent, however, we know nothing of it, but that it ſeems to take ſpots out of cloaths more readily than fuller's earth, and that it marks better than chalk, becauſe it leaves a more ſlender and laſting line; and is more convenient, becauſe it does not ſtain the hands nor the things it is laid among.

MOROEDJE, a ſilver money current in Perſia, particularly in Iſpahan, of which ſeven make a Dutch crown.

MORTGAGE, is compounded of two French words, viz. *mort*, i. e. *mors*, and *gage*, i. e. *pignus*, and ſignifies a pawn of land or tenement, or any thing immoveable, laid or bound for money borrowed to the creditor for ever, if the money be not paid at the day agreed upon; and the creditor's holding land and tenement upon this bargain, is called tenant in mortgage. He that pledgeth this pawn or gage is called the mortgager, and he that taketh it the mortgagee. This, if it contain exceſſive uſury, is forbidden by 37 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9. But it is called mortgage, becauſe if the money is not paid at the day, the land moritur to the debtor, and is forfeited to the creditor.

MOSAIC, or *Muſaic work*, an aſſemblage of little bits of glaſs, marble, ſhells, precious ſtones, woods, &c. of various colours, cut ſquare, and cemented on a ground of ſtucco, &c. in imitation of the colours and degradations in painting.

*Account of the Moſaic work carried on in St. Peter's church in Rome, from the letters of Samuel Sharp, Eſq; deſcribing the cuſtoms and manners of Italy in the years* 1755 *and* 1766.

One of the moſt curious arts of modern Rome is the Moſaic work carried on in St. Peter's church, which they are now cultivating at an expence beyond the reach of a private purſe. I am not to tell you the invention is ancient; but it has been ſo little practiſed till within the preſent century, that it appears almoſt a diſcovery. It is a method by which the capital pictures of the great maſters will be tranſmitted to poſterity in great perfection. The manner of working in Moſaic, you will, I hope, conceive, from the following ſuperficial deſcription.

The artiſts, by the means of fire, compoſe a cake of a nature betwixt ſtone and glaſs, but not in the leaſt tranſparent; it is as hard and durable as marble, and they have the ſkill to ſtain it with a colour of what ſhade they pleaſe, which they ſo fix by the fire, that it preſerves its livelineſs for ever. They manufacture as great a variety of theſe coloured ſtones as will anſwer to the different tints of any picture. The artificial ſtone is brittle, and the workmen acquire, from uſe, the dexterity of chipping off at a ſtroke, with a proper inſtrument, pieces of the ſhape and ſize they wiſh, ſome exceeding ſmall, but, generally ſpeaking, nearly ſquare, and from two or three lines to half an inch broad; nevertheleſs, as the thickneſs of the cake is often near an inch, the ſhape of the pieces chipped off will be an oblong ſquare, and may be aptly enough compared to a double or treble cube. The workmen have an infinite variety of theſe differently coloured pieces of ſtone, placed in different cells of a drawer; theſe lie within their reach whilſt they are compoſing the picture, and they ſelect the proper coloured pieces of ſtone, as a compoſitor does the types, when he is ſetting the preſs.

That the Moſaic in very large pictures may not be ſubject, either to fall in or bulge out, they make the back, or ſlab, of ſeveral pieces of flat ſtone, cramped together with iron; theſe ſtones are of a very hard nature, and are alſo extremely thick, in order to render them ſtill leſs liable to warp. They unite as many of theſe flat ſtones to each other as will equal the ſize of the picture they are to copy. On the ſlab, or frame, they lay a particular paſte or cement, which, in a ſhort time, becomes almoſt as hard as marble; but, whilſt it remains in a ſtate of ſoftneſs, they apply the Moſaic work, ſtriking into the cement, with a gentle ſtroke of a ſmall hammer, the little oblong pieces of ſtone, of ſuch tints as will repreſent the part they are to imitate. They lay but little of the cement at a time, leſt it ſhould grow hard too ſuddenly. This proceſs goes on ſo very ſlowly, that ten or eleven men, working on the famous picture of the transfiguration, by Raphael, require eight or nine years to finiſh it; when completed, it will coſt about three thouſand pounds ſterling.

When they have covered the cement intirely, the work appears extremely rude; the workmen, therefore, wait till ſuch time, as the cement has acquired the hardneſs of ſtone, and that its coalition with the Moſaic be perfect, when they rub down and poliſh the ſurface; after which it aſſumes a wonderful beauty, though, it muſt be confeſſed, it is not equal to the painting on canvas; for, in ſome lights, you ſee, not only a gloſſineſs, but even the cracks in the Moſaic. The copy, however, in Moſaic, of the celebrated St. Michael of Guido, looks almoſt as well as the original. It is certain, that the artiſts improve daily; for, I obſerved, that the late works greatly excel thoſe done ſome years ſince, which, on a cloſe inſpection, appear in certain places uneven and coarſe, and make you regret the original.

The connoiſſeur, or indeed, any man who has a reliſh for the fine arts, muſt be delighted, on this occaſion, to reflect that the example of ſuch wonderful excellence will now be preſerved, to excite the emulation of the ſame kind of geniuſes, ſhould the world once more produce ſuch a claſs; or, to ſpeak in the language of the painters, ſuch a ſchool of men.

I might have taken notice, that the artiſts do not work from the original, but from a copy, which is another article of great expence, as it is neceſſary the copy ſhould be a good one. I had imagined the reaſon for employing a copy was to obviate the danger of injuring the original; but they ſay, as the colours of the copy are freſh, they can imitate them better than from an original, where they are by time become faded and dead.

I have mentioned, that the ancients uſed Moſaics; but it is to be remembered, that they had not the art of making and ſtaining ſtone; they uſed only natural marble, &c. which did not furniſh them with the ſame quantity of ſhades the moderns are poſſeſſed of, and, conſequently, their colouring was leſs perfect.

The Moſaic of Florence is not unlike that of the ancients; it is compoſed of a great variety of differently coloured marbles, flints, ſtones, &c. The workmen are obliged to ſaw off every little piece, which demands much more time than the method of chipping them off, as practiſed in the Roman Moſaic; and, therefore, the Florentine is ſtill much dearer than the Roman; indeed, a large picture would amount to an incredible ſum: on this account they confine their work to ſmall pictures, tables, &c. which, after all, notwithſtanding the great expence, are by no means ſo beautiful as the Roman Moſaic pictures.

MOSAMBIQUE. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

MOSKITO COUNTRY, is ſituated in North America, between eighty-five and eighty-eight degrees of weſt longitude, and between thirteen and fifteen degrees of north latitude, having the North Sea on the north and eaſt, Nicaragua on the ſouth, and Honduras on the weſt; and, indeed, the Spaniards eſteem it a part of the principality of Honduras, though they have no colonies in the Moſkito country. When the Spaniards firſt invaded this part of Mexico, they maſſacred the greateſt part of the natives, which gave thoſe that eſcaped into the inacceſſible part of the country, an inſuperable averſion to them; and

they have always appeared ready to join any Europeans that come upon their coaſt, againſt the Spaniards, and particularly the Engliſh, who frequently come hither; and the Moſkitomen being excellent markſmen, the Engliſh employ them in ſtriking the maratee fiſh, &c. and many of the Moſkito Indians come to Jamaica, and ſail with the Engliſh in their voyages.

Theſe people are ſo ſituate between moraſſes and inacceſſible mountains, and a coaſt full of rocks and ſhoals, that no attempts againſt them by the Spaniards, whom they mortally hate, could ever ſucceed. Nevertheleſs, they are a mild, inoffenſive people, of great morality and virtue, and will never truſt a man who has once deceived them. They have ſo great a veneration towards the Engliſh, that they have ſpontaneouſly put themſelves and their lands under the protection and dominion of the crown of England. This was firſt done when the duke of Albemarle was governor of Jamaica, and the king of the Moſkitoes received a commiſſion from his grace, under the ſeal of that iſland; ſince which time, they have not only been ſteady in their alliance with the Engliſh, but warm in their affections, and very uſeful to them on many occaſions.

When their king dies, the next male heir goes to Jamaica, to certify, that he is next in blood, and receives a commiſſion in form of the governor of Jamaica to be king of the Moſkitoes, till which he is not acknowledged as ſuch by his own countrymen. So fond are theſe people of every thing that is Engliſh, that the common people are proud of every Chriſtian or ſurname given them by our ſeamen, who honour their chief men with the titles of ſome of our nobility.

Quere, Might not ſome valuable ſettlements be made by the Engliſh among theſe people, that would produce logwood and other dying woods, and many valuable commodities beſides? *See* the article LOGWOOD.

MOSS, a ſmall ancient town in Norway, whoſe chief exports are ſparwood and a few deals; though it has a fine iron-work, and ſome few mills.

MOTER. *See* MOLUCCA ISLANDS.

MOVEABLES, *bona mobilia*, in law, are thoſe capable of being removed from place to place, and by that means apt to be ſecreted.

In England we have two kinds of effects, moveable and immoveable; the moveable are ready money, merchandize, bonds, book-debts, cattle, and houſhold furniture, not faſtened with iron, nor ſealed in the plaiſter, and which may be tranſported any where readily, without either diminution or deterioration.

MOUDON, in Switzerland, is an ancient town, built on the river Broie, fruitful in corn, and a very conſiderable paſs for merchandize by land.

MOULD, *mold*, in the mechanic arts, &c. a cavity artificially cut, in order to give its impreſſion to ſome ſofter matter applied therein.

In gold-mines, they have moulds for ingots; in ſilver-mines, for bars; in copper or lead-mines, for pigs or ſalmons; in tin-mines, for pigs and ingots; and in iron-mines, for ſows, chimney-backs, anvils, caldrons, poſts, &c.

The moulds of founders of large works, as ſtatues, bells, guns, &c. are of wax, ſupported in the inſide by a core, and covered without ſide with a cap.

*Moulds in the manufacture of paper*, are little frames, conſiſting of ſeveral braſs or iron wires, faſtened together by another wire ſtill finer. Each mould is of the bigneſs of the ſheet of paper to be made, with a ledge of wood to which the wires are faſtened.

*Mould among maſons*, a piece of wood or iron, hollowed within ſide, anſwerable to the contents of the mouldings or corniſhes, &c. It is otherwiſe called calibar.

*Moulds among glaſs-grinders*, are wooden frames whereon they make the tubes for perſpectives, teleſcopes, &c.

Theſe moulds are cylinders, of a ſuitable length and diameter, but always thicker at one end than the other, to facilitate the ſliding.

The tubes made on theſe moulds are of two kinds; the one ſimply paſte-board and paper; the other thin leaves of wood joined to the paſte-board. To make theſe tubes to draw out, only the laſt or innermoſt is formed on the mould; each tube made afterwards ſerving as a mould to that which is to go over it, but without taking out the mould from the firſt.

*Moulds among tallow-chandlers*, are of two kinds; the firſt is of wood, of a triangular form, ſupported on one of its angles, with an opening of near a foot at top. Into this the melted tallow is diſpoſed, and the wicks dipped ſucceſſively till they become candles. The other mould is of braſs, pewter, or tin, where each candle has its reſpective mould.

*Mould among gold-beaters*, a certain number of leaves of vellum, or pieces of guts, cut ſquare, of a certain bigneſs, and laid over one another, between which they put the leaves of gold and ſilver, which they beat on the marble with a hammer. They have two moulds of vellum, and two moulds of gut. The ſmalleſt of thoſe of vellum contain forty or fifty leaves; the largeſt a hundred. Each of the others contains five hundred. Theſe moulds have their caſes, conſiſting of two pieces of parchment to keep the leaves in their place, in beating.

MOULD, *or* MOLD, *in agriculture*, the common black ſoil, or mother-earth.

The beſt mould for gardening, according to Mr. Evelyn, is that of a blackiſh grey colour, and, according to Mr. Switzer, that of a lively chefnut or hazle colour, which cuts like butter, and does not ſtick obſtinately, but is ſhort, tolerably light, and breaks into ſmall clods. Next to theſe are the greys and ruſſet. The dark and light aſh-colours are naught, being thoſe commonly found in heathy grounds; the yellowiſh red is worſt of all.

MOULINS. The manufactures and fabrics of this province, which contains the Bourbonnois, Nivernois, and the upper part of Auvergne, are the forges and founderies, where cannon, anchors, and ſuch large works of iron are made; the manufactures of tin, earthen-ware, and glaſs; the ſmalt-works, thoſe of cutlery and other hardware; the fabric of tapeſtry and cloth; and the natural products conſiſt in wine, hemp, ſteel and iron mines, coal, cattle, fiſh, cheſnuts, and cheeſe. The whole province feeds ſuch a quantity of cattle as exceeds imagination; and it is ſurprizing to ſee how many beeves and ſheep are every year extracted from it for all parts, (even in time of war) for Flanders, Germany, and Italy. Here are alſo, in acorn ſeaſon, large herds of ſwine fattened; and in regard of manufactures, the iron, ſteel, iron plates, and tin are melted, run, and formed into ſeveral different works, almoſt in all the forges built on the little river of Nievre, which falls into the Loire, under the bridges of Nevers, and which before joining it, gives movement to the bellows, hammers, and other machines of above fifty forges.

The cutlery, and other hardware, is made at Bourbon and Nevers; and in this laſt is alſo made ſome earthenware, and ſome works of enamel. At Aubuſſon, Feſvilletin, there are manufactures of an ordinary tapeſtry; and at Moulins, St. Pourcain, Montlucon, Heriſſon, Decize, Cercy-la-Tour, Moulins-Engilbert, and Nevers, are made ſome coarſe cloths and woollens, though by far the feweſt in this province of any in France: this receiverſhip produces in wood from the Nivernois, Bourbonnois, and more eſpecially from Morvan, above the value of 400,000 livres yearly: coal from the vicinage of Decize to the import of 120,000 livres; fiſh, 300,000 livres; hogs (in an acorn year) 300,000 livres; corn, hemp, wine, and cattle, 500,000 livres; iron, 300,000 livres; tin, 50,000 livres; earthen-ware and glaſs, 200,000: cutlery and hardware, with ſome enamel, 15000 livres; and tapeſtry, nut-oil, &c. to at leaſt 150,000 livres. The products of wool, and the manufactures of linen, we paſs unnoticed, as theſe are all conſumed on the ſpot, as indeed moſt of the cloths and ſtuffs are.

MOXA, in natural hiſtory, a kind of downy ſubſtance taken from the leaves of a ſort of Indian mugwort, uſed by the Indian nations, as ſomething of the ſame kind was formerly employed by Hippocrates, &c. in cauterizing parts afflicted by pain; which is done by burning a ſmall cone thereof on the part. Some moderns highly extolled this operation, as the moſt effectual remedy for curing, and even exterminating the gout.

But though this proceſs was, for ſome time, greatly recommended in Europe, and ſtill continues among the Chineſe, Japaneſe, and Arabians, it is now intirely diſuſed among us, and not without reaſon; for, beſides the acute pain produced, it has often little or no effect.

MUFFIN-MAKER. This buſineſs has but of late ſlears been carried on in ſhops; but they are now pretty yumerous. The muffins are cakes made of very white flower, and uſed at the tea-table. It is a tolerable buſineſs for a maſter, though a poor one for a journeyman. They take poor lads from the pariſh or others with no money; who, the firſt part of their time, cry the muffins through the ſtreets early in the morning, and again in the afternoon; and alſo work hard when they are making theſe cakes.

MUID, a dry meaſure in France for corn, pulſe, ſalt, lime, coals, &c. The Paris muid of wheat conſiſts of twelve ſeptiers; each ſeptier contains two mines, the mine two minots, the minot three buſhels, the buſhel four quarts or ſixteen litrons, each litron thirty-ſix cubic inches, exceeding the Engliſh pint by two four-tenths cubic inches. The muid of oats is double that of wheat, conſiſting of twelve ſeptiers, each of which contains twenty-four buſhels. The muid of charcoal contains twenty mines, ſacks, or loads; each mine two minots, each minot eight buſhels, each buſhel four quarts, &c.

MUID is alſo a liquid meaſure in France to put wine, &c. in. It is divided into two demi-muids, four quarter muids, eight half quarter muids, and contains thirty-ſix ſeptiers, each ſeptier eight pints Paris meaſure.

MULHAUSEN, is built on the river Ill, five leagues from Baſil, and allied with the Swiſs. It is ſeated in a very fertile plain, abundant in grain and wine, having more than ſixty manufactures of cloth and druggets; here is alſo made a quantity of woollen knit and coarſe ſilk wove ſtockings, and blankets; beſides which, the place affords very good dyers and tanners, who have ſufficient occupation in their different employs.

MULTIPLICATION, *multiplying or increaſing*. By a ſtatute made 5 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 4. it is ordained and eſtabliſhed, That none from henceforth ſhall uſe to multiply gold or ſilver, nor uſe the craft of multiplication, and if any the ſame do, he ſhall incur the pain of felony; and it was made, upon a preſumption that ſome perſons ſkilful in chemiſtry, could multiply or augment theſe metals. And *Hen.* VI. granted letters patents to ſome perſons (who undertook to perform the ſame, and to find out the philoſopher's ſtone) to free them from the penalty of the ſtatute. *Rot. Pat.* 34. *Hen.* VI. *m.* 13. *Co.* 3 *Inſt. fol.* 74. But the reſtraint by the above ſtatute of *Hen.* IV. having been found to have no other effect upon the unaccountable vanity of thoſe who fancied ſuch attempts to be practicable, but only to ſend them beyond ſea, to try their experiments with impunity in other countries, the ſtatute, 5 *Hen.* IV. was at laſt wholly repealed by 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 30.

MUM, a kind of malt liquor, chiefly prepared in Germany.

The proceſs of making it, as recorded in the town-houſe of Brunſwick, is as follows:

Take ſixty-three gallons of water that has been boiled into a third part, brew it with ſeven buſhels of wheatened malt, one buſhel of oat-malt, and one buſhel of ground beans: when it has worked or fermented a while, in a hogſhead not too full, put into it of the inner rind of fir three pounds, tops of fir and birch one pound, carduus benedictus three handfuls, flowers of roſu ſolis, a handful or two; burnet, betony, marjoram, penny-royal, wild thyme, of each a handful and a half; of elder flowers two handfuls or more; ſeeds of cardamum bruiſed thirty ounces, barberries bruiſed one ounce: when the liquor has done working fill it up; and at laſt put into the hogſhead ten new-laid eggs, ſtop it up cloſe, and at two years end it will be fit for uſe.

Our Engliſh brewers uſe cardamum, ginger, and ſaſſafras, inſtead of the inner rind of fir; and add walnut rinds, madder, red ſaunders, and elecampane.

Mum, on exportation, pays a barrel exciſe three ſhillings, by 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 3. and three ſhillings, by 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 24. and three ſhillings, by 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 3. and three ſhillings, by 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 20. *ſ.* 10. and three ſhillings, by 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 10. and ten ſhillings, by 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 1. and ten ſhillings, by 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4. Duties how to be levied, 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 3. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 20. *ſ.* 11. 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 16. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 6.

Mum may be exported, and the exciſe how repayable, 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 1. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 1. Relanding it, what to forfeit, 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 1. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2. Exciſe on foreign mum not to be repaid on exportation. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 1. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 4. *See* BEER.

MUMMY, *mumia*, a body embalmed in the manner of the ancient Egyptians. We have two different ſubſtances preſerved for medicinal uſe under the name of mummy, tho' both in ſome degree of the ſame origin; the one is the dried and preſerved fleſh of human bodies, embalmed with myrrh and ſpices; the other is the liquor running from ſuch mummies, when newly prepared, or when affected by great heat, or by damps; the latter is, ſometimes in a liquid, ſometimes of a ſolid form, as it is preſerved in vials well ſtopped, or ſuffered to dry and harden in the air.

The firſt kind of mummy is brought to us in large pieces, of a lax and friable texture, light and ſpungy, of a blackiſh brown colour, and often damp and clammy on the ſurface: it is of a ſtrong but not agreeable ſmell.

The ſecond kind of mummy in its liquid ſtate, is a thick, opake, and viſcous fluid, of a blackiſh colour, and of a ſtrong, but not diſagreeable ſmell. In its indurated ſtate it is a dry ſolid ſubſtance, of a fine ſhining black colour, and cloſe texture, eaſily broken, and of a good ſmell; very inflammable, and yielding a ſcent of myrrh, and aromatic ingredients, while burning.

This, if we cannot be content with medicines without running to our own bodies for them, ought to be the mummy uſed in the ſhops, but this is very ſcarce and dear; the other is ſo cheap that it always will be the moſt in uſe. All the kinds of mummy are brought from Egypt; but we are not to imagine, that any body breaks up the real Egyptian mummies to ſell to the druggiſts, as they may make ſo much better a market of them in Europe whole, when they can contrive to get them. What our druggiſts are ſupplied with is the fleſh of executed criminals, or of any other bodies the Jews can get, who fill them with the common bitumen, ſo plentiful in that part of the world; and adding a little aloes, and two or three other cheap ingredients, ſend them to be baked in an oven till the juices are exhaled, and the embalming matter has penetrated ſo thoroughly, that the fleſh will keep, and bear tranſporting into Europe.

Mummy has been eſteemed reſolvent and balſamic, but whatever virtues have been attributed to it, ſeem to be ſuch as would depend more upon the ingredients uſed in the preparing the fleſh, than in the fleſh itſelf; and it would ſurely be better to give theſe ingredients without ſo ſhocking an addition, and accordingly it is at preſent rarely uſed.

MUMMY, *among gardeners*, denotes a kind of wax, compoſed of black pitch, common turpentine, and common wax, burnt till the volatile parts are evaporated, uſed in the planting and grafting of trees.

The ends of roots of trees are to be dipped in this compoſition after melting it, then put in water and planted in the earth.

MUNDIC, *maxy*, a kind of marcaſite found in the tin mines, generally of a dark brown colour.

It is found by the miners to afford copper.

The miners uſe no other vulnerary, but waſhing their wounds in water that runs from the mundic ore.

MUNESAMSOE. *See* DENMARK.

MUNSTER, in Ireland. This province lies open to the Vergivian Sea on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and the Atlantic on the weſt; and is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt with the ocean and province of Leinſter; and, on the north, with the province of Connaught: its circumference, including the great windings and turnings, is above ſix hundred miles.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays and havens, and rich towns, and the ſoil in general fruitful. Its commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fiſh; of which laſt it abounds with all ſorts, eſpecially herrings and cod.

It is divided into the five counties following, viz.

1. *Waterford County*, which has Wexford on the eaſt; Cork on the weſt; the ocean on the ſouth; and the river Shure on the north; by which it is parted from Kilkenny and Tipperary. In ſome parts it is pleaſant and fruitful, but moſtly mountainous, and of a barren coarſe ſoil.

*Waterford* is as conveniently ſeated for trade as any port in the world; it has a good harbour, and ſhips of burthen come up cloſe to its fine key, though it is a good diſtance from the ſea. Gallway contends with this city for propriety, and claims the preference as to trade; though, as Waterford

terford outdoes it in bulk and people, ſo it is thought it does in commerce; particularly Waterford drives a very great trade with England, which Gallway cannot have, by reaſon of its ſituation.

*Dungarvan* ſtands upon a bay of its own name, with a narrow tide haven, and a commodious road for ſhips; but it is a town of no conſequence, and of little buſineſs.

*Tallagh* is a handſome flouriſhing town, in a fine fruitful vale, near the river Bride, which, being navigable from hence to Youghall, renders this a place of good trade.

2. *The county of Cork*, has Waterford on the eaſt; Kerry on the weſt; Limeric on the north; and the Vergivian ocean on the ſouth. It is partly woody and mountainous, and partly fenny, yet has many good towns, abounds in fine rivers and good harbours, is both rich and populous, and the inhabitants induſtrious. A copper mine was lately diſcovered near Cork, which is likely to turn to very good account.

The firſt conſiderable ſea-port, next to Waterford, is Youghall, or Youghill, a place of good trade at the mouth of the Broadwater. The convenience of the harbour, which has a good well fenced key, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draws ſo many merchants hither, that the town is pretty populous and rich.

*Cork* is a fine, large, populous and wealthy city, being thought the richeſt in Ireland except Dublin. The town ſtands up the river, about fifteen miles from the ſea, where the mouth of the harbour is two miles broad. The great ſhips generally ride at a place called Paſſage, about ſix miles below the city; but ſmaller veſſels come quite up to the key. It is the chief port for merchants buſineſs in the kingdom; and there is more beef, butter, and tallow ſhipped off here, perhaps, than in all the other ports put together, as well for our own colonies as for France, and the butter for Holland and Flanders in particular. This occaſions a great reſort of ſhips always to this port, particularly thoſe bound to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Iſlands, which put in here to complete their lading.

*Kinſale* is a populous, and rich town, in a fruitful ſoil, near the mouth of the river Bann, or Bandon, with a trade the moſt conſiderable of any on this ſide of the iſland, next to Cork. Many good ſhips belong to it, and a great quantity of proviſions is exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the Engliſh iſlands in the Weſt-Indies. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay without it.

*Downham's Bay*, ſo called from a neighbouring village, is a large and commodious retreat for ſhips in a ſtorm, and lies on the north ſide of the Miſſen Head.

3. *The county of Kerry*, has that of Cork on the ſouth and eaſt; Limeric on the north; and the Atlantic ocean on the weſt.

*Trailey* is a thriving corporation, and the ſhire-town; it ſtands on a bay of the ſame name.

*Dingle* has a good harbour, very convenient for trade; the bay near it is one of the largeſt in Ireland, and has ſeveral harbours.

*Maire*, or *Kilmare river*, is a bay in the ſouth-eaſt corner of the county, which is a ſafe harbour for the greateſt ſhips.

4. *The county of Limeric* has Tipperay on the eaſt; Cork on the ſouth; part of Tipperary on the north; and Kerry on the weſt. It is fruitful in all ſorts of corn and rape, has a large breed of cattle, and is well inhabited, but has few remarkable towns.

*The city of Limeric* ſtands on the Shannon, which is navigable very near to it for ſhips of burthen, though it ſtands almoſt fifty miles within the point called Loupſhead. It is a rich and populous city. Though there are ſome merchants to whom belong ſhips, it is not ſo famous for its wealth as its ſtrength. The chief trade it uſed to drive was to France, but a pernicious one to the fair trader, viz. the carrying out wool, and bringing in wine and brandy by ſtealth.

5. *The county of Tipperary* is bounded on the weſt with that of Limeric; on the eaſt with Queen's county and Kilkenny; on the ſouth with thoſe of Cork and Waterford; and on the north with King's county. The ſouth part is fruitful, and well inhabited; the weſt is well watered, and both abound in good paſtures, and are furniſhed with the greateſt and beſt flocks in Ireland; the north part is barren and mountainous.

*Clonmell* is a rich and populous town, with a market of good reſort, on the river Shure.

MURAIS, or MORAIS, a meaſure for rice and other dry pulſe uſed by the Portugueſe at Goa, and in their other colonies, containing twenty-five paras, and the para weighing twenty-two Spaniſh pounds.

MUSCADINE, a rich wine of the growth of Provence, Languedoc, &c.

MUSCOVY. *See* RUSSIA, HOLLAND.

MUSK is a grumous, unctuous ſubſtance, not unlike clotted blood, of a ruſty black colour, a ſomewhat acrid, bitter taſte, of a fragrant grateful ſmell at a diſtance, but when ſmelt near to, very ſtrong and diſagreeable, unleſs weakened by the admixture of other ſubſtances; it is collected in a little bag, ſituated near the umbilical region of a particular kind of animal, deſcribed by Tavernier: the greateſt number of theſe animals is met with in China, Tartary, and the Indies. The beſt ſort of muſk is in round, thin bladders, covered with ſhort, brown hairs: the muſk itſelf ſhould be choſen dry, with a kind of unctuoſity, of a dark colour, a ſtrong ſmell, containing as few hard and black clots as poſſible, and which, if chewed, and rubbed with a knife on paper, looks, ſmooth, bright, yellowiſh, and free from grittineſs, which is probably owing to an admixture of gravel, ſand, and other impurities. Muſk when pure burns almoſt entirely away on a red hot iron, leaving behind it only a ſmall portion of light greyiſh aſhes: but this is no certain criterion, if it be adulterated with animal matters. If a ſmall quantity of good muſk be infuſed in ſpirit of wine in the cold for a few days, it imparts to the menſtruum a deep coloured, but not red tinge: this being decanted off, freſh ſpirit poured on the remaining muſk, extracts another tincture, but more ſlowly and much fainter than the former: the firſt tincture is of a faint, and no very pleaſing odour, almoſt as if there was no muſk in it; nevertheleſs, a ſingle drop of it communicates to a pint, or even a quart of ſack, a rich muſky ſcent.

Muſk has been for ſome time pretty much out of uſe as a medicine, on a ſuppoſition of its occaſioning vapours, deliquiums, &c. in weak females, and perſons of a ſedentary life. But Mr. Garcin conjectures, that if ſuitably managed, it would probably prove a remedy of great ſervice, even againſt thoſe very diſorders which it has been ſuppoſed to occaſion: for in Spain, Portugal, and the Eaſt-Indies, where the uſe of muſk ſeems pretty well eſtabliſhed, theſe diſorders occur infinitely more ſeldom than with us.

How far the conjectures of Mr. Garcin were right, will appear from the account which Dr. Wall, an eminent phyſician at Worceſter, has lately communicated to the world, of ſome extraordinary effects of muſk, in convulſive and other diſorders, which have too often baffled the force of medicine. This gentleman obſerves, that the ſmell of perfumes is often of diſſervice; but where the ſubſtance is taken inwardly, and in conſiderable quantity, it produces the happieſt effects: that two perſons, labouring under a *ſubſultus tendinum*, extreme anxiety, and want of ſleep, from the bite of a mad dog, by taking two doſes of muſk, each of which was ſixteen grains, were perfectly relieved from their complaints. He likewiſe obſerves, that convulſive hickups, attended with the worſt ſymptoms, were removed by a doſe or two, of ten grains of muſk; and, that, in ſome caſes, where this medicine could not, on account of ſtrong convulſions, be adminiſtered to the patient through the mouth, it proved of excellent ſervice, when injected as a clyſter. He likewiſe adds, that under the quantity of ſix grains and upwards, it never fails to produce a mild diaphoreſis, without at all heating, or giving any uneaſineſs; that, on the contrary, it eaſes pain, raiſes the ſpirits, and that after the ſweat breaks out, the patient uſually falls into a refreſhing ſleep; that he never met with any hiſterical perſon, how averſe ſoever to perfumes, but could take it in the form of a bolus, without inconvenience. To this paper is annexed an account of ſome further extraordinary effects of muſk, obſerved by another gentleman.

MUSIC-SHOP. The boy, who is put apprentice to this trade, ought to have an ear for muſic; and ſhould, before he enters into this buſineſs, know ſomething both of the theory and practice. His friends ſhould alſo take particular care, to put him to a maſter who plays finely on ſome inſtruments; and this is the more neceſſary, as there are ſome of thoſe who can ſcarcely hum a tune in proper time,

and take apprentices only to keep ſhop, and not to learn them any thing relating to muſic. Theſe ſhops ſell all ſorts of muſic books, ſongs ſet to muſic, and all kinds of muſical inſtruments. They take about twenty pounds with an apprentice; employ almoſt no journeymen; and require four hundred or five hundred pounds, to ſet up a handſome ſhop.

MUSICIAN. The youth who is to obtain a living by teaching muſic, or by being a performer, ought undoubtedly to have the natural qualifications neceſſary to the art; a very delicate ear, and light ſlender fingers; and theſe qualifications ſhould be early improved by a good maſter, at a time when the joints of the fingers are moſt pliable, and acquire a natural facility in the performance. The youth, in learning this ſcience, is not to be put apprentice, but to attend different maſters at the expence of his friends, till he has acquired great ſkill, both in the theory and practice; after which, he may be employed as a compoſer of muſic: he may teach gentlemen and ladies to ſing, or play on muſical inſtruments; may become organiſt to a church, or gain a living by playing at one of the theatres, Vaux-hall, &c.

MUSLIN, or *muſlin*, a fine ſort of cotton cloth, ſo called, as having a downy nap reſembling moſs, which the French call *mouſſe*.

There are various kinds of muſlins brought from the Eaſt-Indies.

Muſlins, landed or put out of any ſhip before entry and payment of branch N° 12, or without a warrant, are forfeited, or their value; two-thirds to the uſe of his majeſty, and one-third to the ſeizer or ſuer. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 3.

*Duty of fifteen per cent. on muſlins.* By 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1. was granted from 25 March, 1700, to 29 September, 1701. 12 and 13 *Will.* III. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 12. continued to 29 Sept. 1706. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 1. continued to 24 June, 1710. 6 *Ann. c.* 22. *ſ.* 1. continued for four years to 24 June, 1714. 7 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 25. continued for ever.

This is (over and above all former duties) to be paid for all muſlins imported; by which are to be underſtood the following ſpecies, viz.

*Abrowahs.*
*Addaties.*
*Aprons.*
*Betelles*, plain and ſtriped.
*Callico lawns.*
*Callicoes* of all other ſorts, commonly called muſlins.
*Comervilles.*
*Coſſaes*, plain and flowered.
*Doreas.*
*Golcanda.*
*Jamdannes.*
*Jecolſies.*
*Junays.*
*Mahumadhiates*, plain and flowered.
*Mulmuls*, plain and flowered.
*Neckcloths.*
*Nigtrails.*
*Oringall.*
*Podavets.*
*Rehings.*
*Rowallew.*
*Sallows.*
*Seerbands.*
*Tanjebs*, plain and flowered.
*Tirindams.*

To be under the management of the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, who are to cauſe the ſame to be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid to the receiver-general of the Cuſtoms, &c. in the manner following, viz.

| | The groſs duty. |
|---|---|
| For every twenty ſhillings of the true and real value of the ſaid muſlins, according to the groſs price at which they ſhall be ſold | £0 3 0 or 15 *per cent.* |

The importer, before the landing of goods, to become bound with two or more ſufficient ſureties, for payment of the ſaid duty, as ſoon as the goods ſhall be ſold, and for expoſing them to ſale openly and fairly, by way of auction, or by inch of candle, within the city of London, within three years after the importation thereof.

| | Diſcount. |
|---|---|
| And in caſe any of the ſaid goods ſhall be fairly ſold within the time limited as aforeſaid, and the importer ſhall pay down the duty of 15 *per cent.* within twenty days after ſuch ſale, he is to be allowed a diſcount thereon, after the rate of | 5 *per cent.* |

Upon due exportation within the times limited by law, this duty is wholly drawn back, or the ſecurity vacated. *See* DRAWBACK for the duty, &c. on flowered muſlins.

Note, Under this branch was alſo comprehended a like duty of 15 *per cent.* on all wrought ſilks, bengals, and ſtuffs made of or mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or the Eaſt-Indies, and callicoes painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there after the weaving, or made of yarn or other materials, painted, dyed, or ſtained before the making. But by 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 1, 10. they are prohibited to be worn in Great-Britain, and are to pay only the half ſubſidy.

MUTUAL PROMISE, is where one man promiſes to pay money to another, and he, in conſideration thereof, promiſes to do a certain act, &c. Such promiſes muſt be binding, as well of one ſide as the other; and both made at the ſame time. *Hob.* 88. 1 *Salk.* 21. Where there are mutual promiſes, and one of the parties dies, whereby the other party could not charge the executor on the promiſe of the teſtator; yet it is here ſaid, the promiſe by the ſurvivor ſhall continue. *Yelv.* 133. But it is held, that on mutual promiſes and covenants, equal remedies are on both ſides; though the performance need not be preciſely alledged, &c. 3 *Salk.* 15, 108. 1 *Lev.* 88. 2 *Mod.* 34.

MUTUATUS. If a man oweth any perſon ten pounds, and hath a note for the ſame, without ſeal, action of debt lies upon a *mutuatus*; but in this there may be wager of law, which there may not be in an action upon the caſe, on an implied promiſe of payment, &c. *Comp. Attorn.* 6. 111.

MYROBALANS, *myrobalani*, in natural hiſtory, a dry fruit, of which there are five different kinds in the ſhops; the yellow or citrine, the Indian or black, the chebulæ, the bellericæ, and the emblicæ.

The Arabians were the people who brought them into uſe in medicine. They are the produce of the Eaſt-Indies; Bengal, Cambaya, and Malabar abound with them. The Indians eat them preſerved in different manners; they alſo uſe them in making ink and dreſſing leather.

They have been in great eſteem for many ages, for opening the bowels very gently, and afterwards ſtrengthening them by their aſtringency.

They were long in great eſteem for diarrhæas, dyſenteries, and other diſorders of the bowels, that require purging firſt, and then binding. They were alſo uſed as correctives to ſcammony and the like. They were commonly given in infuſion or decoction; and this was done by cutting off the pulpy or cortical part of the fruit, and after toaſting it before a fire, reducing it to a powder. The decoction was alſo famous as a gargariſm for faſtening the teeth; but with all theſe good qualities, the preſent practice rejects all the kinds.

MYRRH, is a gummy-reſinous concrete juice, which is brought to us from the Eaſt-Indies, in glebes, or drops, of various colours and magnitudes. The beſt ſort is of a brown or reddiſh colour, ſomewhat tranſparent, not hard to pulverize, though this laſt circumſtance differs according to the age of the myrrh; the freſher, the more viſcous and tough the myrrh is. The taſte of this excellent drug is ſomewhat acrid and bitter, and a little aromatic, though not ſufficiently ſo to prevent its proving naufeous to the palate: it has a ſtrong ſmell, which is not diſagreeable. Myrrh catches flame and burns like a reſin, but does not diſſolve in oily ſubſtances, nor does it intirely diſſolve, like a gum, in water. Rectified ſpirit of wine extracts its reſinous part, in which conſiſts all its aromatic flavour, and leaves a gummy ſubſtance, which has very little taſte or ſmell. Geoffroy relates, that tartarized ſpirit of wine, or ſweet ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, intirely diſſolve it: but this does not ſucceed upon trial. Some gentlemen have lately obſerved, that boiling water diſſolves myrrh freely, and while boiling hot, keeps it almoſt intirely ſuſpended; but when the water grows cold, about one-third or leſs ſubſides, much the greater part remaining united with the cold water: if this ſolution be evaporated to the conſiſtence of an extract, it will again diſſolve in water, but will not give ſo much as a tincture to ſpirit: yet ſpirit will take up great part of what precipitates from water, the reſt ſeeming to be droſs. I have oft-times made an excellent and fragrant tincture of myrrh, by groſsly pulverizing ſome of the freſher and purer ſorts, and then expoſing it to the action of the dry air, in a ſhady place; when it was again pulverized, and expoſed, as before, for a longer time, and then a pure rectified ſpirit poured upon it, it ſoon extracted, without the aſſiſtance of any heat, a deep-coloured tincture,

A New & Accurate
MAP OF
NAPLES,
AND
SICILY.
Drawn from the
Best Authorities
A Scale of Italian Miles 66 to a Degree
THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ADRIATIC SEA
TURKY IN EUROPE
DALMATIA
LESNIT
PART OF THE APENNINE
ECCLESIASTICAL STATE
ROME
ABRUZZO ULTRA
ABRUZZO CITRA
CAPITANATA
MOLISE
TERRA DI LAVORO
PRIN. ULTRA
PRIN. CITRA
BASILICATA
PRO or BARI
PRO or OTRANTO
CALABRIA ULTRA
CALABRIA CITRA
GULF OF MANFREDONIA
GULF OF TARANTA
LIPARI ISLANDS
VAL DI DEMONA
VAL DI NOTO
VAL DI MAZARA
SICILY
Ancona
Loretto
Fermo
R. Tronto
Acumulo
Amatrice
Civita di Penna
Aquila
Civita du Cale
Pescara R.
Chieti
Lanciano
Ortona a Mare
Turino
Pelagosa
Vasto d'Amone
Tremiti I.
Giesmooil
Termoli
Tifierno R.
Tivoli
Ahtri
Velletri
Neptune
Ostura
Mount Circello
Gaeta
Palmeria
Ide Ponce
Naples
Ide Ischi
Gof Naples
Gof Salerno
Capri I.
Salerno
Amalfi
Sorrento
Vesuvius
Molise
Manfredonia
Candidaro R.
Vieste
Peschise
Lesina
Torcola I
Curzola I
Ponte I
Lissa I
Agusta I
I. Melada
Ragusa
I. Cromina
I. Dramnico
Ide Bua
Ancona
Pescara F.
Otranto
Brindisi
Tarento
Gallipoli
Leuca
Cotrone
C. Della Colonne
C. Rizzuto
Squillace
Stilo
Reggio
Messina
Faro
Catania
Augusta
Syracusa
Noto
Falconera
C. Passaro
Palermo
Mazara
Trapani
Marsala
Girgenti
Sciacca
Licata
Terra nova
Ragusa
Lipari
Stromboli
Panarie
Alicudi I.
Ustica I.
Salina
Volcano
Milazzo
Cefalu
Patti
Melazzo
Taormina
Etna
Lentini
Leontini
Augusta
Syracusa
Noto
Modica
Scicli
Mottina
Gof Catania
Licodia
Buchuria
Sortino
Avola
Mazarelli
Ficali
Murza
Falconera
Scilla
Rocella
Squillace
Nicotera
Tropea
Amantea
Belmonte
Fisenate
Belvedere
Cosenza
Umbriatico
Strongoli
Cotrone
Rossano
Corigliano
Longobucco
Curiata
Oria
Taranto
Otranto
Castro
Nardo
Lecce
Gallipoli
Cyrus
St. Maria di Leuca
Mt Sardo
Tre Isaccia
Policastro
Sanza
Rocca
Morano
Castel Saraceno
Agri R.
Turchi
Potenza
Muro
Ferrandina
Matera
Mola
Polignano
Bitetto
Conversano
Bari
Minervino
Andria
Barletta
Trani
Biseglia
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Lissa I
Ponte I
Agusta I
I. Melada
I. Dramnico

tincture, containing in a very eminent degree the fragrant ſmell and bitter aromatic taſte of the myrrh. *Lewis.*

The ancients eſteemed myrrh to be very drying and detergent, and others of them celebrated it as a reſolvent. Indeed, it powerfully reſolves and attenuates a thick and viſcid blood, a concreted bile, and glutinous humours, and is good in obſtructions of the menſes, and in infarctions of the viſcera. It alſo promotes delivery and expulſion of the ſecundines, and is good in aſthmas, and in caſes of tubercles of the lungs; in the jaundice alſo, it has been known to do great ſervice, and in cachectic complaints. It deſtroys worms, ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and diſſipates flatulencies.

Externally applied, it is diſcutient and vulnerary; it cleanſes old ulcers, and diſpoſes them to heal. Though myrrh have all theſe virtues, it is not to be given without caution. It is an obſervation as old as the time of Galen, that myrrh will give many people the head-ach; even the ſmell of it will ſometimes have this effect. As it promotes diſcharges of blood of whatever ſpecies, it is by no means to be given to any body that is ſubject to diſeaſes of that kind, of blood, or the like; and women, in the time of their pregnancy, muſt by no means take it, leſt it procure abortion.

MYRTLE-BERRIES, *baccæ myrti*, or *myrtilli*, in natural hiſtory, a ſmall fruit of a roundiſh, but ſomewhat oblong ſhape, umbilicated, and of a wrinkled and uneven ſurface. They are of a duſky blackiſh colour, ſoft to the touch, and not heavy; compoſed of a thin and fine membraneous covering, which includes a ſoft pulpy matter, in which are bedded a number of ſmall, oblong, crooked, and whitiſh ſeeds. They have but little ſmell, but are of an auſtere, aſtringent taſte. They are to be choſen freſh and plump, not too dry, heavy, and clean. They are apt to be duſty and worm-eaten, in which caſe they become of no value.

The ſhrub which produces them is one of the *icoſandria monogynia* of Linnæus, and of the *fructices bacciferæ umbilicatæ* of Mr. Ray.

The berries of the myrtle are eſteemed cooling and aſtringent; they are recommended in gonorrhæas, and in diarrhæas, dyſenteries, and hæmorrhages of all kinds; but they are little uſed at preſent.

# N.



N Among the ancients, was a numeral letter denoting nine hundred. When a daſh was over it thus, $\bar{N}$, ſignified nine thouſand.

N. or N° in commerce, &c. is an abbreviation of *numero* or *number*.

NAIL, in commerce, a kind of long meaſure for cloths, containing the ſixteenth part of a yard.

NAIRN. The ſoil of this country is fruitful and rich, the lower part bearing plenty of corn, whilſt the upper parts flouriſh with paſtures fit to graze cattle; and, indeed, here is nothing wanting, that any other part of the kingdom prnduces.

NALA, an Eaſt-Indian weight. *See* HALI and GUPPAS.

NANGASAKI. *See* JAPAN.

NANQUE, is the ſmalleſt weight of the five, uſed among the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, for weighing gold and ſilver: it is equal to ſix grains, and beſides this, here are the *ſompi*, *vari*, *ſacara*, and the *nanqui*. *See* SOMPI.

NAPHTHA, by the ancients called *oleum Medeæ*, in natural hiſtory, a very pure, clear, and thin mineral fluid, though much leſs ſo than the *petroleum*. It is thinner than the expreſſed vegetable oils, but ſomewhat thicker than the fine diſtilled ones. It is of a very pale yellow with a caſt of brown in it. It has a ſharp taſte, and a very penetrating ſmell of the bituminous kind, and approaches ſomewhat to that of the diſtilled oil of amber. When pure, it will burn wholly away; and, in places where it is common, it exhales a vapour that takes fire at the approach of any flame.

It is found floating on ſprings that iſſue out of the ſides of hills in Perſia, Tartary, &c. It is not known to be any where produced in Europe. As the ſubſtance remaining at the bottom of the retort has much the reſemblance of amber, it ſeems highly probable that amber is from the ſame ſort of principle.

The medicinal virtues of the *naphtha* are the ſame with thoſe of common *petroleum*, but in a more remiſs degree. It is uſed externally on many occaſions in Perſia, and a few drops for a doſe are taken inwardly for cholics. The principal uſe that is made of it is for burning in lamps, as it does not conſume ſo quick as the *petroleum*, and is of a leſs offenſive ſmell; but it makes more ſmoke.

NAPLES. This capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, is a place of great trade, and the goodneſs of its port attracts vaſt numbers of foreign veſſels to it; but in order ſtill to increaſe its commerce, and raiſe it to the higheſt pitch poſſible, Don Carlos, the late king, invited the Jews to ſettle there, by granting them ſeveral very great and ſingular privileges, as will appear by the following edict, publiſhed on the third of February, 1740, by order of his Sicilian majeſty.

I. It is granted to all merchants or others of the Hebrew nation, a full and abſolute ſafe-guard, faculty, and permiſſion, to come, remain, traffic, paſs on, or ſtay, with or without their families, in our kingdoms and ſtates, as alſo to depart, and return, without any obſtacle, both in regard

regard of their effects, and perſons; and this for the term of fifty years next following, to commence the firſt day of this; declaring that the fiftieth year being expired, there ſhall yet be granted five others, during which, if it be the good pleaſure of his majeſty or his ſucceſſors, to abrogate the preſent licence at the end of the fifth year, they may freely, and without hindrance, regulate all their affairs, &c. we willing, that no extraordinary duty be exacted from them on the departure of their ſhips, veſſels, horſes, carriages, &c.

II. If any Hebrews, coming from other kingdoms or countries to ours, ſhall be accuſed in thoſe ſtates from whence they came, of having committed ſome enormous action, or crime there, for which they have been proſecuted; as alſo in caſe that they were diſguiſed as Chriſtians, and had feigned to be of this religion, we annul and make void the cauſes of ſuch accuſation, and will not permit that they be called to account for it, in our dominions, on any pretext whatſoever; in fine, we grant to the ſaid Hebrews, the free exerciſe of their ceremonies, ſolemnities, uſe and cuſtoms, according to the Jewiſh laws, prohibiting their wearing publicly cloaks, or other diſtinguiſhing dreſs, under any denomination whatſoever.

III. That the Hebrews ſhall not be ſubject to any regiſtry or conſular juriſdiction, nor to any company of tradeſmen; but if any difference ariſes between a Chriſtian and a Jew, on ſome affair concerning arts and trades, the judge delegate, who ſhall be named for this purpoſe, ſhall be deemed a competent one, and decide it.

IV. We grant to the Hebrews and their families, who ſhall eſtabliſh their reſidence in our ſtates, to enjoy, in reſpect of their commerce, either at home or abroad, the ſame privileges, franchiſes, and immunities, which the other citizens or inhabitants of the ſame cities or places, do, or may enjoy.

V. That all their moveables or ornaments making a part of their apparel, acquired either within or without our dominions, ſhall be exempt from paying any cuſtoms, or duty of paſſage, at their importation or exportation.

VI. There ſhall be a judge delegate at Naples, Palermo, and Meſſina; and a magiſtrate appointed at Meſſina as at Naples, who ſhall judge of the differences that ſhall ariſe between a Chriſtian and a Jew, or between two Jews, in caſe that the crimes merit a ſeverer chaſtiſement than confining or baniſhing; and in other caſes, that they be carried excluſively before their people of the law, and if they are wronged or aggrieved, they may recur to the royal protection of his majeſty.

VII. This article regards the puniſhment to be inflicted on the Jews, who ſhall frequent or keep company with either Chriſtians, Turk, or Moor.

VIII. This is to prevent the falſe accuſations, which may be intended againſt the Jews.

IX. If there happens any diſaſtrous accident to a Hebrew, that ſhould oblige him to fail, and that he falls into penury, ſo as to diſable him from paying his debts; in this caſe the merchandize, bills of exchange, and other effects, or money appertaining to any correſpondent, ſhall not be ſtopped to ſatisfy his ſaid debts.

X. Is relative to the dowry of married women.

XI. On the ſubject of ſequeſtrations obtained againſt the Jews.

XII. Concerning the validity of the ſecurities which the Jews ſhall give, when they ſhall be obliged to leave the kingdom.

XIII. Permits the Hebrews to have all ſorts of books, after being (however) inſpected by their delegate.

XIV. and XV. Favour the Jewiſh phyſicians.

XVI. Grants them a public ſynagogue.

XVII. Leaves them at liberty in regard of their wills.

XVIII. In regard to contracts of purchaſe and ſale, or in trade, in relation to the Jews in our dominions, the ſales ſhall not be held as perfected, till after a writing has paſſed between the buyer and ſeller, under their hands, and confirmed by a notary, or two witneſſes; provided that if between merchants in the retail way, at fairs, markets, &c. they be made without theſe formalities, they ſhall have all force, according to the uſual cuſtom and law, in regard to the other inhabitants.

XXV. We grant to the Jews all the favours, privileges, and faculties, enjoyed by the other merchants of this kingdom; they may exerciſe all ſorts of trades, and traffic; but it ſhall not be permitted them, after the manner of our ſubjects, to cry about the ſtreets, old cloaths to ſell: tho' the Jews have leave to ſell and buy every one in particular, in his own houſe or ſhop; none of them or their family ſhall be obliged to wear any mark that they may be known by.

XXXI. The merchandize of the Jews, and of their correſpondents, and their perſons, coming to any place whatſoever in our ports, ſhall be free, as well in their merchandizes and perſons, as the ſhip which brings them, on payment of the ordinary cuſtoms, gabelles, and taxes, even when they have no paſſport, provided that it appears by the veſſel's documents, that it was deſtined with its goods for one of our ports, and no magiſtrate or officer ſhall moleſt either the ſhips or any of the effects; but, on the contrary, ſhall obſerve our preſent privilege, and in caſe of diſobedience, ſhall be puniſhed, and all the merchandizes reſtored to the Jews, with charges and expences, without any hindrance real or perſonal.

XXXV. We grant to the Jews ſix warehouſes for their uſe in the Cuſtom-houſe of Naples rent free, ſince we conſider them as our own ſubjects; they may have alſo the like, in the other Cuſtom-houſes of our kingdoms for their conveniency, equally with the other burgeſſes and inhabitants, in proportion to their number and trade, according to the informations that their delegates ſhall give in; and in caſe that the magazines of the Cuſtom houſe are not ſufficiently large to contain their goods, it ſhall be permitted the Jews to hire others to their liking, under the guard and inſpection of the Cuſtom-houſe officers, enjoying the privilege of Portos Francos, as if their effects were encloſed in the offices of the Cuſtom houſe.

The king of the Two Sicilies likewiſe made a treaty of peace, trade and commerce with the Ottoman court, which was concluded at Conſtantinople the ſeventh of April, 1740; whereby his ſubjects are put on the ſame footing with thoſe of all others, trading to the dominions of the grand ſeignior.

Naples furniſhes trade with raw and wrought ſilks, ſilk waiſtcoats and ſtockings knit, oil of laurel, crude brimſtone, Calabrian manna, roſemary bloſſoms, anis, and coriander ſeeds, raiſins, currants, cream of tartar, figs, and olives, ſoap, dried orange and lemon peel, ſilk ſtockings and waiſtcoats, eſſences, quinteſſences, and perfumes.

Palermo (the capital of Sicily) produces alſo raw and wrought ſilks, brimſtone, cream of tartar, fine ſponges, and plenty of the fineſt wheat, except Spaniſh.

Regio yields raw ſilk, manna, oil, and dried fruit.

Meſſina affords alſo large quantities of ſilk, and other commodities, ſimilar to thoſe of Palermo.

With theſe products and manufactures his Sicilian majeſty's ſubjects drive a great trade to England, Holland, Liſbon, Turkey, and ſome to France, more eſpecially in corn, when this kingdom is in want; and the merchandizes they take in return are ſpoken of, where we have given a catalogue of thoſe fit for Italy, in which theſe places are included. *See* ITALY.

NARVA. *See* LIVONIA.

NASARA, a ſilver money cut ſquare, ſtruck at Tunis.

NATURALIZATION, is the making an alien the king's natural ſubject by act of parliament, whereby he becomes as much a ſubject, to all intents and purpoſes, as if he was born ſo; for by naturalization, a perſon's iſſue, before the naturalization, ſhall inherit. 1 *Inſt.* 8. 129.

A ſtranger, naturalized by act of parliment, may have lands by deſcent, as heir at law, as well as have them by purchaſe; but until he is naturalized, or made denizen, a ſtranger is not generally under the king's protection, to have the benefit of the laws.

No perſon of the age of eighteen years, or above, ſhall be naturalized, unleſs he have received the Lord's ſupper within one month before any bill, exhibited for that purpoſe, and alſo ſhall take the oath of ſupremacy and allegiance in the parliament houſe, before his bill be twice read; and the lord chancellor, if the bill begin in the upper houſe, and the ſpeaker of the commons houſe, if the bill begin there, ſhall have authority during the ſeſſion to adminiſter ſuch oaths. 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 2.

By 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 1. the clauſe in the act 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 2. whereby it is enacted, that no perſon born out of the kingdoms,

kingdoms, though he be naturalized, except ſuch as are born of Engliſh parents, ſhould be capable to be of the privy council, &c. ſhall not extend to diſable any perſon, who, before his majeſty's acceſſion to the crown, was naturalized.

*Sect.* 2. No perſon ſhall be naturalized, unleſs in the bill exhibited for that purpoſe there be a clauſe to declare, that ſuch perſon ſhall not be enabled to be of the privy council, or a member of either houſe of parliament, or enjoy any office of truſt, or have any grant from the crown; and no bill of naturalization ſhall be received without ſuch clauſe.

By 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1. children born out of the allegiance to the crown of Great-Britain, whoſe fathers ſhall be natural born ſubjects, ſhall, by virtue of the act 7 *Ann. c.* 5. and of this act, be natural born ſubjects.

*Sect.* 2. Provided that nothing in 7 *Ann. c.* 5. or this act, ſhall make any children, born out of the legiance of the crown, to be natural born ſubjects, whoſe fathers, at the time of the birth of ſuch children, were, or ſhall be attainted of high treaſon, either in this kingdom or in Ireland, or were liable to the penalties of high treaſon or felony in caſe of their returning into this kingdom or Ireland, without licence of his majeſty; or were, or ſhall be in the ſervice of any foreign ſtate, then in enmity with the crown of Great-Britain.

*Sect.* 3. If any child, whoſe father, at the time of the birth of ſuch child, was attainted of high treaſon, or liable to the penalties of high treaſon or felony in caſe of returning without licence, or was in the ſervice of any foreign ſtate in enmity with the crown (excepting all children of ſuch perſons who went out of Ireland in purſuance of the articles of Limerick) hath come into Great-Britain, or Ireland, or any other of the dominions of Great-Britain, and hath continued to reſide within the dominions aforeſaid for two years, at any time between the 16th of November, 1708, and the 25th of March, 1731, and during ſuch reſidence hath profeſſed the proteſtant religion, or hath come into Great-Britain, &c. and profeſſed the proteſtant religion, and died within Great-Britain, &c. at any time between the ſaid 16th of November, 1708, and the 25th of March, 1731, or hath continued in the actual poſſeſſion, or receipt of the rents of any lands in Great-Britain, &c. for one year, at any time between the ſaid 16th of November, 1708, and the 25th of March, 1731; or hath *bona fide* ſold or ſettled any lands in Great-Britain or Ireland, and any perſon claiming title thereto, under ſuch ſale or ſettlement, hath been in actual poſſeſſion or receipt of the rents thereof for ſix months, between the ſaid 16th of November, 1708, and the 25th of March, 1731, every ſuch child ſhall be deemed a natural born ſubject of the crown of Great-Britain.

And for the better encouraging foreign ſeamen to ſerve on board Britiſh ſhips, it is farther enacted, 13 *Geo.* II. *p.* 125. that every ſuch foreign ſeaman who ſhall, after the firſt day of January, 1739, have ſerved during the war on board any Britiſh man of war, merchant ſhip, or privateer for two years, ſhall be deemed a natural born ſubject of Great-Britain, and ſhall enjoy all the privileges, &c. as an actual native of Great-Britain.

Provided that no perſon thus naturalized, ſhall be of the privy council, a member of either houſe of parliament, or have any place of truſt, civil or military, or have any grant of lands, &c. from the crown.

Enacted, 13 *Geo.* II. *p.* 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, that after the firſt day of June, 1740, all foreigners, who have inhabited or ſhall inhabit, for ſeven years or more, in any of our American colonies, and ſhall not be abſent from ſome of the ſaid colonies more than two months at any one time during the ſaid ſeven years; and ſhall take and ſubſcribe the oaths, and make, repeat, and ſubſcribe the declaration appointed by the act of 1 *Geo.* I. or being a Quaker, ſhall make and ſubſcribe the declaration of fidelity, and take and affirm the effect of the abjuration oath, appointed by the act 8 *Geo.* I. and alſo make and ſubſcribe the profeſſion of his Chriſtian belief, appointed by the act 1 *Will.* and *Mar.* before any one of the judges of the colony, wherein ſuch perſons have inhabited, or ſhall inhabit, ſhall be adjudged to be his majeſty's natural born ſubjects of this kingdom, to all intents and purpoſes, as if they had been really born in the ſame; that the ſaid judges ſhall give the ſaid oaths, &c. in open court between the hours of nine and twelve in the forenoon, which ſhall be entered in the ſame court, and alſo in the ſecretary's office of the colony wherein ſuch perſon ſhall ſo inhabit; for doing whereof two ſhillings ſhall be paid at ſuch reſpective place, under the penalty of ten pounds for every neglect: every ſecretary is alſo required to make ſuch entry, in a book to be kept for that purpoſe in his office on notification by a judge of the ſame colony, under the like penalty.

All perſons duly qualifying themſelves to be naturalized (except Quakers or Jews) ſhall receive the ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper in ſome proteſtant congregation in Great-Britain, or in ſome of the American colonies, within three months next before their taking and ſubſcribing the ſaid oaths and declaration; and ſhall, at the time of taking and ſubſcribing the ſaid oaths, &c. produce a certificate, ſigned by the perſon adminiſtring the ſaid ſacrament, and atteſted by two credible witneſſes, whereof an entry ſhall be made in the ſecretary's office of the colony wherein they ſhall inhabit, as alſo in the court where the ſaid oaths ſhall be taken, without fee or reward.

Whenever a Jew preſents himſelf to take the oaths purſuant to this act, the words *(upon the true faith of a Chriſtian)* ſhall be omitted in adminiſtring the ſame; and the taking the ſaid oaths without thoſe words, as the Jews were permitted to take the oath of abjuration by the act of 10 *Geo.* I. ſhall be deemed a ſufficient taking according to this act.

A certificate under the ſeal of any of the ſaid colonies, of any perſon's having conformed in the ſeveral particulars required by this act, ſhall be deemed a ſufficient teſtimony thereof, and of his being a natural born ſubject of Great-Britain, to all intents and purpoſes, in every court within the king's dominions.

The ſecretary of every reſpective colony ſhall ſend over to the commiſſioners of trade at London, at the end of every year, to be computed from the firſt of June, 1740, exact liſts of the names of all perſons who have that year intitled themſelves to the benefit of this act, under penalty of fifty pounds for every neglect; all which liſts ſhall be entered in a book, by the ſaid commiſſioners, to be kept at the office for public view.

Provided that no ſuch naturalized perſon ſhall be of the privy council, or a member of either houſe of parliament, or capable of enjoying any place of truſt in Great-Britain or Ireland, civil or military, or of taking any grant from the crown to himſelf, or any in truſt for him, of any lands, &c. in Great-Britain or Ireland.

After reciting the before-mentioned act, the 20 *Geo.* II. *p.* 935, 936, 937, 938, adds, and as many of the people of the congregation called the Moravian brethren, and other foreign proteſtants, not Quakers, who ſcruple the taking of an oath, are ſettled in his majeſty's colonies in America, and demean themſelves there as a ſober, quiet, and induſtrious people, and many others of the like perſuaſion, are deſirous to tranſport themſelves thither; and if the benefit of the ſaid act of 13 *Geo.* II. were extended to them, they who are now there, would thereby be encouraged to continue their reſidence, and others would reſort thither in greater numbers; whereby the ſaid colonies would be improved, their ſtrength increaſed, and their trade extended; it is therefore enacted, that from and after the 25th of December, 1747, all foreign proteſtants, who conſcientiouſly ſcruple the taking of an oath, and who are born out of the legiance of his majeſty, who have or ſhall reſide for ſeven years in any of his majeſty's colonies in America, and ſhall not have been abſent out of ſome of them longer than two months at any one time during the ſaid term, and ſhall qualify themſelves, as by the recited act of 8 *Geo.* I. and 1 *Will.* and *Mar.* is directed, before the chief or other judge of the colony wherein they reſpectively have or ſhall ſo reſide, ſhall be deemed to be his majeſty's natural born ſubjects, to all intents and purpoſes, as if they had been born within this kingdom; which ſaid affirmation, and ſubſcription of the ſaid declaration, the ſaid chief, or other judge, is to adminiſter and take, and the ſame ſhall be done in every reſpect, as in the ſaid recited act of 13 *Geo.* II. is ſet forth and directed, and liſts ſhall be tranſmitted, &c.

No perſon ſhall be naturalized by virtue of this act, unleſs he ſhall have received the ſacrament, &c.

The proviſions contained in the act of 13 *Geo.* II. &c. ſhall extend to foreign proteſtants, who conſcientiouſly ſcruple the taking of an oath, and who ſhall be qualified as aforeſaid.

The ſaid foreign proteſtants ſhall enjoy the privileges of natural born ſubjects, and all the benefits of this act, and the ſaid act of 13 *Geo.* II.

No perſon who ſhall become a natural born ſubject of this kingdom by virtue of this act, ſhall be of the privy-council, &c.

Nothing in this act, or in the recited act of 13 *Geo.* II. ſhall extend to naturalize any perſon, who, by virtue of an act of 4 *Geo.* II. (intitled an Act to explain a Clauſe in 7 *Annæ*, &c.) is enacted not to be intitled to the benefit of the ſaid act of 7 *Annæ*, but all ſuch perſons ſhall remain in the ſame ſtate and condition to all intents and purpoſes, as they would have been in if the ſaid recited act of 13 *Geo.* II. or this act had never been made.

According to law, no one can be naturalized but by act of parliament, and that cures the defect as if they had been born in England; and acts of this nature may be ſo penned, as to cure defects in the father or anceſtor, as well as in the parties themſelves, which it will not do except expreſs words to that purpoſe are inſerted. 1 *Inſt.* 129.

Children born of parents ſubjects within any of the places or guards poſſeſſed by the king's army when in an hoſtile manner he forcibly enters the territories of another prince or ſtate, ſhall be deemed natural born ſubjects, and ſtand in no need of naturalization. *Dyer, fol.* 224. *Placit.* 20. *Crow.* v. *Ramſey Lord. Vaughan fol.* 301.

It has been conceived, that a foreigner, being naturalized in Ireland, may cloathe him with the title of a natural born ſubject of that country, but not qualify him as one of this. *See* ALIEN, DENIZATION.

NAVARRE. *See* BEARN.

NAVAL-STORES. Premium on naval-ſtores imported.

I. *From the Britiſh plantations.*

By 2 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 35. *ſect.* 3, 18. was granted from 29 September, 1729, to 29 September, 1742.

13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *f.* 1. continued to 25 December, 1750.

24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *f.* 1. continued to 25 December, 1751.

25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 2. continued to 25 March, 1758. And to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

*Imported directly from any of the Britiſh plantations in America in ſhips legally navigated, and that by law may trade thither.*

*Maſts, yards,* and *bowſprights,* the ton, allowing forty feet to each ton, girt meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies 1 0 0

*Tar,* clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, the ton, containing eight barrels, and each barrel to gauge thirty-one gallons and a half, to be well hooped and filled up 2 4 0

*Tar,* clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, clear of droſs or water, and fit in every reſpect for making of cordage, made from trees prepared according to the directions hereafter mentioned, the ton, containing eight barrels, and each barrel to gauge thirty-one gallons and a half, to be well hooped and filled up on the importation thereof 4 0 0

*But no premium is to be paid on any tar, unleſs each barrel contains thirty-one gallons and a half, and the officers not to ſurvey the tar till the water is all drawn off, and every barrel filled up with tar.*

*Pitch,* clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned, not mixed with dirt or droſs, the ton, containing twenty groſs hundreds, neat pitch, to be brought in eight barrels of equal ſize 1 0 0

*Turpentine,* clean, good, and merchantable, clear of droſs and water, the ton, containing twenty groſs hundreds, neat turpentine, to be brought in eight barrels of equal ſize 1 10 0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the Navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe, upon certificate of the reſpective chief officers of the Cuſtoms where imported; to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or collector of his majeſty's Cuſtoms, and naval-officer, or any two of them, reſiding within any of his majeſty's ſaid plantations, teſtifying, that before the departure of the ſhip, the perſon lading the ſame had made oath before them, that the ſaid ſtores were truly, and *bona fide,* of the growth and produce of his majeſty's ſaid plantations: and with reſpect to the high bounty on tar, expreſſing, that it has appeared to them, the perſons ſo certifying, by the oath of the owner or maker of the tar for which ſuch certificate was granted, that the tar herein mentioned was made from green trees, prepared for that purpoſe after the following manner; that is to ſay, that when ſuch trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was ſtripped eight feet, or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a ſlip of the bark of about four inches in breadth having been left on one ſide of each tree; and that each tree, after having been ſo barked, and ſtood during one year at the leaſt, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the ſaid tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith; as likewiſe upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at any port in Great-Britain, that the ſame were ſhipped within ſome of his majeſty's plantations in America, and that he knows, or believes, that the ſaid ſtores were the produce of the ſaid plantations.

But the aforeſaid certificates of the chief officers of the Cuſtoms are not to be made out for the premium on pitch, until the ſame be freed from dirt or droſs; nor for any tar that is not fitting to be uſed for making of cordage, and ſhall not be freed from droſs and water, and unleſs ſuch pitch and tar be clean, good, merchantable, and well-conditioned.

And the ſaid officers of the Cuſtoms, before they make out ſuch certificates, are to examine the pitch, by opening the heads of the barrels, ſawing off the ſtaves in the middle, and breaking the barrels, or by ſuch other means as they ſhall think proper, to diſcover whether the ſaid pitch is good and merchantable, not mixed with dirt or droſs; and alſo to examine and ſearch the ſaid tar, to diſcover whether the ſame is clean, good, merchantable, well-conditioned, and clear of droſs and water, and fit for making of cordage.

II. *From North-Britain, commonly called Scotland.*

By 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 13. was granted from 29 September, 1729, to 29 September, 1742.

13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *f.* 1. continued to 25 December, 1750.

24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *f.* 1. continued to 25 December, 1751.

25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 2. continued to 15 March, 1758. And from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

*Imported from North-Britain to any part of South-Britian.*

*Trees* of twelve inches diameter and upwards, fit for maſts, yards, or bowſprights, regularly converted, and hewed at leaſt into eight ſquares, ſound, freſh, and in good and merchantable condition, the ton, allowing forty feet to each ton, girt-meaſure, according to the cuſtomary way of meaſuring round bodies 1 0 0

Which premiums are to be paid by the commiſſioners of the Navy, by bills to be made out for the ſame, and delivered to the importers within twenty days after the diſcharge or unlading of the ſhip, in order to be paid in courſe; upon

upon certificates of the reſpective chief officers of the Cuſtoms where imported, to whom a certificate has been produced, under the hands and ſeals of the comptroller and collector of the Cuſtoms, and the naval-officer, or any two of them, reſiding at the port or ports of exportation in North-Britain, teſtifying, that before the departure of the ſhip, the perſons concerned, or employed (or any two of them) in cutting down the aforeſaid trees, had made affidavit in writing, before ſuch comptroller and collector, and naval-officer, or any two of them, that ſuch trees were truly and *bona fide* of the growth and produce of North-Britain; and ſpecifying in the ſaid affidavit, the particular number, quantity, and qualities of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down, the names of the proprietors, and the places where the ſame did grow; as likewiſe upon oath to be made by the maſter of the ſhip, at the port of importation in South-Britain; that the ſame were truly laden within North-Britain, and that he knows, or believes, that the ſaid trees were of the growth of North-Britain.

Perſons counterfeiting, or making falſe affidavits, or certificates, of the growth of the trees, in order to obtain the premium, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury, and to forfeit a hundred pounds.

Collector, comptroller, or naval-officer, making falſe certificates, ſhall incur ſuch penalties, as are directed for like offences by the act (13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11.) for preventing frauds, and regulating abuſes in his majeſty's Cuſtoms.

Maſters or owners of ſhips knowingly importing foreign trees fit for maſts, &c. as of the product of North-Britain, in order to obtain the bounty, are to forfeit a hundred pounds, together with the ſhip and furniture.

*From the Britiſh plantations and Scotland.*

Upon the landing of the aforeſaid ſtores and trees, the pre-emption or refuſal muſt be offered and tendered to the commiſſioners of the Navy, and if within twenty days after ſuch tender, they ſhall not contract for the ſame, the importers may otherwiſe diſpoſe of them.

No fee, gratuity, or reward, may be demanded or taken by the officers of the Cuſtoms, for the examining, viewing, or delivering any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, or for making or ſigning certificates, in order to receive the premium, upon the forfeiture of office and a hundred pounds, and to be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty.

And if any of the aforeſaid naval ſtores, or trees, ſhall be again exported, the exporter muſt, before entry thereof, produce to the collector, &c. of the Cuſtoms, at the port of exportation, a receipt from the treaſurer of the Navy, or his caſhier, ſubſcribed by his comptroller, or his chief clerk, ſignifying that the full amount of the aforeſaid premium had been repaid to him; on failure whereof, ſuch ſtores may not be exported; and if ſuch ſtores are fraudulently exported without repayment of the premium, they are forfeited, and double the value.

And if upon the exportation of the aforeſaid ſtores, doubts ſhall ariſe concerning the growth, product, or manufacture, the *onus probandi* ſhall lie on the owner or claimer thereof.

By 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 4. a true account of all naval-ſtores, imported from Ruſſia, is to be laid before both houſes of parliament every ſeſſion, by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, under their hands.

NAVIGATION, the art or act of conducting a ſhip, through the wide and pathleſs ocean, the ſafeſt, ſhorteſt, and moſt commodious way.

This word, in its full latitude, comprizes the art of building ſhips, the loading of ſhips, and the conducting them through the ſea, which laſt is more peculiarly called *navigation*, or *ſailing*; ſo that it is either *common* or *proper*.

*Common navigation*, or *coaſting*, is where the veſſel is ſeldom out of ſight of land, or reach of ſounding. In this, an acquaintance with the coaſts, compaſs, and ſounding line, are ſufficient.

*Proper navigation*, is where the voyage is out in the main ocean.

Here, beſides the former requiſites, it is neceſſary to know the uſe of Mercator's chart, azimuth, and amplitude, compaſs, log-line, quadrant, foreſtaffs, &c. for celeſtial obſervations.

*Navigation* turns principally on four things, two of which being known, the other two are eaſily found from them by the tables, ſcales, and charts.

The four things are the difference of latitude, difference of longitude, the reckoning or diſtance run, and the courſe or rhumb ſailed on.

The latitudes are eaſily found, and with ſufficient accuracy. The courſe and diſtance are had by the log-line, or dead reckoning, and the compaſs.

There is nothing wanting to the perfection of navigation, but to determine the longitude: towards which many fruitleſs attempts have been made by the mathematicians of all ages. *See* LONGITUDE.

The Phœnicians, eſpecially thoſe of Tyre, are repreſented in hiſtory as the firſt navigators. Tyre, whoſe immenſe riches and power are repreſented in ſuch lofty terms, both in ſacred and profane authors, being deſtroyed by Alexander the Great, its navigation was transferred to Alexandria by the conqueror: and thus aroſe the navigation of the Egyptians, which was afterwards ſo cultivated by the Ptolomeys, that Tyre and Carthage, which laſt was ſubdued by the Romans, were quite forgot.

At length Alexandria itſelf underwent the fate of Tyre and Carthage, being ſurprized by the Saracens, who, in ſpite of Heraclius, over-run the Northern coaſts of Africa, &c. ſo that Alexandria has ever ſince been in a declining ſtate.

Upon the fall of the Roman empire, the more brave among the Franks in Gaul, the Goths in Spain, and the Lombards in Italy, were no ſooner ſettled, than they began to learn the advantage of navigation and commerce, and the methods of managing them, from the people they had ſubdued; and in a little time ſome of them became able to give new inſtructions for its advantage.

The people of Italy, and particularly thoſe of Venice and Genoa, were the firſt reſtorers of navigation and commerce to the marſhy iſlands in the bottom of the Adriatic; where the Veneti, who inhabited along the coaſts of that gulph, retired, when Alaric, king of the Goths, and afterwards Attila, king of the Huns, ravaged Italy.

Each of the ſeventy-two iſlands of the Archipelago continued a long time under its reſpective maſters, as a diſtinct commonwealth, till the commerce becoming conſiderable, they began to think of uniting into a body: and it was this union firſt begun in the ſixth century, but not completed till the eighth, that laid the foundation of the future grandeur of the Venetians.

From the time of this union fleets of merchantmen were ſent to all the parts of the Mediterranean, and at laſt to Grand Cairo, a city built by the Saracens on the Eaſtern banks of the Nile.

Thus they flouriſhed till the famous league of Cambray, in 1508, when a number of jealous princes conſpired to their ruin; which was the more eaſily effected by the Portugueze getting one part of the Eaſt-India commerce, and the French another.

Genoa, which had applied to navigation at the ſame time with Venice, diſputed with it the empire of the ſea. Jealouſy ſoon began to break out, and the two republics coming to blows, it was for three centuries almoſt continual war, before the ſuperiority was aſcertained; when, towards the end of the fourteenth century, the fatal battle of Chioza ended the noble ſtrife: the Genoeſe, who, till then had uſually the advantage, now loſt all; and the Venetians ſecured to themſelves the empire of the ſea, and ſuperiority in commerce.

About the ſame time that navigation was retrieved in the Southern parts of Europe, a new ſociety of merchants was formed in the North, who framed a new ſcheme of laws for the regulation of commerce, called ſtill, the uſages and cuſtoms of the ſea.

This ſociety is that famous league of the HANSE, which *ſee*.

In examining the reaſons of commerce paſſing ſucceſſively from the Venetians, Genoeſe, and Hanſe Towns, to the Portugueze and Spaniards, and from thoſe again to the Engliſh and Dutch; it may be eſtabliſhed as a maxim, that the relation betwixt commerce and navigation, or rather

ther their union, is ſo intimate, that the fall of the one inevitably draws after it that of the other.

Hence ſo many laws, &c. for its regulation; and particularly that celebrated act of navigation in England, which is the ſtanding rule, not only of the Engliſh among themſelves, but alſo of other nations with whom they traffic.

Till this act, all nations were at liberty to import into England all kinds of merchandizes, and that on their own bottom. But Cromwell particularly paſſed an act, prohibiting the Dutch from importing any merchandizes, except thoſe of their own growth, which were very few.

The firſt parliament of Charles II. after the reſtoration, paſſed an act, bearing date from the firſt of December, 1660, for the encouragement and increaſe of ſhipping and navigation, which ſtill ſubſiſts in its full latitude and vigour. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. and 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *See* ACT *of Navigation.*

NAVY, the ſame with *fleet*, which *ſee*.

The direction of the royal navy of England is in ſeven commiſſioners, who are called lords of the admiralty, there being at preſent no lord high admiral.

In ancient times the kings of England commanded the fleets in perſon, and as early as king Arthur the ſovereignty of the ſeas was aſcertained, his ſucceſſor to this very day claiming and maintaining the ſame privilege of all nations.

*Principal officers of the navy* are four, viz. the treaſurer, who is to receive money out of the Exchequer, and pay all the charges of the navy, by warrant from the commiſſioners of the admiralty; his ſalary is two thouſand pounds a year: the comptroller, who attends and comptrols all payments of wages, is to know the rates of ſtores, to examine and audit all accounts, &c. his ſalary is five hundred pounds. Surveyor, who is to inſpect the ſtate of ſtores, ſee wants ſupplied, to eſtimate repairs, charge boatſwains, &c. with the ſtores they require, and at the end of each voyage, to ſtate and audit accounts; his ſalary is alſo five hundred pounds. Clerk of the acts, whoſe buſineſs is to record all orders, contracts, bills, warrants, &c. his ſalary is five hundred pounds.

*Commiſſioners of the navy* are five, who have each five hundred pounds a year ſalary. The firſt executes that part of the comptroller's duty which relates to the victuallers accounts; the ſecond, another part of the ſaid comptroller's duty, relating to the accounts of the ſtore-keepers of the yard; the third has the direction of the navy at Portſmouth; the fourth has the ſame at Chatham, and the fifth the ſame at Plymouth.

The victualling of the navy was formerly by contract; but now it is under ſeven commiſſioners, who keep their office on Tower-hill.

The principal officers and commiſſioners hold their places by patent under the great ſeal: and all the under-officers in the ſeveral yards, and on board his majeſty's ſhips, hold their places by warrant from the admiralty.

The expences of a navy in time of peace, and when in harbour, amounts to almoſt one hundred and thirty thouſand pounds *per annum*. Beſides all charges of building ſhips, ſetting forth fleets, &c. which, in the war only with Algiers, amounted to three hundred thouſand pounds, ſuppoſing there were ſix thouſand men employed, at four pounds *per* month each man, including all charges.

The number of ſhips and veſſels in the navy is in a fluctuating ſtate. During the laſt war it was very conſiderable. In 1752, it conſiſted of five firſt-rates, eleven ſecond-rates, thirty-eight third-rates, fifty-eight fourth-rates, forty-one fifth-rates, forty-eight ſixth-rates, thirteen bomb-ketches, forty-two ſloops, eight yachts, twenty-two fire-ſhips, and fourteen ſhips broken up and rebuilding ſince the war that had then terminated, beſides a great number of tenders, tranſports, and armed veſſels, &c. In the year 1710, queen Anne's navy was much ſuperior to this in number: and queen Elizabeth kept up no mean fleet, all the captains, but one private gentleman, being lords and knights. *See* ADMIRALTY.

NAVY-BILLS, counterfeiting them, &c. puniſhed, 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 6. Stealing them felony, 2 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 3.

NEALING, or *annealing*, the preparing of ſeveral matters by heating or baking in an oven, or on the open fire, &c.

*Nealing of glaſs*, the baking of glaſs to harden and give it the proper conſiſtence. This is done in a kind of tower, called the *leer*, built over the melting furnace.

*Nealing of ſteel*, heating it to a blood-red heat, and then letting it cool gently of itſelf, in order to make it the ſofter for engraving or punching upon.

NEAP, *or* NEEP *tides*, thoſe tides which happen when the moon is in the firſt and laſt quarters, being low tides in reſpect of the ſpring tides.

NEAT, NET-WEIGHT, the weight of a commodity clear of the caſk, bag, and even filth. *See* TARE.

NEAT, NET, in commerce, any thing pure and unadulterated.

NECKLACES and bracelets of glaſs imported, what duties to pay. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

NECKCLOTHS. What ſorts of neckcloths are not chargeable by 10 *Ann. c.* 19. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 5. and *c.* 19.

NEEDLE, an inſtrument too well known to require a deſcription.

*Magnetical* NEEDLE, in navigation, a needle touched with a loadſtone, and ſuſtained on a center, upon which, playing at liberty, it is directed to certain points in or under the horizon. Almoſt all the compaſſes uſed on board merchant-ſhips have their needles formed of two pieces of ſteel-wire, each of which is bent in the middle, ſo as to form an obtuſe angle; and their ends, being applied together, make an acute one; ſo that the whole repreſents the form of a lozenge; in the center of which, and of the card, is placed the braſs cap. Now, if you examine a number of theſe cards, you will rarely, if ever, find them all in the ſame direction; but they will all vary, more or leſs, not only with regard to the true direction, but from one another.

Thoſe irregularities are owing to the ſtructure of the needle; for the wires of which it is compoſed, are only hardened at the ends; now, if theſe ends are not equally hard, or, if one end be hardened up higher than the other, when they come to be put together, in fixing them to the card, that end which is hardeſt will deſtroy much of the virtue of the other; by which means the hardeſt end will have the moſt power in directing the card, and, conſequently, make it vary towards its own direction. And, as the wires are diſpoſed in the form of a lozenge, theſe cards can have but little force, ſo that they will often, when drawn aſide, ſtand at the diſtance of ſeveral degrees on either ſide the point from whence they are drawn: for all magnetical bodies receive an additional ſtrength by being placed in the direction of the earth's magnetiſm, and act proportionably leſs vigorouſly, when turned out of it. Wherefore, when theſe kind of needles are drawn aſide from their true point, two of the parallel ſides of the lozenge will conſpire, more directly than before, with the earth's magnetiſm; and the other two will be leſs in that direction; by which means the two firſt ſides will very much impede its return; and the two latter will have that impediment to overcome, as well as the friction, by their own force alone.

The needles uſed on board the men of war, and ſome of the larger trading ſhips, are made of one piece of ſteel, of a ſpring temper, and are broad towards the ends, but tapering towards the middle, where a hole is made to receive the cap. At the ends they terminate in an angle, greater or leſs, according to the ſkill, or fancy, of the workman. Theſe needles, though infinitely preferable to the other, are, however, far from being perfect; for every needle of this form hath ſix poles inſtead of two, one at each end, two where it becomes tapering, and two at the hole in the middle; this is owing to their ſhape, for, the middle part being very ſlender, it has not ſubſtance enough to conduct the magnetic ſtream quite through from one end to the other: all theſe poles appear very diſtinctly, when examined with a glaſs that is ſprinkled over with magnetic ſand. This circumſtance, however, does not hinder the needle from pointing true; but as it has leſs force to move the card than when the magnetic ſtream moves in large curves, from one end to the other, it is certainly an imperfection.

A needle that is quite ſtrait, and ſquare at the ends, has been found to have only two poles, but, about the hole in the middle, the curves are a little confuſed. Theſe,

Longitude W. from London.
Longitude E. from London.
SAHARA
DESART OF ZANHAGA
OR THE DESART OF
BARBARY
BERDOA
NUBIA
Tropic of Cancer
Equinoctial Line
K. of TOMBUT
Tombut
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Karna
Tortoi Lake
Taguva
Tiwa
Zagara
Maraua
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Kaga Nuhan
Secmara
Lamlen
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Gouffi
Galam
Senegal R.
Red R.
Donghol
Gomel
Bapatar
Jagda
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Kakonda
Songo
Bissagos I.
Rio Grande
C. Tumbalo
C. Verga
Sierra Leone
Bolm
Mapa
I. Barulo
GRAIN COAST
C. Mesurado
Sestre
TOOTH COAST
Drum
Jack Jobeau
Sina Berbi
C. Palmas
Frederickſburg
C. Tres Puntas
GOLD COAST
Gr. Mains
Tacoo
Axim
St. George de la Mina
Gr. Taque
Christianſburg
Naſſau
I. Curama
C. Formoſa
Sangane
Panon
Jabou
Jaboubou
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Ouvere
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L. Kuir
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Lake accord. to Park and Allibert
Kingd. of Benin
Kingd. of Loango
Kingd. of Arike
Kingd. of Whidah
Kingd. of Biafara
Kingd. of Macoko
Kingd. of Mujac
Kingd. of Monoemugi
Kingd. of Angola
Kingd. of Matamba
Kingd. of Congo
Kingd. of Benguela
Kingd. of Mataman
Kingd. of Cafraria
Kingd. of Monomotapa
Kingd. of Sofala
Kingd. of Zanguebar
Kingd. of Ajan
Kingd. of Melinda
Kingd. of Mombaza
Kingd. of Quiloa
Kingd. of Monbaza
Kingd. of Mozambique
Kingd. of Sabia
Kingd. of Abyssinia
Kingd. of Gingiro
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after vibrating a long time, will always point exactly in the same direction; and, if drawn never so little on one side, will return to it again, without any sensible difference. We may, therefore, conclude, that a regular parallelopiped is the best form for a needle, as well as the simplest, the holes for the caps being as small as possible.

And as the weight should be removed to the greatest distance from the center of motion, a circle of brass, of the same diameter of the card, may be added, which will serve also to support the card, which may then be made of thin paper, without any thing to stiffen it. This ring being fixed below the card, and the needle above it, the center of gravity is placed low enough to admit of the cap being put under the needle, whereby the hole in the needle becomes unnecessary.

NEEDLE-MAKER. The boy intended to be put apprentice to this business, does not require much strength or learning; but he ought to have good eyes, a pretty light hand, and a good deal of activity and swiftness in his motions. The steel is drawn in wire to the fineness of the needle designed, cut into lengths, the eye struck with an instrument, the point filed down, and the finer sorts polished. They take about five pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn two shillings, or two and six-pence a day; or, with less than fifty pounds, may set up master.

NEEDLE-WORK, importing it prohibited, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. May be exported duty free, 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 3. *s.* 15.

NEGROES, *blacks*, *Moors*, a kind of slaves, brought from Guinea, and other parts of Africa, and sent into the colonies of America to cultivate sugar, tobacco, indigo, &c. and to dig in the mines of Peru, or Mexico.

This commerce is particularly carried on by the English, Dutch, Spaniards, and Portugueze.

The Spaniards were formerly furnished with negroes by the company of the Grilles at Genoa; since by the Assiento in France; and since the peace of Utrecht, by the English South-Sea company.

The best negroes are those from Cape Verd, Angola, Senegal, the kingdoms of Joloffes, Galland, Damel, and the river Gambia, &c.

There are various ways of procuring negroes. Some, to avoid starving, sell themselves, wives, and children, to their great men; others are made prisoners in war, and great numbers seized in excursions, made for that very purpose by the petty princes upon one another's territories.

The negroes frequently surprise one another, dragging and selling them to the European vessels, while at anchor; which practice is used by a son towards his father and mother, and by a father towards his own children, for a few bottles of brandy and a bar of iron.

The only sure means to alleviate the grief of these poor creatures, when on board, and consequently preserve them, is to have some musical instrument play to them. But this excessive love for their country abates, as they get farther off.

At their arrival in the colonies, each negro is sold for thirty-six or forty pounds, and these make the chief riches of the inhabitants of the colonies, &c. *See* AFRICA.

In trover for a hundred negroes, and upon not guilty pleaded, a special verdict found that the negroes were infidels, subjects to an infidel prince, and used to be bought and sold in America as merchandize, by the custom among the merchants; and that the plaintiff had bought them, and was in possession of them, and that the defendant took them out of his possession. It was argued, that no property can be in the person of a man whereupon to maintain trover, and cited *Co. Litt.* 116. that no property can be in villains, unless by compact or conqueft. But the court held, that they being usually bought and sold among merchants as merchandize, and being infidels, a property may be in them sufficient to maintain the action; and gave judgment for the plaintiff *nisi causa* this term. But at the end of the term, upon the prayer of the attorney-general to be further heard, day was given to the next term. 2 *Lev.* 201. *Trin.* 29 *Car.* II. B. R. *Butts* ver. *Penny.*

In trespass the count was, that the defendant *vi & armis unum Æthiopem (Anglice vocat.* a *negro) ipsius querentis pretii* 100 *l. apud London, &c.* took and carried away, and kept the plaintiff out of possession of the said negro from that time *usque diem exhibitionis billæ prædict. per quod* he lost the use of his said negro. Upon not guilty, the jury found that the negro had been baptized after the taking; upon which a question was made, whether the baptism was manumission? As to that, the court gave no opinion; but held, that trespass lies not; because a negroe cannot be demanded as a chattel, nor can his price be recovered in damages in action of trespass, as in case of a chattel; for he is no other than a slavish servant, and the master can maintain no other action of trespass for taking his servant, but such only as concludes *per quod servitium amisit*, in which the master shall recover for the loss of his service, and not for the value, or for any damages done to the servant. Judgment *quod querens nil capiat per billam. Carth.* 396. *Hill.* 8 *Will.* III. B. R. *Chamberlain* v. *Harvey.*

In *indebitatus assumpsit* the plaintiff declared for 20 *l.* for a negro sold by the plaintiff to the defendant, viz. *in parochia Beatæ Mariæ de arcubus in warda de Cheape*, a verdict for the plaintiff. And no motion in arrest of judgment *Holt Ch. J.* held, that as soon as a negro comes into England he becomes free; one may be a villain in England, but not a slave. *Per Powell J.* the law took no notice of a negro. And Holt said, it should have been averred in the declaration, that the sale was in Virginia, and by the laws of that country negroes are saleable; for the laws of England do not extend to Virginia, which being a conquered country, their law is what the king pleases, and we cannot take notice of it but as set forth; and therefore directed, that the plaintiff amend the declaration, which should be made that the defendant was indebted to the plaintiff for a negro sold here at London, but that the said negro at the time of the sale was in Virginia, and that negroes, by the laws and statutes there, are saleable as chattels. And then the attorney-general coming in, said, that they were inheritances transferable by deed, and not without. And nothing was done. 2 *Salk.* 666. *Smith* v. *Brown* and *Cooper.*

Trover lies not for a negro; for men may be owners, and therefore not the subject of property, and the court seemed to think, that in trespass *quare captivum suum cepit*, the plaintiff might give in evidence that the party was his negro, and he bought him. 2 *Salk.* 667. *Mich.* 4 *Ann.* B. R. *Smith* v. *Gould.*

NEIRA. *See* BANDA ISLES.

NET. *See* NEAT.

NET-PRODUCE, in commerce, what any quantity has yielded, the tare, &c. and all charges being deducted.

NET-MAKER. This is a branch of business dependant on the fishermen, for whose use they chiefly make nets; though they also make nets for fowling, and also nets of silk, &c. for horses. It is a business that requires neither much strength nor ingenuity. The masters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, will be able to earn from nine to twelve shillings a week.

NET-SHOP. This business requires only a common education: there are but few of this trade; and these sell all sorts of nets, which are pretty numerous, for the fishery, with those for horses and other uses. They also deal in small cordage, lines, &c. Some of them keep large shops, employ many net-makers, and are considerable traders. They usually take about twenty pounds with an apprentice, pay a journeyman twenty pounds a year and his board; and to set a person up in a proper manner will take from three hundred to five hundred pounds.

NETHERLANDS. *See* AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS, FLANDERS.

NEVEL, a small base coin of a base alloy, current on the coast of Coromandel, eight or nine of which make a fanon, and fifteen fanons a pagode; the nevel is worth from three to six casses.

NEVIS. *See* LEEWARD ISLANDS.

NEUFCHATEL, is a Swiss city, capital of the principality of this name; it is seated on the borders of a lake, which communicates with those of Morat and Bienne, and discharges itself that way, into the Aar and the Rhine, which extremely facilitates its trade, not only with the rest of Switzerland, but also with Germany and Holland, for which places vessels depart twice a year with goods and pas-

fengers; it is a very pleaſant voyage, and is generally performed in fifteen days. All the ſubjects of this ſovereignty are exempt from tolls, impoſts, and other duties, as well for the goods they bring in, as thoſe they export on their own accounts; neither are they obliged to declare the contents of their bales, or caſes, at entering, or going out, when the merchandize belongs to them. Here are three free fairs in the year, at which the merchants pay no cuſtoms on imports, and but a trifle on exports. Their trade is pretty extenſive, and here are magazines, where traders of the neighbouring places may purchaſe the various commodities from India, England, Holland, France, and Germany, at reaſonable prices.

The chief fabricks of the country are printed cottons (in imitation of chints) puſhed to a great degree of perfection, the beauty and vivacity of the colours equalling thoſe of the beſt Aſiatic performances; here are alſo manufactured thread and cotton ſtockings, of which a great conſumption is made in Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, the American iſles, and even in Holland, notwithſtanding the fine fabricks of Harlem, the Dutch merchants having diſtinguiſhed the goodneſs of the thread and work, beſides a conſiderable difference in price. The glovers trade has been long in repute, and the thread is ſpun finer here in Holland, to above the value of forty-five ſhillings ſterling *per* pound difference. The manufacture of lace is ſpread through the whole canton; the common ſort are wrought in great quantities in the mountains, and a prodigious ſale is made of them abroad; in the city, the perfection of this commodity is puſhed to a great degree of equality with thoſe of Flanders for beauty, and to ſurpaſs them a great deal in quality; here are alſo made linens and tapes, and the chamois of Neufchatel is in great eſteem, being ſent to Italy, France, and Germany.

The village of Serrieres, dependant on this city, and which on account of its proximity might be regarded as one of its ſuburbs, is conſiderable for the many wheels which the little river bearing its name turns, without ever having the leaſt interruption from the rougheſt winters, or drieſt ſummers; among which are grinding mills, ſaws, poliſhers, forges, founderies, and battery works, for copper, iron, and paper; here are alſo made variety of hard-ware, but the iron wire and cards of this place, are (above all) in great eſteem.

The medicinal and vulnerary herbs found here in great abundance, its vaſt herds of cattle and plenty of corn and wine, with every other neceſſary of life, proclaim the fertility of the country, in which a reſidence is rendered ſtill more agreeable by the wholeſomeneſs of the laws, which ſecures the property and liberty of the ſubject.

NEWCASTLE UPON TYNE. Keels in the haven to be meaſured and marked. 9 *Hen.* V. *c.* 10. 30 *Car.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 8. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 10.

No goods ſhall be ſhipped in the harbour but at Newcaſtle. 21 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18.

Fiſh, ſalt or proviſions excepted. 21 *H.* VIII. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

The mayor, &c. of Newcaſtle may pull down wears in the river. 21 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18.

Gateſide annexed to Newcaſtle. 7 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 10. repealed 1 *Mar. ſtat.* 3. *c.* 3.

Goldſmiths, ſilverſmiths, and plate-workers incorporated. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 4. *See* COALS.

NEW-ENGLAND. Our readers are referred to *Virginia* for an account of the firſt, or London company's expedition to this place; ſo that we ſhall here proceed to give an account of the ſecond, or Plymouth company's expedition.

Theſe adventurers contented themſelves for ſome years, with the trade of furs with the natives of North Virginia, and fiſhing on that coaſt, in which two ſhips were employed ſo early as the year 1614, commanded by the famous captain John Smith, and captain Thomas Hunt, the former of which landed, and took a particular view of the country of the Maſſachuſets, by which he was drawn into ſeveral ſkirmiſhes with the natives; and afterwards returning to England, he left orders with Hunt, to proceed in his ſhip, with the fiſh taken, to Spain: but this ungenerous man, not content with his finny treaſure, and ſtimulated by an avaricious deſire of gain, took ſuch iniquitous ſteps to procure it, as proved of fatal conſequence to the infant colony; for as ſoon as captain Smith was departed, he enticed twenty-ſeven of the innocent Indians aboard, and carried them with his cargo, to Malaga, where he ſold them at twenty pounds a head. This outrage was reſented by the Indians in ſuch a manner as might juſtly be expected; they broke off all communication with the colony, ſo that an entire ſtop was put to the little they before carried on, and their endeavours for revenge were exerted on ſeveral future occaſions. And repeated diſappointments occurring from theſe diſagreements, the patentees were diſcouraged from proſecuting their intended ſettlements, and gave up all thoughts of making them. However, other adventurers carried on a trade to New-England; and a congregation of independants, who had fled from hence to Holland on account of their religion, under Mr. John Robinſon their miniſter, now meditated another remove, and determined on changing their clime once more, from an European to an American; flattered with the hopes of finding an aſylum in the latter, which was denied them in the former. And they accordingly procured a grant for their ſettlement on Hudſon's river, where, however, they never arrived; but either chance or treachery (as ſome ſuppoſe) having drove them to New-England, in the latitude of forty-two degrees north, they there landed, and built themſelves a town which they called New Plymouth, being about a hundred ſouls in all, men, women, and children, of which a great part died the firſt winter. However, new recruits continually ſucceeding, they began to grow powerful, and became a flouriſhing colony; and this led them to reflect ſeriouſly on the nature of their preſent ſettlement, which they knew to be precarious, as they were not only without a patent or grant to ſecure them in the poſſeſſion they now enjoyed, but held them contrary to the rights of the North Virginian (or New-England) company. In order therefore to eſtabliſh themſelves on a better footing, they commiſſioned one of their number, in the year 1624, to ſollicit a charter for them, which he ſucceſsfully performed, and obtained one more favourable than their moſt ſanguine expectations could make them hope for; they being thereby enabled to elect a governor, council, and magiſtrates, and to make laws provided they were no ways oppoſite to ours, or in any reſpect encroached on the crown's prerogative: thus the firſt ſettlement in this large and fertile country was confirmed; and this animated others to take the ſame ſteps; of which we ſhall give ſome account in as brief a manner as poſſible.

In 1625, Mr. White of Dorcheſter, another miniſter of the ſame perſuaſion with the before mentioned, being animated by his ſucceſs, determined to follow his ſteps, in hopes of the ſame good fortune; and accordingly procured a grant from the North Virginia company, to divers therein mentioned; of all that part of New-England, which lies between the great river Merimack and Charles river, &c. and obtained a patent from king Charles I. to hold the ſame; which was enlarged by a new one in 1628, with ſtill greater privileges than in thoſe ceded to the New-Plymouth colony, and by whom Charles-Town, Dorcheſter, and Boſton (the capital) were ſucceſſively built; and from theſe a colony was detached, to ſettle on Connecticut river; which afterwards obtained a grant for themſelves, with privileges ſimilar to thoſe already ſpoke of. After theſe, New-Haven was built, and the country ſettled; and whilſt this was tranſacting in the ſouth-weſt parts of New-England, thoſe in the north-eaſt were not neglected; for theſe coaſts having for ſome time been frequented, for the advantage of fiſhing and the fur trade, encouraged thoſe concerned therein to attempt an eſtabliſhment, which they ſucceeded in ſo much to their ſatisfaction, as in a few years to ſettle the two counties of New Hampſhire and Main, for which they obtained a charter; but as feuds and diviſions prevailed among them, they again reſigned it (in 1684) to the crown, where the property has ſince remained.

And if any one reflects on the ſwift progreſs made in theſe ſettlements, that in about twenty years they had built twice as many towns, cultivated a large tract of land, and ſettled a tolerable good trade, he muſt allow them to have been uncommonly induſtrious, more eſpecially if he conſiders the many difficulties they had all along to ſtruggle with.

New-England at preſent comprehends four very conſiderable governments, viz. Maſſachuſets, (which with New-Plymouth and the Main are now included in one charter) New Hampſhire, ſtill remaining ſeparate; Connecticut (comprehending alſo New-Haven) and Rhode iſland, with Providence plantation. The whole country extending from forty-one to forty-five degrees of north latitude, and from

from ſixty ſeven to ſeventy-three degrees of weſtern longitude, abounding with plenty of fiſh, fowl, fruit, grain, and herbage; it is likewiſe replete with many fine rivers, and its inhabitants are very numerous.

Its commerce is very conſiderable, being ſpread all over America, and to ſeveral parts in Europe; our ſugar colonies are from hence ſupplied with fiſh, cattle, corn, apples, butter, cheeſe, oil, tallow, boards, hoops, pipe-ſtaves, ſkins, bark, turpentine, &c. and theſe in ſuch vaſt abundance, that the iſland of Barbadoes only is computed to take off the value of two hundred thouſand pounds yearly; they alſo deal with the other ſugar colonies; ſometimes with the French, more with the Spaniards; and their exportation of fiſh, for Portugal, Spain, and Italy, is greater than from any port except Newfoundland. From hence they take all kinds of mercery goods, linens, ſtockings, ſhoes, ſail-cloth, cordage, haberdaſhery ware, and a vaſt many other things: in return, they build for us a prodigious number of ſhips, and ſupply us with pitch, tar, turpentine, ſkins, furs, oil, whalefins, logwood, and other commodities; beſides a great quantity of maſts, yards, and planks, for the royal navy; and as we cannot pretend to make a calculation ourſelves of the advantages accruing to us from this trade, we ſhall adopt Sir Joſiah Child's words on this ſubject, to convey to our readers an idea of the greatneſs of them. "To do right (ſays he) to that induſtrious Engliſh colony (ſpeaking of New-England) I muſt confeſs, that though we loſe by their unlimited trade with other foreign plantations, yet we are very great gainers by their direct trade, to and from Old England. Our yearly exportations of Engliſh manufactures, malt and other goods from hence thither, amounting, in my opinion, to ten times the value of what is imported from thence, which calculation I do not make at random, but upon mature conſideration; and peradventure upon as much experience of this very trade, as any other perſon will pretend to do, &c.". And we ſhall only add, that beſides the advantages which at preſent accrue to us from this flouriſhing colony, many others may be reaped, whenever the legiſlature ſhall think proper to encourage them; as from thence all naval ſtores may be ſupplied, and a ſufficiency of iron to anſwer every demand and purpoſe; ſo that we may ſhake off our dependance on the northern powers for theſe commodities whenever we will, as we can have them of our own, without a balance of ſeveral hundred thouſands a year in our diſfavour.

NEWFOUNDLAND. Our right to this iſland has been inconteſtably proved by ſeveral good authors, ſo that any advances towards it would be ſuperfluous here. It lies between forty-ſeven and fifty-two degrees of north latitude, and is ſo far from being that cold and inhoſpitable country as many have repreſented it, that St. John's and ſome other places, have been conſtantly inhabited for many years paſt; it is very warm in the ſummer; and though the ſnows lie long in the winter, moſt ſorts of European fruits grow wild here: however, were there fewer in number, and the ſoil much worſe than it is, the advantages of our poſſeſſing it would ſtill ſubſiſt, as theſe do not reſult from what grows here, but from the fiſhery upon its coaſts and banks, and the natural conſequences of it.

Mr. Packhurſt has given us an account of its ſtate in 1578, when he ſays, there were about fifty ſail of Engliſh, one hundred ſail of Spaniſh, beſides twenty or thirty ſail of Biſcayneers, fifty of Portugueſe, and a hundred and fifty French ſhips, employed upon that coaſt; ſo that the fiſhery muſt have begun long before, to be at ſuch a height ſo early, and the importance of it was quickly diſcovered by queen Elizabeth's wiſe miniſtry, and by them ſo encouraged, that towards the cloſe of her reign, upwards of two hundred ſail of fiſhing veſſels were employed, and thoſe navigated by more than eight thouſand ſeamen.

The fiſhery has much encreaſed ſince the ſole poſſeſſion of it was confirmed to the crown of Great-Britain; and though it is impoſſible to aſcertain the quantity caught there, we are perſuaded from what we have known carried abroad, that it muſt be at leaſt between three and four hundred thouſand quintals, which is ſo much treaſure got from the bottom of the ſea, beſides the requiſites for carrying it on, ſent from hence thither, ſuch as biſcuit, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, linen, and woollen cloths, nets, hooks, and lines: it alſo breeds a great number of ſailors, and employs a great number of ſhips, which occaſions a very conſiderable circulation, in the trades dependant on them, ſuch as ſhipwrights, boat-builders, with other mechanics and manufacturers; ſo that this buſineſs may juſtly be compared with the mines of Peru for riches, but to exceed them by far in the other conſequent advantages, of encreaſing power, and comfortably providing for the many thouſands engaged in the different branches of it.

*Newfoundland Trade* free to all Britiſh ſubjects. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 1.

Maſters of ſhips bound thither, to carry at leaſt one freſh man in five; of by-boats, to carry at leaſt two freſh men in ſix; that is, one that has made no more than one voyage, and one that has never been at ſea before; and are to make oath accordingly before the collector of the port, who is to give them a certificate thereof. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſect.* 9, 10.

NEW-HAVEN, by 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 1, 2, 3, 4, 6. That the haven and pier of Newhaven in Suſſex may be rebuilt, John Alfred Eſq; and others, are conſtituted commiſſioners; and it ſhall be lawful for them to lay out the ſaid harbour and pier.

There ſhall be paid the ſums of money following, viz. for every chaldron of coals, grindſtones, and other goods, paying duty by the chaldron, exported or imported, in the ſaid haven, one ſhilling; for every ton of coals, paying duty by the ton, ſalt, plaiſter of Paris, tarris, tobacco-pipe clay, ſtone, and marble blocks, lead, iron, or other goods, paying duty or freight by the ton, one ſhilling; for every load of timber, wainſcot boards, trenels, and all other converted timber, one ſhilling; for every load of tan or bark, two ſhillings; for every hundred of ſingle deals, ſpars, ufirs, pipe, hogſhead, and barrel ſtaves, one ſhilling; for every hundred of double deals, two ſhillings; and of three inch deals, three ſhillings; for every quarter of wheat, peas, tares, beans, and all heavy ſeeds, three-pence; for every quarter of barley, malt, oats, ſaint-ſoin, and light grains, two-pence; for every hogſhead of wine, and other liquids, ſix-pence; for every hogſhead of ſugar, tobacco, and dry goods, nine-pence; and for every tierce thereof, ſix-pence; for every barrel of pitch, tar, groceries, and all other goods in barrels, four-pence; for every bundle, bale, and cheſt of hemp, linens, woollens, glaſs, fruits, earthenware, not exceeding three hundred weight, three-pence; for every hundred weight of allum, cheeſe, tallow, colours, ſhot, nails, chains, and wrought iron, braziers and pewterers wares, and all other goods paying duty or freight per hundred weight, one-penny; for every groſs of bottles, three-pence; for every hundred feet of paving ſtones, or paving marble, two ſhillings; for every thouſand of tiles, bricks, and clinkers, one ſhilling; for every ſhip (fiſhing veſſels excepted) that comes to load or unload, two-pence per ton, according to their light bills; for every veſſel that comes in, and neither loads nor unloads, two ſhillings each, from twelve to fifty tons, and, if above fifty tons, four ſhillings; for all goods not enumerated, one-twelfth part of the uſual freight from London to Newhaven.

Which duties ſhall be paid by the perſon who ſhips or receives goods, the maſter to pay the tonnage of the ſhip; and no officer of Cuſtoms of the port of Lewes ſhall take entries, or make cockets, for diſcharging goods, or for clearing any ſhips, until the duties be paid, or ſecurities be given; or ſhall permit any ſhip to go out of the haven, until the maſter produces a receipt for the duties aforeſaid.

The collectors may go aboard and diſtrain for non-payment, and in caſe of neglect for ten days, may ſell the ſhip and furniture.

When the juſtices, at their quarter-ſeſſions for Suſſex, ſhall certify, that the commiſſioners are reimburſed, one half of the duties ſhall ceaſe, and the other half ſhall be continued for keeping the haven, pier, and ſluices in repair.

NEWS-PAPERS. *See* STAMPS.

NEWS-HAWKERS. The news-hawkers are thoſe who carry the news-papers from houſe to houſe. Mean as this trade may ſeem, there are many who gain a very good living by it. Some, by mere dint of induſtry, get themſelves cuſtomers; but the moſt common way is to buy a walk of thoſe who have more buſineſs than they can do, or are grown old and infirm, or of the ſurvivors of thoſe who are dead: for this walk they give in proportion to its extent and the profits gained by what is ſold; ſometimes the ſum of ſixty guineas. They take apprentices, and employ

poor

poor lads to carry their papers; who, in time, become hawkers themſelves.

NEW-STILE, &c. *See* BILLS *of Exchange*, BISSEXTILE, CALENDAR.

NEW-YORK. This was a part of Virginia, and became ours under the double right of diſcovery and conqueſt; the firſt by Cabot, and the latter from the Dutch, who had ſettled here, and held it by an illegal title, and therefore the Engliſh have retained it ever ſince its recovery at the beginning of the Dutch war. It is about two hundred miles in length, though generally very narrow, well repleniſhed with proviſions and farms, which occaſions its having few large towns; the capital (New-York city) however, is very conſiderable for this part of the world, as it contains upwards of a thouſand well-built houſes of ſtone and brick, beſides commodious quays and warehouſes on its excellent harbour, where ſome hundreds of ſhips and veſſels are employed in the foreign trade and fiſheries from hence carried on to Madeira and the Azores, where they ſend pipe-ſtaves and fiſh, returning with wine and brandy to their very great advantage: and to all our ſugar-iſlands, more eſpecially Barbadoes, they ſend corn, flour, bread, beef, pickled and ſmoked pork, peas, bacon, apples, onions, board, and pipe-ſtaves; for which they bring back ſugar, molaſſes, rum, ginger, &c. And the agents for this province, in their conteſt with the ſugar plantations, affirmed that their winters, being ſevere, obliged them to take off more of the woollen manufactures of this kingdom (for which they remitted gold and ſilver more than all the iſlands (Jamaica excepted) put together, and which we believe has remained uncontradicted.

At our becoming maſters of this country, it was found to be very thinly peopled; but the clime and ſoil have proved ſuch powerful inducements to adventurers, that their number is ſuppoſed now ſwelled to fifty thouſand, with an appearance of its daily increaſe, from the induſtry and good œconomy of the preſent inhabitants.

Salt how imported from Europe thither. 3 *Geo.* III. *cap.* 12.

NICARGUA. *See* LA TRINIDAD.

NICOBAR ISLANDS, are ſituate in the Indian ocean in Aſia, north of the iſland of Sumatra, at the entrance of the Bay of Bengal; three hundred miles weſt of the further peninſula of India, between ninety-two and ninety-four degrees of eaſt longitude, and between ſeven and ten degrees of north latitude: the largeſt of theſe iſlands, which gives name to the reſt, and lies furtheſt ſouth, is forty miles long and fifteen broad. This country is almoſt covered with wood, and produces no corn; but they have a fruit which they boil, and ſerves them inſtead of bread; they have alſo cacao-nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruits, on which they live with the fiſh they take; but ſeem to ſlight fleſh, though they have hogs and poultry enough, with which they ſupply the ſhips which touch here; and yet theſe people, as well as their neighbours of the Andeman iſlands, were reported to be cannibals, when the Europeans firſt viſited them. The natives, in return for the proviſions they furniſh the ſhips with, take iron, tobacco, and linen, and do not ſeem to have any commerce with the nations of the adjacent continent.

NIL. *See* COURON.

NINZIN, in natural hiſtory, a root greatly eſteemed in the Eaſt, and lately introduced into Europe. We have already obſerved, under GINSENG, that *ninzen* and *ginſeng* are too generally uſed as ſynonymous names, and the roots expreſſed by them are ſuppoſed to be the ſame; they are in reality the names of two very different roots, and belong to two plants of very different *genera*. It is the intereſt of the druggiſts that ninzin and ginſeng ſhould be ſuppoſed the ſame root, becauſe the ninzin comes much cheaper to them: but it is by no means the intereſt of the perſon who pays the price of ginſeng, and expects to be benefited by its virtues, to have a root of inferior value ſold in its place.

*Ninzin* is an oblong root, larger and thicker than ginſeng, and of a more lax and ſpungy ſtructure; it is uſually met with about four or five inches long, and half an inch in diameter, ſometimes conſiderably more. It is of the ſhape of a ſmall parſnip, largeſt at the top, and gradually growing ſmaller to the bottom; it generally runs down all the way ſingle, but ſometimes is divided into two or more branches towards the bottom. Much of the ninzin we meet with is of this divided kind; for the Chineſe know we look upon the diviſion of the foot, as one of the characters of ginſeng, and therefore ſend us over few, but the divided roots of this plant, which they would have us think the ſame with the other. The ninzin has a tolerably ſmooth ſurface, but always is marked with a number of ſlight annular furrows, which run either in part, or perfectly round it, at certain ſmall diſtances, and it has generally a number of fibres growing to its bottom. It is much lighter than the ginſeng in proportion to its ſize, and is ſoft and eaſily cut through with a knife, and does not look gloſſy, when freſh cut; but, if cloſely examined, is found to be full of pores, and more ſpungy in the middle than elſewhere. It is of a pale brown, often a whitiſh colour on the ſurface, and has ſomething of a yellowiſh tinge within. It has a ſomewhat aromatic and ſweet ſmell, and in taſte is acrid and aromatic; but has much leſs of the bitter in it than the ginſeng. Ninzin ſhould be choſen ſound, firm, and ſomewhat tough, not brittle or duſty, and of an agreeable ſmell. There is no danger of its being adulterated; but great care is to be taken in the buying of ginzeng, that this root is not uſed to adulterate that.

The ninzin has been known no longer in Europe than the ginſeng; and, indeed, we can hardly ſay it is yet known as a diſtinct root from it. Monſieur de Juſſieu is the firſt perſon who has given the deſcriptions and accounts of the authors who place it together; and he is by many thought, even at this time, to be in an error about it; but the people who ſuppoſe that, neither know the author nor the ſubject. The true ninzin, for medicinal uſe, is collected on the mountains of Corea. They have taken great pains to cultivate it in their gardens in Japan; but this root is found to want, after this treatment, the virtues which it poſſeſſes in its natural ſtate.

The plant which produces the ninzin is of the number of the *pentandria digynia* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ umbelliferæ* of Mr. Ray. It is called by the Chineſe and Japoneſe, *sju*, *sjin*, and *nisji*, *nindſin*, *dſindſam*, and plainly *ſom*; the Tartars call it *ſouſai*. Not one of theſe names is ever given by the Orientals to the true ginſeng, which is only called by that name, and by that of *pe tſi*. The ninzin is deſcribed by Kempfer in his *Amœnitates Exoticæ*, under the name of *ſiſarum montanum coreænſe radice non tuberoſa*, and, by Linnæus, is made a ſpecies of *ſium*. According to all theſe authors, it differs greatly from the ginſeng plant, which is bacciferous; whereas, this bears two dry ſeeds after each flower, which are joined together in the manner of thoſe of the ordinary umbelliferous plants. The plant grows to two or three feet high, the ſtalk is as thick as a man's finger, full of large knots, and pretty deeply ſtriated. The firſt leaves are ſimple, the ſucceeding ones pinnated, and like thoſe of the *ſium*; the flowers are ſmall and white, and ſtand in umbels; and the ſeeds which ſucceed to them are like thoſe of the common aniſe. The plant propagates itſelf very plentifully; for, beſides that there are continually new lateral roots produced on every ſide the old one, and that the ſeeds are very numerous, there are a ſort of germs in the alæ of the leaves, like thoſe of our dentaria and other plants, which, when they fall to the earth, take root and become ſo many new plants.

The roots are gathered for uſe in the beginning of winter; when they are taken out of the earth, they are thrown into fair water, and left to ſteep in it for three days: they are afterwards hung up in the upper part of a large veſſel, in the lower part of which there is a large quantity of rice or millet ſeed and water; the veſſel is covered, and the liquor being made to boil, the roots receive the fumes of it, and, when they are dried afterwards, they become hard and ſomewhat pellucid; they acquire alſo a browniſh or ſerrugineous colour in this proceſs.

The Chineſe and Japaneſe are extremely fond of this root; they eſteem it inferior indeed to the ginſeng, but more than equal to any other drug. They give it as a reſtorative cordial, and provocative, and eſteem it the beſt of all medicines in fevers; and attribute to it all the virtues of the ginſeng. *See* GINSENG.

NITRE is a white cryſtalline ſalt, of an acrid, bitter taſte, with a certain ſenſation of cold. A kind of nitre appears

appears ſometimes in ſpontaneous efflorescences on old walls, and may be artificially obtained from vegetable and animal matters, by rotting them together, and expoſing them for a long time to the action of the air. Saltpetre is extracted from three ſorts of earth, black, yellow, and white, in the Mogul's dominions, and many other places of the Eaſt-Indies; whence all the nitre we have is brought.

Nitre, expoſed to a gentle fire, in clean veſſels, eaſily melts, parts with a good deal of phlegm, but undergoes no other alteration: expoſed to a great heat, it uſually flies away in fume, or exudes through the veſſel; if any little part remains, it is found changed into a ſharp alcali: if a coal, or any other inflammable matter, be thrown upon nitre whilſt in fuſion, a detonation enſues with a bright flame, and conſiderable noiſe; after the detonation is over, a large quantity of alcaline ſalt is found remaining.

Cold water diſſolves pure nitre ſlowly; but by agitation may be made to take up one ſixth of its weight: a ſaturated ſolution of this ſalt ſet to cryſtallize, ſhoots into colourleſs tranſparent cryſtals, in appearance not unlike natural ſprig-cryſtal; their figure is that of an hexagonal priſm, terminated by a pyramid of an equal number of ſides.

The vitriolic acid, or ſubſtances containing it, as certain bolar earths, being mixed along with nitre, and both expoſed to the fire, a red vapour ariſes, which being catched in proper veſſels, proves a ponderous, yellow, acid liquor, which diſſolves all the metals, and ſundry other metallic and earthy ſubſtances, gold excepted. Pure nitre, before it has felt the fire, changes not the colour of ſyrup of violets; nor does it curdle milk; it turns ſolution of ſublimate milky, and renders infuſions of galls turbid, and of a whitiſh or aſh-colour.

Dr. Stahl has written an expreſs treatiſe upon the medicinal virtues of nitre, in which he informs us, from his own experience, that this ſalt gently thickens the animal juices, and allays all febrile heats and ebullitions of the blood; that added to gargariſms employed in inflammations of the fauces in acute fevers, it thickens the ſalival moiſture upon the palate and fauces into the conſiſtence of a mucus, which keeps them moiſt for a conſiderable time; whereas, if nitre is not added, a ſudden dryneſs of the mouth immediately enſues: that in ſpitting of blood, nitre given from half a drachm to a drachm, at proper intervals of time, never failed to put a ſtop to the hæmorrhage; and in other hæmorrhages likewiſe, it was always found to have the beſt effects, provided it was ſkilfully doſed: that in nephritic complaints, the prudent uſe of nitre is of more ſervice than any of the numerous medicines uſually recommended in this diſeaſe.

This celebrated author likewiſe affirms, from a large number of experiments, that nitre gives great relief in ſuppreſſion and heat of urine, whether ſimple or occaſioned by a venereal taint: that it is of great ſervice in acute and inflammatory pains of the head, eyes, ears, teeth, &c. in all eryſipelatous affections, whether particular or univerſal, and likewiſe in chronic deliriums: that in diarrhæas happening in petechial fevers, nitre mixed with abſorbents and fixed diaphoretics, had the beſt effects, always putting a ſtop to the flux, or elſe rendering the evacuation ſalutary; that in diarrhæa happening in the ſmall-pox, it had been employed with the like ſucceſs, two doſes, or three at moſt (conſiſting of two, three, or four grains each, according to the age, &c. of the patient) given at the interval of two or three hours, putting a ſtop to the flux, after the bezoardic powders, both with and without opium, had been given without ſucceſs. The ſame author recommends this ſalt likewiſe as a medicine of ſingular ſervice in choleras attended with great anxieties and heat of the blood; in the flatulent, ſpaſmodic heart-burns, familiar to hypochondriacal perſons; and the loſs of appetite, nauſea, heart-burn, vomiting, &c. which gouty perſons are ſometimes ſeized with, upon the pains of the feet, &c. ſuddenly remitting. In ſhort, this great phyſician looks upon nitre as an almoſt univerſal medicine; and aſſures us, that no bad conſequences are to be feared from the internal uſe of it: nevertheleſs, he obſerves that in a phthiſis and ulcerous affections, it has been found to be of no ſervice; and that therefore its uſe may be ſuperſeded in theſe complaints.

Nitre has been ſuppoſed by many, and thoſe very eminent authors, to be in part at leaſt, if not wholly, a ſalt of animal, not of foſſil origin, as they ſuppoſe that, where it is found in the earth, it owes its origin to the excrements of animals, and, where on old walls, to the effluvia of animal bodies once inhabiting them: but not to urge the improbability of an animal ſalt being lodged in ſtone-walls for many ages after animals were among them, and affording a ſupply of efflorescences continually in the place of thoſe which are ſwept off, we may obſerve that our ranging it among the foſſils is ſufficiently ſupported by our receiving the far greater quantities of it among us from the Oriental nations, where it is found embodied in earth, as metals in their ores, and from whence it is ſeparated by water as thoſe other bodies are from the ores by fire.

The earth, from which nitre is made, both in Perſia and the Eaſt-Indies, is a kind of yellowiſh marl: it is found in the bare cliffs of the ſides of hills expoſed to the northern and eaſtern winds, and never in any other ſituation. The earth is light, crumbly, and friable; and though it be ſubject to accidental variations of colour from admixtures of other earths among it, and, on this occaſion, appears ſometimes blackiſh, reddiſh, or whitiſh, yet its other qualities always diſtinguiſh it with ſufficient eaſe: it melts very freely in the mouth, and leaves a ſtrong taſte of ſaltpetre in it.

They collect large quantities of this earth, and, having prepared ſeveral pits, which they line with a firm and tough clay, they fill them half full of water, and throw into it large quantities of this earth: this ſoon moulders away to powder, they then add more water, and ſtir the whole thoroughly together; after which they let it ſtand four or five days: at the end of this time they open a hole in one of the ſides of the pit, and by means of a channel, cut to a proper depth and lined with the ſame clay, they let all the clear water run out of the firſt pit into another, which is prepared in a level ground, and is incloſed on all ſides, except the north-eaſt, by walls, but has no covering at the top. In this pit the action of the ſun and air by degrees evaporates the water; and the ſalt, which it hath before waſhed out of the earth, now ſhoots into cryſtals about the ſides of the pit. Theſe cryſtals are ſmall and imperfect as well as impure. They are of the ſame hexaedral figure with the purer cryſtals of this ſalt; but they are uſually without the pyramids at the ends, and often too ſhort for their thickneſs. They are of a browniſh or duſky colour, and are in this ſtate ſent over to us. This is the rough nitre which we receive from the Eaſt-Indies.

As the far greater part of the nitre, uſed in the world, is prepared in this manner, we are to ſuppoſe this kind of earth, which is found alſo in other countries, to be the true ore of nitre, though there are ſeveral other very different ways of procuring it beſide.

In many places, the ruins of old buildings, where the walls are expoſed to the north-eaſt, and are defended from rain by being covered at top, ſhoot forth an efflorescence of nitrous ſalt, cold and acrid to the taſte, and in all reſpects reſembling the common ſaltpetre. This efflorescence is found much more abundantly in the Eaſtern nations than any where elſe, and the uſe the people there make of it is this; they do not work it from nitre alone, but when their ſolution, made from the nitrous earth before deſcribed, will yield no more cryſtals, they then throw into the pit a quantity of theſe efflorescences, and it immediately after yields a large quantity of cryſtals like the firſt. That this ſalt ſhould be found on the ſurface of walls, is not wonderful, ſince it is found on or only near the ſurface of the earth where it is produced; they only cut away the marl for about a foot deep, to throw into the nitre-pits what remains underneath; this contains no nitre till it has been expoſed to the air a ſufficient time, and the ſame earth, where it is diſcovered at any thing more than a foot depth in digging, never being found to contain a grain of it.

Earths of whatſoever kind, moiſtened and penetrated by the dung and excrements of animals, frequently alſo afford nitre in large quantities. The earths at the bottom of pigeon-houſes, and thoſe of ſtable and cow-houſes, all afford nitre, on being thrown into water and boiled. In France, where very little nitre is imported, they make all that is uſed in their gunpowder-works, &c. from the rubbiſh or old mortar of buildings, and the plaiſter with which their houſes abound. In fact, the mortar of old walls

with us, if moiſtened with urine, and expoſed to the air in a proper ſituation, that is, open to the north-eaſt, and covered over to defend it from wet, never fails to afford nitre after a few weeks, and that often in no leſs a proportion than that of one-tenth of the weight of the ingredients: finally, Hoffman affirms that it may at any time be extracted from the air, by expoſing an alcaline ſalt to it in a proper ſituation, covered over-head from rains and dews.

There is no queſtion but a manufactory of nitre might be eſtabliſhed in England, to as much advantage as that of France; though in the hands in which ſuch attempts have hitherto been, they have not ſucceeded. The place where the materials are expoſed, is a thing to be carefully examined: it muſt be moderate, as to the great points of moiſture and dryneſs; if there be too much moiſture, the nitre which is already formed will be waſhed away; and, on the other hand, without ſome moiſture, the ſalts will hardly be formed at all. Heat and cold, unleſs exceſſive, are of no uſe.

It is, in conſequence of the requiſiteneſs of ſo certain a degree of moiſture to the materials from which nitre is to be obtained, that the north-eaſt winds are of ſo much uſe in the production of it: in ſpring and autumn, which are the ſeaſons when this ſalt is principally made, theſe two winds are neither too moiſt nor too dry, eſpecially in the night; the ſouth and weſterly winds are deſtructive, becauſe of the ſtorms and ſhowers they almoſt continually bring with them.

The earths, from which nitre is procured in greateſt abundance, are found principally in Perſia, in China, and the Eaſt-Indies, and in Muſcovy; not that other parts of the world are without them, but in many they are diſregarded. This earth affords along with the nitre but a ſmall quantity of ſea-ſalt, though there is always ſome of this with the other. The rubbiſh and earths we boil for it in Europe always afford a very large quantity of it; but they find ways of ſeparating a great deal of it, before they begin to ſhoot the nitre. When the lixivium of the nitrous earth has been boiled to a certain degree, they run it into proper veſſels, in which the ſea-ſalt ſhoots into cubic grains at the bottom, before the nitre begins to form its cryſtals; they then drain off the liquor thus freed from a great part of this extraneous ſalt into other veſſels, in which it is left to ſhoot for the nitre in a cold place. When they have ſeparated all the cryſtals that are there found, they evaporate the liquor farther, and thence obtain more: at length they find a large quantity of an extremely acrid and bitter liquor, fat and oily to the touch, which will afford no more cryſtals; and this they call the mother water of ſaltpetre, becauſe by ſprinkling it on other earths, they find it diſpoſes them for the production of more nitre.

The cryſtals of nitre thus produced, are far from the neceſſary purity: they require to be diſſolved and re-cryſtallized two or three times to bring them to the requiſite perfection; after which, the French often melt them over the fire as they do our Engliſh allum, and, when a good part of the water is evaporated, they caſt the whole into caſks. This is what the French authors call rock or roach nitre.

The preparations of it in uſe in the preſent practice are theſe: 1. *magneſia alba*, which *ſee*; 2. *nitrum vitriolatum*; 3. *ſpiritus nitri*, ſpirit of nitre; 4. *ſpiritus nitri dulcis*, the ſweet ſpirit of nitre; 5. *aqua fortis*.

*Spirit of* NITRE, *ſpiritus nitri*, in chemiſtry, is made in the following manner: Dry eighteen ounces of purified nitre, and reduce it to an impalpable powder: put it into a clean retort, and pour upon it ſix ounces of pure and highly rectified oil of vitriol; place the retort immediately in a ſand-furnace, and apply a large receiver, luting the juncture with ſome Windſor loam; let the fire at firſt be very gentle, the receiver will nevertheleſs be full of white fumes, and a red liquor will come over in drops; increaſe the fire gradually till it riſes to the utmoſt heat a ſand furnace is capable of; then, when no more comes over, let all cool: have a bottle with a glaſs funnel ready in the mouth of it, and placed under a chimney; pour the liquor out of the receiver into it, avoiding the dangerous fumes, and ſtop it cloſe up for uſe. The receiver is to be ſtopped alſo, and reſerved for the ſame uſe another time. It will remain filled for many weeks with a red vapour, continually fluctuating and in motion. The ſpirit in the bottle will appear of a gold colour, and a red vapour will fill the ſpace over it. This liquor is the true and genuine ſpirit of nitre alone; it contains nothing of the oil of vitriol that was uſed in the making of it, and the remainder of the nitre, which did not come over in fumes, remains mixed with the acid in form of a denſe, white, and natural ſalt, ſomewhat reſembling the *tartarum vitriolatum*, and affording the *nitrum vitriolatum* hereafter to be mentioned. There is no method of ſeparating a ſtronger or purer ſort of nitre than this. Glauber was the inventor of this method, and he deſerves for it the honour of being acknowledged the inventor of one of the nobleſt diſcoveries that chemiſtry ever produced.

This ſpirit is one of the ſtrongeſt menſtruums in chemiſtry. It diſſolves ſilver, and moſt of the other metals, and ſemi-metals, and even ſtones of all kinds, except thoſe which have cryſtals for their baſes; as is the caſe in our pebbles, and in the agates and onyxes of other countries: theſe are ſafe from the effects of all menſtrua, till the great deſideratum, a ſolvent for cryſtals, ſhall be found. Spirit of nitre does not touch gold: it gives a power of diſſolving ſilver to many other acids which before wanted it, as the ſpirit or oil of vitriol and of ſulphur; but it requires of mixture of ſea-ſalt to give it this power upon gold; with that mixture it becomes an *aqua regia*. This ſpirit is too corroſive to be given internally in its own form; but it furniſhes us with a very valuable medicine, under the name of dulcified ſpirit of nitre.

*Sweet ſpirit of* NITRE, *ſpiritus nitri dulcis*. Put into a large glaſs cucurbit a quart of highly rectified ſpirit of wine, and add to it, by a very little at a time, half a pound of the ſtrong ſpirit of nitre before deſcribed; when the whole quantity of the ſpirit of nitre is in, fit on a head, and, placing a cucurbit in ſand, diſtil over the liquor ſo long, as what runs from the noſe of the head will not ferment with an alcali.

The caution required in mixing theſe two liquors is very great. There is ſcarce any mixture capable of ſuch ill conſequences; it emits a ſuffocating vapour, and will often burſt the veſſels by the heat and ebullition it raiſes, if done too haſtily. There immediately ariſes a fragrant ſmell on mixing the liquors, and the vapour that is raiſed from them is almoſt fiery. It is a very noble diuretic and carminative; it is given in the ſtone and gravel with great ſucceſs, and alſo in jaundices and dropſies. It is of great ſervice in reſtoring the appetite, when depraved by a mucous flegm. It alſo allays thirſt. The doſe is from fifteen to thirty drops in wine and water. Prudently uſed, it is excellent for cleaning the teeth; but, if made too free with, it deſtroys them.

*Vitriolated* NITRE, *nitrum vitriolatum*. Diſſolve the maſs left in the retort after the diſtillation of ſpirit of nitre, in the manner above deſcribed, in about eight times its weight of water. Filtrate the ſolution, and, when perfectly clear, evaporate the liquor to ſuch a ſtandard, that the ſalt will no longer be ſuſtained in it; then ſet it in a cool place, and, as the ſalt ſhoots, collect it, and, laying it in an earthen cullendar to drain, when well dried, reſerve it for uſe. It is of much the ſame virtues with the *tartarum vitriolatum*, and is frequently ſold under its name.

NIVERNOIS, *or* NEVERS, a province in France, bounded on the eaſt by Burgundy, on the ſouth by Bourbonnois, on the weſt by Berry, on the north by Gatinois. It is pretty fertile in wine, corn, and fruit; there are alſo many woods, and mines of iron. It is watered by ſeveral rivers, three of which are navigable, namely, the Loire, the Allier, and the Yonne. Its extent is about ſeventeen leagues from north to ſouth, and about twelve from eaſt to weſt. The only place where there is any conſiderable trade, is at

Nevers, the capital city, ſituate on the river Loire, near its confluence with the Allier and the rivulet of Nierre. This city is famous on account of the great quantities of glaſs, white iron, and fine earthen-ware manufactured here.

NOBLE was an ancient kind of Engliſh money now not in uſe: but at this day we value a noble at ſix ſhillings and eight-pence, but have no peculiar coin of that name.

NORFOLK has a juſtly celebrated fabric of all ſorts of ſtuffs at Norwich, of which there is yearly ſold to the value of one hundred thouſand pounds, beſides what the manufacture of ſtockings here and in other parts of the country may import. Its products are cattle, corn, wool, and herrings, which latter abound like the pilchards in the Weſt, and are taken in equal quantities; ſo that commonly as many barrels of theſe are ſhipped in a year as there are hogſheads of the others; theſe employ a great number of hands in their cure, ſo that in catching, falting, ſmoking, &c. the greateſt part of the inhabitants of Yarmouth are engaged, and the ſhips belonging to the place find good freights in carrying them abroad. This is a great dairy county in the butter way, making yearly about forty thouſand firkins, which is ſent weekly to Downham upon the river Cam, and ſo by water to Cambridge, from whence it is carried by land to London.

NORMANDY. To treat of this large and rich province, with due regularity, we ſhall do it according to its cuſtomary diviſion, into the three diſtricts of Rouen, Alencon, and Caën.

The former produces corn, cyder, cattle, hemp, and flax, and beſides, has ſome fiſheries in Dieppe, Honfleur, Havre, &c. Its manufactures conſiſt of woollens, linens, leather, hats, combs, paper, and playing cards; at Rouen, Elbeuf, Darnetal, St. Aubin, Aumale, Bolbec, Louviers, La Boville, Gournay, &c. are made all ſorts of cloth, ſerges, druggets, ratines, blankets, and divers ſpecies of ſtuffs and hangings, in which are employed about eleven hundred looms, and from eight to nine thouſand bales of wool, (beſides other materials) of which five thouſand are Spaniſh, and the reſt of the fineſt ſtaples of France. Linens of many proportions and different fineneſs are made at Ponteau-de-Mer, Lizieux, Bernay, Rouen, Caudebec, Arques, and Montiolliers. The moſt conſiderable tanneries are at Rouen, and its neighbourhood; and hats are made in ſeveral of theſe parts, though the quantity is vaſtly ſhort of what they have been formerly.

The diſtrict of Caën has not a leſs extenſive or important trade than this laſt treated of; but it ſeems as if each part of this receiverſhip had appropriated a different ſpecies of buſineſs to itſelf.

Here are gathered a large parcel of drugs for dying, ſuch as woad, argol, ſumac, &c. The butter of Iſſigny, the white ſalt made in ſeveral ponds, the linens fabricated at Bayeux, and in its circumjacent parts, are the only manufactures of it; the wool, hemp, and flax, in this neighbourhood, are ſold unmanufactured. In the diſtrict of Vire, are three great forges of braziery, viz. at Envou, Alouze, and Cherbourg; and here are made ſome woollens and linens; at St. Lo, Vire, Valogne, Cherbourg, Coutances, Freſne, St. Pierre-de-Antremont, Athis, Flars, and Holouze, to the amount of twenty-eight thouſand five hundred pieces of cloths, ſerges, and ſtuffs, beſides linens, hats, ſtockings, leather, &c. and the territory of Alencon is nothing inferior to the other preceding two, either in the diverſity of its commodities, or importance of its trade. Large parcels of various ſorts of linens are made at Domfront, Vimontiers, and thereabouts. The manufacture of vellum lace was maintained through the long war at Alencon; the magnificence, or rather extravagance of France, ſufficing for its ſupport, even in thoſe diſtreſsful times; of cloths and ſtuffs, from fifty to fifty-two thouſand pieces, are made in this diviſion in a common year. The pins made at Laigle, and at Conches, the hardware and braziery of this laſt, the tanneries at Argentan, Vimontiers, Couches, and Vernevil; the fabric of wooden ſhoes, the forming of joiſts, beams, and other timber for building; the fattening of poultry for Paris; and the butter and eggs ſent there; the ſaltpetre in the diſtrict of Argentan, are no ſmall addition to the commerce of Alencon: but the glaſs-houſes at Nonant, in the foreſt of Exme; at Fortiſſambert in the foreſt of Montpinſon; and the two eſtabliſhed in the Thimarais, with the forges for iron at Chanſegray, Varennes, Carvuges, Rannes, Conches, and la Bonneville, are the fabrics which moſtly enrich their neighbourhood by their quantities and perfection; and to theſe we may add the breeding a great number of horſes, and making large quantities of hats, as other advantages to this country.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE, though one of the fineſt counties in England, furniſhes but very little for trade, as it has no manufactures but of worſted and yarn ſtockings; and its products conſiſt of corn, cattle, wool, ſaltpetre, and ſome butter ſent up freſh and in lumps to London.

NORTHUMBERLAND is ſo abundant in coals, that all Europe might be ſupplied from it; Newcaſtle ſends yearly to London about ſix hundred thouſand chaldrons, and for their conveyance keeps upwards of five hundred large ſhips continually employed, to the no ſmall improvement of our marine, as this dangerous navigation proves a continual fund of good ſailors, than which none are ſtouter nor better. Here are large mines alſo of lead and iron, which latter is of the ſame nature with what comes from Derbyſhire, and, like that, chiefly uſed by the nailors, &c. Grindſtones are found in ſome parts; and the river Tine is ſo abundant in ſalmon, that great quantities are pickled and ſhipped off from Berwick and Newcaſtle for foreign markets. This county, with Cumberland, ſends about fifteen thouſand firkins of butter to London, and between two and three thouſand more into Kent, the former ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Blyth.

NORWAY. This kingdom is ancient, and was governed by its own princes, till 1397, when it became a province of Denmark. Its northern borders, at Wardhuus, lie in the latitude of ſeventy degrees fifty minutes; and its ſouth-eaſt, at Frederickſhald, in fifty-nine degrees twenty minutes; its ſouth-weſt limits being the Naze, in fifty-ſeven degrees fifty minutes; and the inland frontiers are, in many places, ſeparated from Sweden by a range of mountains, which continue to the North Sea. The country is very barren, not producing a ſufficiency either of corn or cattle for the inhabitants ſupport, although it is in general very thinly peopled (proportionate to its vaſt extent) containing only two hundred ninety-one pariſhes, with nine hundred thirty-nine churches and chapels of eaſe; it differs from all other of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, in producing many more commodities for exportation than they all put together; its natives being active, laborious, induſtrious, and honeſt.

Copper is one of its principal products, and of this the chief works are at Roraas, Silboc, Quickne, Meldahl, (or Lyckens) Faadahl, and Aardahl. The firſt of theſe mines yields about three hundred and fifty tons yearly, on which the king hath two rix-dollars *per* ton excife, a tenth in kind, and a duty on exportation of eight pounds fifteen ſhillings *per* ton, which brings near one-fifth of its value into the revenue.

It is moſtly ſhipped for Holland; and the proprietors of this mine have it divided into one hundred and ſeventy-two ſhares, each worth about five hundred pounds ſterling, as in a medium of twenty years paſt, it hath yielded twenty *per cent.* annually, after having been worked about one hundred and ten years. It lies about one hundred and eight Engliſh miles eaſt ſouth-eaſt from Drontheim.

Quickne is more ancient than this now mentioned, lying three hundred and ſixty miles to the ſouth-weſt of it, and produces about fifty tons yearly.

Meldahl is the third, and bas been wrought with various ſucceſs, having at ſometimes rendered the proprietors fifty *per cent.* and at others nothing: the medium quantity is computed to be near fifty tons yearly.

Selboe had been given over for thirty years, but wrought again for fifteen paſt by the boors, is two hundred and forty miles from Drontheim.

Faadahl hath been wrought about three years, though it had been given over for ſeveral before; it now affords great hopes of being the ſecond mine in Norway, and is about ſix hundred miles weſt from Drontheim.

Aardahl, eighty miles ſouth ſouth-eaſt from Bergen, was rented by the Engliſh charitable corporation about the year 1731; but whether through the ſtubbornneſs of the ore, ignorance of the people ſent over, ſome iniquity in the managers, or all together, ſeveral thouſand pounds were ſunk, and after one or two cargoes had been ſhipped for Newcaſtle, the company ſtopped payment, and the working the mine has been ever ſince diſcontinued. About three millions Wincheſter buſhel of charcoal, and many thouſand fathoms of billet wood, are yearly conſumed at the ſeveral different melting-houſes, which latter beginning to grow

grow ſcarce, makes it probable that the drain of few years more will oblige the artificers to have recourſe to Britain for a ſupply of her mineral coal.

The five laſt mines are exempted from any payment to the revenue, on account of their poverty; and in that of Quickne is a well, whoſe water turns iron into copper in three years ſoaking. At Kongſbergh, four miles above Stromſoe, are alſo mines of ſilver, which, in May 1731, were let out to farm, after a prohibition to all ſtrangers had been iſſued in the preceding February, not to take any intereſt therein: and at Drontheim is a pearl-fiſhery, whoſe revenue the king granted to the queen in the ſaid year. Its other products are iron, pitch, tar, fiſh, ſkins, tallow, butter, aſhes, and above all maſts, boards, and timber.

About the year 1738, an allum work was erected near Chriſtiana, where is an inexhauſtible rock of ſlate, which is burnt into aſhes, and theſe being ſteeped in water, and afterwards boiled, produce allum, though my author is uncertain whether any urine or kelp is uſed in the operation. Carraways alſo grow very plentifully in this country, and large parcels of them are annually exported. Of cryſtal a good deal may be got a few miles above Chriſtiana; but a ſample of it having been ſent here to London, its quality was diſeſteemed. In Iceland is the famous volcano Hecla, from whoſe mountain great quantities of brimſtone is procured, which occaſions this commodity to be prohibited importation here, and the wool of this iſland is very fine and long; it was peopled from Norway about A. D. 950, is governed by a grand bailiff, hath two biſhops, and thirty-ſeven pariſhes.

The imports are ſpice, wine, brandy, vinegar, cheeſe, tobacco, woollens of all ſorts, ſalt, beer, bottles, ſalt beef, black lead, braſs, buckrams, butter, callicoes white and printed, candles, caps, ſilk and worſted, canvas, coals, copperas, cork, coriander ſeed, cotton, coverlets, currants, cyder, dimity, dry fiſh, corn and flour, glaſs, glue, gunpowder, hats, herrings, indigo, lead, leather, linen, mead, muſtard ſeed, mercery, nuts, pewter, quickſilver, raiſins, rice, ſaffron, ſalmon, ſteel, ſtockings, ſugar, ſweetmeats, tea, tin, ſilks, verdigreaſe, vitriol, wax, wire, and many other ſmall commodities too numerous to be inſerted.

About twelve years ago, Joachim Friederic, baron Beurt, a Bohemian, erected (as director general) at the king's expence, a ſalt work at Aareſund, near the Fœrder iſland, with a great pile of building; and the water there being much freſher than in the North Sea, is pumped up to the top of the grader houſe, from whence it is conveyed by a great number of ſpouts, and falls upon many hurdles, with the bark taken off, in order to diſſipate the freſh particles of the water, and prepare the remainder for the pan; to which the houſe being left open on all ſides, that the air may have a free paſſage, is intended to contribute, and by this method they endeavour to imitate the ſalt of France and Portugal, though the quality is much inferior, and will not keep in damp places.

The havens of this country are very numerous, and moſt of them very ſafe; but many of them abound with the worm ſo prejudicial to ſhip's bottoms. No one is permitted to go into or out of them without a pilot, as *per* placart March 5, 1725, where the

1ſt Article is, that all ſhips going into harbour either to load there, or deſtined to other countries, ſhall pay pilotage conformable to this regulation, and not be allowed (whilſt a pilot is to be got) by themſelves, people, or any, ſave ſworn pilots, to carry their ſhips in or out of harbour, or to follow other ſhips; for if they do, they are liable to pay pilotage at the Cuſtom-houſe.

2dly, One-tenth is to be deducted out of the pilotage for the captain (who is chief over all the pilots) and the remaining nine-tenths to the pilot.

3dly, The ſummer pilotage, viz. from the 16th of March to the 16th of October, from ſea, is to be, for a ſhip drawing

| | rd. | ro. | s. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 4, 5, and 6 feet water | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 1 | 1 | 8 |
| 8 | 1 | 2 | 16 |
| 9 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 2 | 1 | 8 |
| 11 | 2 | 2 | 16 |
| A ſhip drawing 12 feet | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | 3 | 1 | 8 |
| 14 | 3 | 2 | 16 |
| 15 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 | 4 | 1 | 8 |
| 17 | 4 | 2 | 16 |
| 18 | 5 | 0 | 0 |

Winter hire, one-fourth part more to be paid from the 16th of October to the 16th of March, and when the outer rocks do not exceed one mile from the port, only ſingle pilotage is due. For every foot above the eighteen, one rix-dollar *per* foot more than the five rix-dollars, the feet to be reckoned as are marked, and the pilotage to ſea to be one-third leſs than this for bringing in, and nothing reckoned for one-fourth, one-half, or three-fourths feet.

Fly-boats, hoys, and other flat built veſſels from ſea

| | rd. | ro. | s. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 4, 5, and 6 feet water | 1 | 2 | 0 |
| 7 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| 9 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 3 | 2 | 0 |
| 11 | 4 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | 4 | 2 | 0 |
| 13 | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| 14 | 5 | 2 | 0 |

Or half as much more as ſharp built veſſels.

Pilotage by the mile, when do not exceed four,

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ships of 4 to 6 feet, each ft. | 0 | 1 | 8 |
| 6 to 8 | 0 | 1 | 12 |
| 9 to 10 | 0 | 1 | 16 |
| 11 to 12 | 0 | 1 | 20 |
| 13 to 14 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| 15 to 16 | 0 | 2 | 8 |
| 17 to 18 | 0 | 2 | 16 |

Flat built ſhips pay one-third more, above this depth one rix-dollar more for each mile, if the pilot carry a ſhip above four miles he is to receive one-fourth part leſs, but if nine to twelve miles incluſive, one-third leſs for each mile. Winter here to receive one-fourth part more alſo for pilotage in and out.

Whilſt the pilot is aboard the ſhip-maſter muſt provide him free, meat and drink, but if obliged by contrary weather to keep the ſea, one, two, or more days, the maſter (excluſive of the pilotage) muſt pay the pilot two rixoorts daily.

N. B. Nothing to be paid the pilot for attendance whilſt the ſhip is in barbour, nor can he demand proviſions.

4. The pilots muſt not (on forfeiture of their place) take more pilotage than what this placart allows, except in ſtormy weather, where hazards are run, or more perſons employed for the ſaving people, ſhip, and cargo, or when ſhe hath loſt maſts, ſails, or rudder; the pilot may, in ſuch caſe, agree above the common rate. If the maſter refuſe to agree, the pilot notwithſtanding muſt do his duty, and the pay be ſettled by the oldermand and two diſintereſted perſons; but if either party be diſſatisfied, the magiſtrates may attempt it; if their determination be alſo diſliked, it may be appealed from to the court of admiralty in Copenhagen.

5. As ſoon as the pilot ſees a ſhip in the offing, with her colours out as a waft, he ſhall go with his boat without the outer rock, and continue on board her until ſafely moored. If in clear weather a ſhip put out a ſhow for a pilot, being in ſome danger, and no pilot appears, they who ought to attend in that neighbourhood, and have no reaſonable excuſe, ſhall forfeit two rix-dollars each to the poor. And the oldermand, for not keeping better order among the pilots, ſhall forfeit four rix-dollars for the firſt neglect, five for the ſecond, and loſe his office for the third.

6. A ſhip having brought to for a pilot with his colours out, and none near at hand, the fiſhermen who have been uſed to officiate as pilots may then take charge of the ſhip and carry her in, recovering full pilotage for their trouble without any deduction, though none but pilots may carry a ſhip to ſea, except fiſhermen apppointed by the oldermand.

7. That the pilot-boats may be known, they ſhall carry a red cloth in the middle of their main-ſail, but when they cannot uſe it, ſhall ſhew a white cloth at the end of their ſprit; and on neglect to ſhew theſe marks, they ſhall each time forfeit two rix-dollars to the oldermand, and two ditto to the poor. Fiſhermen uſing ſuch ſigns ſhall forfeit four rix-dollars each time.

8. When a maſter hath got a pilot on board, he ſhall not be obliged to take another on his coming into another pilot's diſtrict, if the pilot he has is acquainted and willing to proceed farther; though if the oldermand order another pilot, the former muſt quit, to prevent the harbour's being left deſtitute; but if the pilot engages to go farther than he is acquainted, and a damage happens, he ſhall pay it, as the law directs. *Code* IV. *B.* I. *C.* v. *A.*

9. When a maſter has any reaſonable cauſe to complain that his pilot has not done proper duty, and the (weather permitting) colours were put out to ſhew the want of a pilot, the maſter ſhall in this caſe take the pilot and oldermand, and in preſence of two ſea-faring ſhip maſters, whom the magiſtracy ſhall appoint, make an atteſtation thereof, and the maſter ſhall have credit for law charges until a deciſion, each party obliging themſelves to be ſatisfied therewith; and a pilot having reaſon of complaint is entitled to the ſame liberty.

10. The pilots are to have blanks in the maſter's language for him to ſign, notifying what he has paid him, as ſhall the pilot for what he has received.

11. Wind and weather permitting a pilot to conduct a ſhip into a convenient harbour, he muſt not on any account carry her into one, where the anchoring ground is too deep, eſpecially late in the year, or in winter, except in caſes of neceſſity; and then the pilot ſhall before-hand acquaint the maſter with the circumſtances, and muſt however anchor in the moſt convenient place, on penalty of four rixdollars; and the ſame ſum on neglecting to take an atteſtation, that it was not his neglect. A pilot conducting a ſhip through dangerous places, or altering the land marks, ſhall be impriſoned for life in Bremerholm, or ſuffer death if he deſerves it.

12. As the captain is allowed one tenth of the pilotage, the oldermand of the pilots ſhall have three ſtivers on each rixdollar, both of them to be deducted out of the ſtipulated rates; and if pilots carry in and out of harbour, which don't load or deliver in that country, the captain's ſalary ſhall be only one twentieth part.

13. Forfeitures to be diſtributed amongſt poor ſailors.

14. The collectors of the cuſtoms are to aſſiſt the pilots in getting their pilotage, and not clear the ſhips until they are ſatisfied, or have the oldermand's atteſt what draught of water ſhe drew in and out; but muſt deduct the ſalaries if the maſter has paid them to the oldermand.

15. A maſter ſailing before he hath paid his pilot, ſhall, when met with in Norway, pay the debt, and the like ſum to the poor, beſides the law charges: and a maſter uſing a pilot ill ſhall forfeit as the law directs.

16. As the pilots are always obliged to keep a look out, they ſhall have reſerves of others.

17. If the magiſtrates, or admiralty's deciſions in law ſuits between maſters and pilots are diſliked, either party may appeal to the king.

18. Ships bound to any port within the Fœder, and ſtopping (with a fair wind) in any out harbour to ſmuggle, the pilot ſhall immediately inform the neareſt officer of juſtice; and the maſter on due proof made againſt him, muſt pay the two hundred rixdollars, as directed in the book of rates; the ſame to be alſo obſerved north of the Naze: and a pilot neglecting to give ſuch information ſhall loſe his place.

19. The king commands all his military officers to be aſſiſting herein, and to keep theſe orders, as a law.

Maſters of ſhips muſt make a true report at the cuſtom-houſe, within twenty-four hours after their arrival; and if required by the collector, muſt produce authentic bills of loading. The not reporting within this time limited, incurs a penalty of twenty rixdollars daily; if they neglect to report all their cargoes, they muſt pay twenty *per cent.* on the value of that part omitted, except they will make oath, that it was an error, without any ſiniſter intent to ſmuggle them. If they belong to maſter or mate, they are confiſcable and liable to double duty.

Maſters muſt be careful not to ſail without their told-zedel, which is a paſſport given them from the cuſtom-houſe, containing a liſt of the cargo, and that the laſtage, tiende (or tenths, a cuſtom) and lights are paid; otherwiſe being found without it, and the cargo diſcovered not to be duly entered, treble duty muſt be paid, and the maſter condemned to chains for life in Bremerholm; if the ſhip be only in ballaſt, the puniſhment is to pay ten rixdollars, and the producing falſe paſſports, with an intent to defraud the revenue, incurs a forfeiture both of ſhip and goods.

The lights in this province are the Fœrder, built on a high rock at the entrance of Chriſtiana fiord, and two on the Naze point; in Denmark, they have the Schaw, and Anholt in the Cattegat; that on the ſand bank called Scagen, at the point of Jutland, was ſome time ago waſhed away, and I believe not yet reſtored.

The ſea marks here, are the cow and calf near Mandahl. Off Merdoe iſland, the Trom hills, and Trom church, with a new built whitened ſteeple, and the above mentioned light-houſes.

NOTARY, *notarius*, * primarily denotes one who takes ſhort draughts or minutes of contracts or other inſtruments; particularly an officer who takes notes of obligation, &c. executed before him, and delivers out authentic copies thereof.

* The word is derived from the Latin *notæ*, notes, becauſe anciently they wrote in notes or ſhort hand.

Notaries are now little known among us, except in mercantile affairs, though in France, Scotland, &c. they ſtill ſubſiſt in their legal capacity. The notaries of the chatelet are called the king's counſellors and note-keepers.

NOTARY-PUBLIC, in commerce, a perſon among us who draws and publickly atteſts deeds, charter-parties, or writings between merchants, to make them authentic in other countries. In their books are regiſtered proteſts, remonſtrances, &c.

The youth deſigned for this buſineſs ought to have an extenſive genius, and a penetrating judgment. He ſhould not only be a perfect maſter of figures and merchants accounts, but ſhould be able to tranſlate both from the Latin, and from all the trading languages, as French, Dutch, Spaniſh, Portugueſe, and Italian. The notary-public, though he keeps ſhop, is a kind of lawyer, only he is ſolely converſant in the law of merchants; that is, in the general rules and cuſtoms obſerved among merchants in their dealings with each other. He is employed in matters relating to bills of exchange; in proteſting ſuch bills as are not accepted, or not duly honoured when accepted. He ought to know the courſe of exchange in all the chief trading cities, and the uſage of payments. He tranſlates foreign inſtruments; is employed in ſettling accounts between factors and their employers, maſters of ſhips, ſupercargoes and their owners; in drawing and ingroſſing indentures, articles of copartnerſhip, of trade, charter-parties, and in general in all deeds and writings relative to trade. Thoſe of this buſineſs have from fifty to one hundred pounds with an apprentice; who, after having ſerved his time with a notary of reputation and great practice, can never fail, if it be not his own fault, of a handſome ſubſiſtence; ſince, if he does not ſet up for himſelf, he will be always fit for the compting-houſe of any merchant; and will be preferred on account of his knowledge in the moſt intricate part of commerce, and particularly in negociating bills of exchange.

NOTE is a minute, containing ſome articles of buſineſs, as a promiſſory note, &c.

The increaſe of trade, and neceſſity of paper credit, put bankers and others upon an expedient of bringing promiſſory notes within the cuſtom of merchants, and making them negotiable, as inland bills of exchange; but this the judges would not admit of, promiſſory notes being only conſidered, by the common law, as evidences of a debt, and not aſſignable, or negotiable, in their own nature.

But it being found neceſſary to make uſe of this kind of credit, by 3 and 4 *Ann. cap.* 9. (made perpetual by 7 *Ann. c.* 25. *ſ.* 3.) reciting, that, "Whereas it hath been held, that notes in writing, ſigned by the party who makes the ſame, whereby ſuch parry promiſes to pay unto any other perſon, or his order, any ſum of money therein mentioned, are not aſſignable or indorſible over within the cuſtom of merchants, to any other perſon; and that ſuch perſon to whom the ſum of money mentioned in ſuch note is payable, cannot maintain an action, by the cuſtom of mer-

chants, againſt the perſon who firſt made and ſigned the ſame; and that any perſon to whom ſuch note ſhall be aſſigned, indorſed, or made payable, could not, within the ſaid cuſtom of merchants, maintain any action upon ſuch note againſt the perſon who firſt drew and ſigned the ſame: therefore, to the intent to encourage trade and commerce, which will be much advanced, if ſuch notes ſhall have the ſame effect as inland bills of exchange, and ſhall be negotiated in like manner, it is enacted, That all notes in writing, that ſhall be made and ſigned by any perſon or perſons, body politic or corporate, or by the ſervant, or agent, of any corporation, banker, goldſmith, merchant, or trader, who is uſually intruſted by him, her, or them, to ſign ſuch promiſſory notes for him, her, or them, whereby ſuch perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their ſervant, or agent, as aforeſaid, doth, or ſhall promiſe to pay any other perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, or unto bearer, any ſum of money mentioned in ſuch note, ſhall be taken and conſtrued to be, by virtue thereof, due and payable to any ſuch perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, to whom the ſame is made payable; and alſo every ſuch note, payable to any perſon or perſnns, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, ſhall be aſſignable, or indorſible over, in the ſame manner as inland bills of exchange are, or may be, according to the cuſtom of merchants; and that the perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, to whom ſuch ſum of money is, or ſhall be, by ſuch note, made payable, ſhall and may maintain an action for the ſame in ſuch manner as he, ſhe, or they, might do upon an inland bill of exchange, made or drawn according to the cuſtom of merchants, againſt the perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, who or whoſe ſervant, or agent, as aforeſaid, ſigned the ſame; and that any perſon or perſons, body corporate and politic, to whom ſuch note that is payable to any perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, is indorſed or aſſigned, or the money therein mentioned ordered to be paid by indorſement thereon, ſhall and may maintain his, her, or their action, for ſuch ſum of money, either againſt the perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, who or whoſe ſervant, or agent, as aforeſaid, ſigned ſuch note; or againſt any of the perſons that indorſed the ſame, in like manner as in caſe of inland bills of exchange; and in every ſuch action, the plaintiff or plaintiffs ſhall recover his, her, or their damages and coſts of ſuit: and if ſuch plaintiff or plaintiffs ſhall be nonſuited, or a verdict be given againſt him, her, or them, the defendant, or defendants, ſhall recover his, her, or their coſts againſt the plaintiff or plaintiffs; and every ſuch plaintiff or plaintiffs, defendant or defendants, reſpectively, recovering, may ſue out execution for ſuch damages and coſts, by *capias*, *fieri facias*, or *elegit*.

" Provided that no body politic or corporate ſhall have power, by virtue of this act, to iſſue or give out any note by themſelves, or their ſervants, other than ſuch as they might have iſſued, if this act had never been made."

In regard to actions, declarations, and pleadings on promiſſory notes, *ſee* ACTIONS.

## INDORSEMENT.

When the note was delivered in, the plaintiff's name was upon it, and the chief juſtice permitted it to be ſtruck out in court, it being only an indorſement in blank. *Thead* v. *Lovel.*

This action was brought by the plaintiff as indorſee of a promiſſory note, and on trial the note was produced endorſed by the drawee, but not ſuperſcribed; and the queſtion on the point reſerved was, whether, or no, after the objection taken, the indorſement to the plaintiff could be ſupplied in court? held, *per cur.* That the words, *pay the contents*, &c. may be put or ſet over the name endorſed in court. The property is transferred by the endorſement; and where the endorſement appears to be ſuperſcribed, the court never enquire when the ſuperſcription was written. This determination was in favour of juſtice, honeſty and trade; and the practice was ſettled *per* Pengelly, lord Raymond, and lord Hardwicke at *niſi prius*, a releaſe to make a man a witneſs (which is a ſtronger caſe than this) is conſtantly ſuffered to be executed in court. No inconvenience will ariſe by this practice. In caſe of a ſet off, where an indorſed note is ſet off by a defendant againſt a plaintiff's demand, it muſt be proved that the name of the indorſor was written before the plea pleaded. Rule, that the poſtea be delivered to the plaintiffs. *Lucas* againſt *Marſh.* *Thead* v. *Lovel.* *O More* v. *Manning.*

3. On error from C. B. it appeared to be an action by indorſee of a promiſſory note indorſed by a woman as adminiſtratrix. A demurrer to the declaration, and judgment for the plaintiff.

It was objected, that an adminiſtratrix was not within the cuſtom of merchants in the caſe of bills of exchange; and the ſtatute 3 *Ann. c.* 9. makes notes aſſignable only in the ſame manner as bills of exchange are. *Sed, per curiam*, we cannot ſay this upon a demurrer. It ſhould have been pleaded, or found not to be within the cuſtom: and it is every day's practice to have indorſements made by executors. It was then objected, that there was no profert of the letters of adminiſtration. *Sed, per curiam*, that is only required where the action is by an adminiſtrator, but not where a third perſon only derives through one. The judgment was affirmed. *Robinſon* v. *Stone.*

The plaintiff declared, upon a promiſſory note made to a *feme covert*, and indorſed by her to him; and on argument judgment was given for the defendant, the right being, in point of law, veſted in the huſband, and the wife having no power to diſpoſe of it. *Connor* v. *Martin.*

A note payable to a *feme ſole*, or order, who afterwards marries, can only be indorſed by the huſband.

" Falſly making, forging, or counterfeiting, or cauſing, or procuring, to be falſly made, &c. or willingly aiding, or aſſiſting, in the falſe making any indorſement of any promiſſory note for the payment of money, with intention to defraud any perſon whatſoever, or uttering, or publiſhing as true, any falſe, &c. indorſement of a promiſſory note, with intention, &c. knowing the ſame to be falſe, &c. is felony, without benefit of clergy."

The defendant was indicted for forging an indorſement of a note of eight hundred pounds, which indictment was preferred againſt him at Hick's hall, and was afterwards removed up by *certiorari* into this court: and now the attorney-general moved, that it might be tried at the bar next term. He ſaid, this was not indeed a proſecution carried on by the direction of the crown, but only ſupported upon the expence of a private perſon. However, he mentioned two caſes, where the court had granted the like motion with this, upon the application of the king's attorney. One was the caſe of the king and Ward; the other the caſe of the king and Johnſon. The attorney-general ſaid too, that ſtrictly this matter cannot be tried at the ſittings without his leave; for every writ of *niſi prius*, in criminal caſes, muſt be ſigned by him, to have his conſent. But the court ſaid, if the attorney had made this motion in right of his office, at the inſtance of the crown, it was certainly demandable of right, though the trial was moved to be had in an iſſuable term. But here the attorney moves only as council, and therefore he can only apply to the court upon the ordinary circumſtances, which theſe motions are granted on, which are the length or difficulty of the caſe. And here, they ſaid, nothing of this was pretended. The chief juſtice ſaid, he remembered very well the rule for granting the trial at bar in that caſe of the king againſt Johnſon was founded upon the length of examination, that would be required in that caſe. And as to the caſe of the king and Ward, that proſecution was carried on by the direction of the houſe of Lords, which might influence the court to have had the trial at the bar; and as to what the attorney ſaid about the writs of *niſi prius* being ſigned by him, the court ſaid, he may very well refuſe it in proſecutions at the inſtance of the crown; but it is never done in proſecutions of this nature, which are conſidered as the ſuits of private people, though the king's name is made uſe of. Judge Probyn ſaid, that this was a forgery of a note of hand, and concerned public credit in general; and therefore he did not know but the conſequences of this caſe might make it ſomething diſtinguiſhable from others. However, the motion was afterwards granted upon the attorney's ſaying, that he had ſince got the king's command to carry on this proſecution. *The king* v. *Hales.*

## INDORSOR *and* INDORSEE.

1. Upon a caſe ſtated at *niſi prius*, in an action by the plaintiff as indorſee of ſeveral promiſſory notes, it appeared that

that the notes were given by the defendant to one John Church, for money by him knowingly advanced to the defendant to game with at dice; and that Church indorſed them to the plaintiff for a full and valuable conſideration; and that the plaintiff was not privy to, or had any notice, that any part of the money for which the notes were given had been lent for the purpoſe of gaming.

Upon this a queſtion aroſe upon the ſtatute 9 *Ann*, *c.* 14. *ſ.* 1. which ſays, "That all notes, where the whole, or any part of the conſideration, is money knowingly lent for gaming, ſhall be void to all intents and purpoſes whatſoever;" whether the plaintiff could maintain this action againſt the defendants? And after two arguments, the court were of opinion he could not, for it is making it of ſome uſe to the lender, if he can pay his own debts with it; and it will be a means to evade the act, being ſo very difficult to prove notice on an indorſee. And though it will be ſome inconvenience to an innocent man, yet that will not be a ballance to thoſe on the other ſide: and the plaintiff is not without remedy, for he may ſue Church on his indorſement: and it is but the common hazard of taking notes of infants or *feme coverts*. As to what Holt ſaid in *Huſly* v. *Jacob*, it was not the point adjudged; and the chief juſtice ſaid, he had ſeen a report wherein notice was taken, that all the learned part of the bar wondered at it. *Bowyer* v. *Bampton*.

If a promiſſory note be indorſed, and afterwards loſt, and paſſed, in way of trade, to a third perſon, for a valuable conſideration, the indorſee may have trover for the note againſt the third perſon.

The third indorſee of a promiſſory note kept it from the firſt of November to the ſeventh of January, without receiving it of the maker of the note: and in an action againſt the firſt indorſee, without notice, the plaintiff was nonſuited for his neglect. *Pepys* v. *Sir John Lambert*.

The defendant was ſued as indorſor of a note; and it was proved, that a diſcounter ſent the note to the defendant, who looked on it, and ſaid it was his hand; and the note, which had ſome months to run, would be paid when due; the chief juſtice refuſed to let the defendant in to ſhew forgery by ſimilitude of hands, ſince it would tend to deſtroy all negociation of notes and bills. But he ſeemed inclined to allow proof of actual forgery, if the defendant could have ſhewn it, which he could not; and the plaintiff obtained a verdict. *Cooper* v. *Le Blanc*.

One Slaughter, a clerk in the Exchequer, gave a promiſſory note to Gekie; Gekie indorſed it over to Webb, who indorſed it to the defendant, who indorſed it to the plaintiff. The note was not payable till ſix months after date, and, about a week after it became due, the plaintiff, by his attorney, demanded the money of Slaughter, who refuſed payment, and deſired ſome time of forbearance; which the plaintiff's attorney refuſed to give, but afterwards the plaintiff himſelf gave him a month's time. This was in Auguſt: and the month expiring before the beginning of Michaelmas term, the plaintiff, the firſt day of the term, filed a bill in the Exchequer againſt Slaughter, which was as ſoon as he could be ſued by reaſon of his privilege; and on this bill obtained judgment: but Slaughter proving inſolvent, the plaintiff brought this action againſt Gray, the indorſor. The queſtion was, whether, if the indorſee gives time to the drawer of the note, it does not diſcharge the indorſors. The chief juſtice ſaid, the time for the indorſee to demand the money of the drawer was ſettled to be a reaſonable time. A verdict was given for the plaintiff. *Croſſe* and *Gray*.

Caſe by original in B. R. and declares againſt the defendant, as indorſor of a promiſſory note; and after ſetting out the note and indorſement, he goes on, that, *virtute inde*, the defendant became chargeable with the payment of the money, *ſecundum tenorem*, of the indorſement. The defendant, upon *oyer* of the original, pleads in abatement, that the charge againſt him ought to be according to the tenour of the note, and not of the indorſement. And *Strange*, *pro def.* inſiſted that it might be, that the indorſement appointed the money to be paid at a different time from what is mentioned in the note; which are terms that the indorſor cannot lay upon the party who made the note. Suppoſe the note be payable on the firſt of May, ſurely the party to whom it was given cannot ſay, "I appoint the contents of this note to be paid to J. S. upon the firſt of April?" Or, if he ſhould, yet the other will not be bound to pay it till May; and if he is charged, according to the terms of the indorſement, his only remedy muſt be, to traverſe the being charged otherwiſe than according to the tenor of the note. And as to the objection, that in counts upon promiſſory notes there is no occaſion to lay any expreſs *aſſumpſit*, and therefore the whole may be rejected. He anſwered, that where the pleader does not rely upon the firſt part of the caſe he makes, but goes on further, and alledges other matters; he by that gives the other ſide an opportunity of traverſing the laſt matter; as *Lutw.* 108.

*Sed per curiam*, there is no occaſion to pray an aid of that objection here, where the action is againſt the indorſor, it is true he cannot lay a charge upon the giver of the note in a manner different from the terms of it; but he may charge himſelf if he pleaſes, for every indorſement is the ſame as making a new note; and if the note be payable on the firſt of May; and the indorſement appoints it to be on the firſt of April, as to the indorſor this is a promiſſory note payable on the firſt of April. If this was an action againſt the giver of the note, there might be more in the objection. *Reſpondes ouſter agard. Smallwood* v. *Vernon*.

In an action by the indorſee of a promiſſory note againſt the indorſor, it appeared, the plaintiff had after the indorſement received part of the drawer of the note; and it was held to be a taking upon himſelf to give the whole credit to the drawer of the note, and abſolutely diſcharged the indorſor; ſo the plaintiff was nonſuited. *Kellock* verſus *Robinſon*.

In an action againſt the indorſor of a promiſſory note, the chief juſtice directed the jury to find for the defendant, becauſe the plaintiff had not proved diligence to get the money of the drawer; being of the old opinion, that the indorſor only warrants upon the default of the drawer. *Syderbottom* v. *Smith*. *Collins* v. *Butler*.

In an action upon a promiſſory note by the indorſee againſt an indorſor, it was proved that the defendant had paid part of the money; and chief juſtice Lee held that ſufficient to diſpenſe with the proving a demand upon the maker of a note. *Vaughan* v. *Fuller*.

9. Action on a promiſſory note againſt the indorſer.

At trial, before chief juſtice Willes at Guildhall, it was doubted, whether the plaintiff ought not to prove a demand of the drawer before the action brought; the matter on proof was left to the jury, whether a demand was made or not?

On motion for a new trial, judge Forteſcue mentioned the caſe of Deviſe and Maſon, 1 *Geo.* II. in Common Pleas; wherein it was agreed by the court, that there ought to be a demand of the drawer, for the indorſor undertook conditionally only if the drawer did not pay.

Indeed, if a note be forged, chief juſtice Holt held the indorſor liable, though no demand.

And indeed no demand can be, for when a note is forged there is no drawer.

So on a note payable to a man, or bearer, no demand need be from him to whom it is made payable.

But a new trial was denied, for the evidence of the demand was left to the jury, who were the proper judges of that fact, and knew beſt the courſe of dealing. *Pardo* v. *Fuller*.

*Aſſumpſit* on promiſſory note by the defendant to pay William Welch, or order, fifty pounds, for value received; that William Welch indorſed it over to the plaintiff, in conſideration whereof the defendant promiſed to pay to the plaintiff, who, though often requeſted, refuſed, &c.

Defendant demurs, and ſhews, for cauſe, that the declation did not alledge notice to the defendant of the indorſement; and relied on caſe 2 *Mod. Ca.* 34. *Lawrence* and *Jacob*; where, after verdict and judgment for the plaintiff, the judgment was reverſed in error for that cauſe; *ſed non allocatur*; for that caſe is miſreported, for juſtice Forteſcue produced the paper book in that caſe, and ſaid it was *paſch.* 8 *Geo.* and that the judgment was affirmed, and on the authority of that caſe, and on the reaſon of the thing; for the defendant, by his demurrer, admits that, in conſideration of the premiſſes; viz. defendants making the indorſable note, and the indorſing it to the plaintiff, the defendant aſſumed to pay the money according to the tenor of the note.



Judgment

Judgment was given for the plaintiff by the whole court. *Skip* v. *Hook.*

Action brought on promiſſory note, payable to A. B. or order, and indorſed to plaintiff, by the adminiſtrator of A. B. demurrer to the declaration, and two cauſes aſſigned; firſt, that the plaintiff declared, without a *proſert in cur.* of the letters of adminiſtration of A. B. and ſecondly, that it did not appear by whom the ſame was granted. A third objection was taken at the bar; viz. that an executor, or adminiſtrator, cannot aſſign a promiſſory note, ſo as to give an indorſee an action in his own name. The firſt and ſecond objections were over-ruled, becauſe the letters of adminiſtration cannot be ſuppoſed to be in the cuſtody or power of the plaintiff, but of the adminiſtrator himſelf; and, on trial, it would be incumbent on the plaintiff to ſhew the perſon who indorſed the note to him to be the proper adminiſtrator of A. B.

The third objection over-ruled, becauſe it has been the conſtant practice among merchants for executors and adminiſtrators to indorſe both promiſſory notes and bills of exchange; and the court will endeavour to adapt the rules of law to the courſe of trade; and is warranted in this opinion by the words of the ſtatute 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 1. which ſays, that promiſſory notes are to be indorſed in like manner as bills of exchange. The equitable intereſt is veſted in the adminiſtrator, who, before the ſtatute, might aſſign his equitable, and ſince his legal, intereſt. *Moor* againſt *Manning*, *Mich.* 5 *Geo.* in C. B. held, that whoſoever has the abſolute property, may aſſign a note payable to order. Judgment for plaintiff. *Stone* againſt *Rawlinſon* and another.

## Venue.

Rule to ſhew cauſe why the venue ſhould not be changed, was diſcharged, the declaration containing (*inter alia*) a count on a promiſſory note, plaintiff conſenting at the peril of a nonſuit, to give evidence on the promiſſory note. The duke of *Bedford* againſt *Bray*. *Everest* v. *Sanſum*. *Ward* v. *Colclough*.

In an error upon a judgment in the court of Litchfield, Mr.* Parker took two exceptions; one was to the firſt count, for its being upon a promiſſory note for value received, and yet no venue laid where the value was received; the other was to the ſecond count, for its being upon a *computaſſet*, and yet no venue laid, where the ſeveral *items* of the account aroſe; whereas, he ſaid, that was neceſſary to be ſet forth, in order that there might be a conſideration ſhewn for this action. The firſt objection was eaſily got over, becauſe it would have been a variance to have lain the note in any other way: and to the other, the court obſerved, that nothing is neceſſary to be ſet forth in a declaration, but what is the cauſe of the action; and the cauſe of an action is that which is neceſſary to be produced in evidence upon a trial. Now here he ſaid, the cauſe of action is the ſtated account; and that is of itſelf a ſufficient conſideration to found an *aſſumpſit* upon, and the ſeveral *items* of it are of no manner of uſe in ſuch caſe upon this action: and judge Reynolds obſerved, that an account adjuſted does not only carry with it a conſideration for a new *aſſumpſit*, but likewiſe extinguiſhes the remedy that lay upon the account before. Accordingly, they affirmed the judgment. *Henry* v. *Berklet.*

* *Afterwards earl of Macclesfield.*

## Evidence.

A judgment was obtained at law in an *aſſumpſit*, upon an abſolute promiſſory note for fifty pounds againſt the plaintiff Snowball, who now brings his bill to be relieved, ſuggeſting the note was really agreed to be conditional; viz. "That unleſs Ram's inſurance roſe to one hundred pounds *per cent.* I, the now defendant, give you my word I will never trouble you for the money."

It was objected for the defendant, firſt, that the plaintiff ought not to be permitted to enter into this evidence now, becauſe he might have done it at law, either upon the general iſſue, or by pleading ſpecially.

Secondly, that the plaintiff ought to give parol evidence to prove the intent of a note in writing under hand.

But, *per curiam*, (*dubitante Eyre*, chief baron) the plaintiff was permitted to go into this evidence, and was relieved; and baron Price ſaid, he could not diſtinguiſh this caſe from that of lady *Clarges* verſus *Williams* in this court, on the twentieth of February, 1723. *Snowball* v. *Vicaris.*

A point was reſerved at the ſittings of *niſi prius*, whether the proof of the indorſor of a promiſſory note, his acknowledgment, that the name indorſed on the ſaid note was his hand writing, be ſufficient to prove the indorſement in an action brought by the plaintiff as indorſee againſt defendant as drawer. The objection was, that no perſon's confeſſion, but the defendant's himſelf, can be evidence, and the indorſor's hand muſt be proved. The objection was held good; and the verdict, as to the ſecond promiſe in the declaration, was ordered to be vacated. *Hemings* againſt *Robinſon.*

In *aſſumpſit* upon a promiſſory note, there was judgment by default; and on executing a writ of inquiry, the plaintiff did not produce the ſubſcribing witneſs, but offered other evidence of its being the defendant's hand. And the court held, this was ſufficient; for the note being ſet out in the declaration, is admitted, and the only uſe of producing it, is to ſee whether any money is indorſed to be paid upon it. *Bevis* v. *Lindſell.*

Inquiſition taken on a writ of inquiry of damages ſet aſide, for want of the plaintiff's proving a promiſſory note ſet forth in the declaration, the plaintiff's attorney inſiſted, before the ſheriff and jury, that the note was admitted by the defendant's ſuffering judgment; and the jury found the ſum mentioned in the note for damages, without any proof; which was held unwarrantable. *Elis* v. *Wall.*

In an action upon a promiſſory note, there being a ſubſcribing witneſs, the chief juſtice would not allow any other to prove the hand, without ſhewing where the witneſs was, and that he could not be produced; and this, on the general rule, that the law requires the beſt evidence the thing is capable of. *Seaward* v. *Powell.*

The compariſon of hands is ſufficient evidence of notes, without any other witneſſes who ſaw the party write it.

## Equity *and* Injunctions.

The defendant here was plaintiff in two actions, one of which was upon a bond, the other upon a promiſſory note. The preſent plaintiff had upon this obtained an injunction, furmiſing an account, and now upon bill and anſwer, the caſe appeared to be, that ſome years ago the duke gave this bond to the defendant; and ſome time after, being colonel of the firſt regiment of dragoons, ſold the agency of this regiment to the defendant, but made him find ſecurity to account with him for ſome profits concerning it. Soon after the duke reſigned his commiſſion, and the defendant upon this complaining, that he muſt be turned out, the duke gave him this promiſſory note. A ſum of five hundred pounds was borrowed upon the credit of it of one Liſle. The defendant acknowledged, in his anſwer, that there was this account, but believed he had fully acccounted. But whether, upon the whole matter, the injunction ſhould ſtay, was the queſtion. The chief baron declared his opinion to be very clear, that, as to the action upon the bond, the injunction ought to be diſſolved, becauſe the matter of account has no kind of relation towards it. As to the note, he thought that not ſo plain, becauſe the note does ſeem to relate to the ſame matter as the account. The account related to the agency, and ſo does the note. But yet, he ſaid, as nothing of this appears upon the face of the note, and as money has actually been lent upon it, as being a negotiable one, he inclined to be of opinion, that the injunction ought to be diſſolved as to this action too. Baron Carter differed with him in opinion as to the ſecond point; but the two other barons agreed with him in both. However, upon the duke's offering to pay Mr. Liſle his five hundred pounds upon the note, the court ordered the injunction to ſtay as to this action. The duke of Montague and Burroughs.

Boheme was maſter of a veſſel, and Congreve and Barker were traders living at Waterford in Ireland. Congreve and Barker had dealings with Boheme, and Boheme gave them a promiſſory note in a certain ſum of money. This note was indorſed to Porter, who was an agent for

them in England. But the intent of this indorſement merely was, that Porter might recover the money which the note was given for, and be accountable to them for it. Porter accordingly brought his action upon the note againſt Boheme; bail was given in that action, and he recovered judgment in it.

The preſent bill was brought by Boheme againſt Porter, Congreve, and Barker, ſetting forth an account that Boheme had with Congreve and Barker; and praying an injunction to ſtay execution upon this judgment. Porter put in his anſwer, and by that anſwer the fact appeared to be the purport before-mentioned. Congreve and Barker were ſerved in Ireland with ſubpœnas to anſwer this bill; but they refuſed to put in an anſwer to it, and were ſerved with an attachment in Ireland upon that account.

A motion was now made, that the order might be diſcharged, whereby an injunction was granted till the coming in of the anſwers of the ſeveral defendants. On the other hand, it was prayed, that upon the facts appearing as they did on the anſwer which was come in, the injunction might be continued to the hearing.

Lord chancellor ſaid, It has been repreſented that the writing which Boheme ſigned, was a bill of exchange, and that it was paid over into the hands of one who was only a factor or agent for Congreve and Barker. If this had been ſo, there muſt have been a very ſtrong appearance of equity to have intitled the plaintiff to an injunction; though, in other ſort of caſes, an injunction would be continued to the hearing without ſtaying for the anſwers of any ſuch defendants, who appear to live beyond ſea: but in the preſent caſe this is only a promiſſory note, and not a bill of exchange. It is a note too given ſo long ago as 1736; which makes the caſe leſs favourable than if the note was given recently. This note was ſent over to Porter to be made uſe of by him merely as a factor or agent for Congreve and Barker. Porter muſt be conſidered as a truſtee for them; for though it is true, that there was an open account depending between him and them, and credit was given for that note, yet there was nothing done ſubſequent, by which that note was conſidered as his own. The perſons really intitled to the benefit of this note, live at Waterford in Ireland, a place that is within the king's dominions. They have been ſerved with ſubpœnas to anſwer this bill, and with attachments, for not putting in their anſwers; and bail has been given in this action, and as this is ſo, it would be extremely hard that the injunction ſhould not, at preſent, be continued. However, his lordſhip ſaid, that he would not now continue it to the hearing, but only till the anſwers of Congreve and Barker ſhould come in, and ſo his lordſhip was pleaſed to order accordingly. *Boheme* v. *Porter.*

*Stealing, forging, and loſing them.*

" Stealing or taking by robbery any promiſſory * notes for the payment of any money, being the property of any other perſon or perſons, or of any corporation, is felony of the ſame nature, and in the ſame degree, and with or without benefit of clergy, in the ſame manner as it would have been, if the offender had ſtolen, &c. any other goods of the like value with the money due on ſuch notes, or ſecured thereby, and remaining unſatisfied."

* *Quere, whether it be felony within this ſtatute to ſteal one ſingle note, as the act mentions notes in the plural number only, for in the trial of Coke and Woodburn, upon the maiming act* (22 and 23 Car. II. *c.* 1.) *the defendant, Coke,* (inter alia) *in his defence, ſays, That by* 1 Edw. VI. c. 12. *clergy is taken away from ſuch perſons as ſhall be convicted of ſtealing horſes, &c. (in the plural number) yet, ſo ſcrupulouſly did the judges adhere to the letter of this law, that there was forced to be another ſtatute made: viz.* 2 and 3 Edw. VI. c. 33. *to enact, that a perſon convicted of ſtealing one horſe, ſhould be ouſted of his clergy, in the ſame manner as if he had ſtolen two. See the preamble (which my lord Coke ſays is the key to the enacting part) of the ſtatute, and* Dy. 99. pl. 59. *whereby what the ſaid defendant, Coke, obſerved, ſeems to be good law.*

" Falſely making, forging, or counterfeiting, or cauſing, or procuring, to be falſly made, &c. or willingly acting or aſſiſting in the falſe making, &c. any promiſſory note for the payment of money, with intention to defraud any perſon whatſoever; or uttering, or publiſhing, as true, any falſe, &c. promiſſory note, with intention, &c. knowing the ſame to be falſe, &c. is felony without benefit of clergy."

If a promiſſory note be indorſed, and afterwards loſt, and paſſed in way of trade to a third perſon for a valuable conſideration, the indorſee may have trover for the note againſt the third perſon.

*When deemed payment.*

The defendant took up ſeveral goods of the plaintiff, who ſent his ſervant with a bill to him for the money. The defendant orders the ſervant to write him a receipt in full of the bill, which he did; and thereupon he gave him a note upon a third perſon, payable in two months. The maſter ſent ſeveral times to the third perſon, to preſent him the note, but could not get ſight of him within the time; the party breaks, and all this appearing in evidence, and that the defendant went to ſea the next day after he gave the note; now this action was brought againſt the defendant for the money.

Holt, chief juſtice. If a man gives a note upon a third perſon in payment, and the other takes it abſolutely in payment; yet, if the party giving it knew the third perſon to be breaking, or to be in a failing condition, and the receiver of the note uſes all reaſonable diligence to get payment, but cannot, this is a fraud, and therefore no payment; and here was no laches in the plaintiff, for the party failed before the money was payable. The chief juſtice directed for the plaintiff. *Poply* v. *Aſhley.*

A note drawn on A to pay money for value received is a good diſcharge of a debt, though the note be not paid, unleſs the creditors return the bill in convenient time, *per* Holt, chief juſtice. *Darrach* v. *Savage.*

The plaintiff was indebted to the defendant upon two notes, and the defendant obtained judgment at law againſt him for the money; and then deſiring the defendant's forbearance, he told him, that if he would procure one Defoy to give him his note for the money, he would accept of it, and acknowledge ſatisfaction on the judgment, and deliver up the plaintiff's notes: and being to go forthwith out of England, he left the plaintiff's notes with his agent here, to be exchanged for Defoy's, in caſe the plaintiff procured them; and the plaintiff accordingly procured two notes, payable to the defendant, which he delivered to the defendant's agent, and took up his own notes; and the attorney at law ſtaid all further proceedings, but would not acknowledge ſatisfaction on the judgment, having no orders for it from his client; and before Defoy paid any of the money, he failed, and then the defendant proceeded at law on the judgment; whereupon the plaintiff brought this bill to be relieved, and ſuggeſted that he had diſcounted the money with Defoy, and made him ſatisfaction; but he made no proof of any ſuch thing; and therefore, at the hearing, his bill was diſmiſſed by the maſter of the rolls; and this decree was affirmed by my lord keeper on appeal. *Grubarr* v. *Gairand.*

*Matters not reducible to any particular head.*

On rule to ſhew cauſe why the plaintiff ſhould not deliver up a note to one Avery, which note Avery had paid, as one of the indorſors. The chief juſtice ſaid, this was proved to be a forged note in the court of Exchequer; to which Mr. Strange agreed, but ſubmitted it, that Avery might, notwithſtanding, bring an action upon it againſt the other indorſors. The court allowed this, and accordingly made the rule abſolute. *Williams* and *Seagrave.*

It was held, that a promiſſory note cannot have ſuch a condition annexed to it as will make it like a bond or eſcrow; for that the delivery here is not eſſential, as in the caſe of a bond. *Anon.*

In an action upon the caſe upon a promiſſory note, brought by the perſon to whom it was payable, the chief juſtice left the defendant in, to ſhew that it was delivered in the nature of an eſcrow; viz. as a reward, in caſe he procured the defendant to be reſtored to an office; which it being proved he did not effect, there was a verdict for the defendant. *Jefferies* v. *Auſtin.*

Upon a motion for an injunction upon a South-Sea contract. The case was, that the plaintiff had given three notes for the payment of the money. It was insisted, that this was a contract neither performed or compounded, within the statute 7 *Geo.* and therefore ought to have been registered: and Mr. Bootle, who moved it, endeavoured to distinguish this case upon a note from that of a bond, (which had often been resolved to be a performance or composition) for that the bond was a specialty which distinguished the contract; but a note is to be taken as part of the subsisting contract: but the court, upon the first opening, were clearly of opinion, that those notes being for a less sum, were a composition, and denied an injunction. *Fotheringham* v. *Mozato & al'*.

A note was given upon a day, promising payment a year after. The person who gave the note became a bankrupt after the note was given, and before the day of payment; and the question was, whether the bankrupt, being discharged *per* stat. 5 *Ann.* and 5 *Geo.* this note was discharged? And, *per* three barons against Price, it is not. *Long* v. *Bland*.

A *fieri facias* was brought, in the name of the attorney-general, against Sir John Elwell, setting forth that there had been an extent issued against Sir Matthew Kirwood; and an inquisition was taken thereon, which found Sir John Elwell indebted to Sir Matthew Kirwood, by two promissory notes, one for one hundred and fifty pounds, and the other for one hundred pounds; and prays, that the defendant should shew cause why the crown should not have execution for this debt.

The defendant pleads, that he was not indebted by these notes, or either of them, *die inquisitionis*. The attorney-general proved, only, Sir John's hand to the notes. The defendant gave in evidence, that Kirwood, before he failed, brought an action on these notes, and obtained judgment by *nil dicit*; and that a writ of inquiry of damages issued, and was executed, and thereupon a final judgment was had; and, therefore, that he could not be indebted on those notes, because they were merged in judgment, according to Higgins's case.

But it appeared, that although the interlocutory judgment was entered before the inquisition was taken upon the extent, yet the writ of inquiry and final judgment were not executed and obtained until a long while afterwards; for the inquisition on the extent was upon the 28th of November, 5 *Geo.* the interlocutory judgment was before, but the writ of enquiry was not executed until the seventh of February, 5 *Geo.*

And thereupon the lord chief baron Gilbert, who tried the cause, immediately directed the jury to find, as they did, for the crown.

*Nota*, First, By this plea it appears, that debts are not bound till the *teste* of the inquisition.

Secondly, That notes of hand are not merged by an interlocutory judgment, the debt not being ascertained before the writ of inquiry returned, and final judgment entered thereon. The *attorney-general* and *Sir John Elwell*.

The plaintiff brought two actions upon a promissory note, one against the drawer and another against the indorsor, and recovered in both. And now Weary moved, that they having tendered the principal in one, and the costs in both, no execution might be taken out; which the court ordered accordingly, and said, they would have laid the plaintiff by the heels, if he had taken out execution upon both. *Windham* v. *Wither*. *Idem* v. *Trul*.

A man, as principal creditor, takes out administration to J. S. and prefers a bill against the widow, and also against B, for a discovery of the assets of the husband.

B, in his answer, insists, he has no other assets than five hundred pounds and one hundred pounds, which he submits to the court, whether they are the husband's assets, or not.

As to the five hundred pounds, he says, that he being a relation of the wife, and observing her to live in great streights and difficulties, out of mere kindness and compassion, proposed to give her five hundred pounds to her own separate use, for her better support and maintenance, (but this, as appeared by the defendant's proofs, was without the husband's privity;) and in order to make such gift certain and sure to her, he gave her a promissory note, dated on the fourth of February, 1707.

"I acknowledge to have received of Mary Beverley five hundred pounds, to be laid out upon the public funds, and for which I promise to be accountable.

"Barthol. Burton."

As to the one hundred pounds, he says, that in the year 1709, the wife delivered, and deposited in his hands, one hundred pounds, to be kept and secured by the defendant for her separate use.

He insisted also, that he frequently paid her sums of money in her husband's life-time, and gave her cloaths, which he prayed an allowance for, out of the five hundred and one hundred pounds he submitted to account, but whether to the widow or to the administrator of the husband, referred to the judgment of the court.

This cause came on to be heard on Thursday the 11th of February, 1724; and, *per totam curiam*, (lord chief justice Eyre, Price, and Page only in court) it was decreed, for the plaintiff, that this note of five hundred and the one hundred pounds, should be taken as part of the assets of the husband; but gave the defendant Burton allowance for what sums he had advanced to the wife in her husband's life-time, in discharge of so much of the principal sums of five hundred and one hundred pounds; and it appearing that he had made an advantage of this money, they would not decree him to account for the interest. *Hodges* v. *Mary Beverley* and *Burton*.

*Bank, cash, and goldsmiths* NOTES.

By 6 *Ann. c.* 22. *s.* 9. 7 *Ann. c.* 7. *s.* 61. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *s.* 44. "during the continuance of the Bank, no body politic, erected, or to be erected, other than the said bank, nor any other persons united, or to be united in partnership, exceeding the number of six persons, shall in England borrow any sums of money on their notes payable on demand, or in less than six months from the borrowing thereof.

"Forging or counterfeiting any sealed bank-bill made or given out in the name of the governor and company of the Bank of England, for the payment of any sum of money, or of any bank-note of any sort whatsoever signed for the said governor and company, or altering or erasing any indorsement on any bank-bill or note of any sort, shall be felony without benefit of clergy.

"If any person shall alter, forge, or counterfeit, any bank-bill or bank-note, made, &c. or shall erase, or alter, any such bill or note, or any indorsement thereupon; or shall tender in payment, utter, vend, exchange, or barter, any such altered, &c. bill, &c. or any erased, &c. bill, &c. or the indorsement thereupon, or demand to have the same exchanged, for ready money, by the said governor and company, or their successors, or any other person, knowing such bill, &c. so tendered, &c. to be exchanged, &c. to be altered, &c. and with intention to defraud the said governor, &c. such person shall suffer as in cases of felony."

A bank-bill, payable to A, or bearer, being given to A, and lost, was found by a stranger, who transferred it to C, for a valuable consideration. C got a new bill in his own name; and by Holt, chief justice, A may have trover against the stranger who found the bill; for he had no title, though the payment to him would have indemnified the Bank; but A cannot have trover against C, by reason of the course of trade, which creates a property in the assignee or bearer. *Anon.*

Goldsmiths bills are governed by the same law, as other bills of exchange and every indorsement is a new bill, *per* Holt, chief justice. *Hill* v. *Lewis*. *Tassel* v. *Lewis*.

The notes of goldsmiths, whether they be payable to order or to bearer, are always accounted among merchants as ready cash, and not as bills of exchange. *Tassel* v. *Lewis*.

A goldsmith's note to pay, is evidence of his receiving money. *Ford* v. *Hopkins*.

The defendant, in each of these actions, at two of the clock in the afternoon, gave the plaintiffs goldsmiths notes in payment, which were tendered the next morning at nine, when the goldsmiths had a quarter of an hour before stopped payment. The chief justice directed the juries, that the loss should fall upon the defendants, there being no laches in the plaintiffs, who had demanded their money as soon as was usual in the course of dealing, and that the keeping the notes till the next morning, could not be construed

ſtrued a giving new credit to the goldſmiths. And both juries found accordingly. *Moore* v. *Warren*. *Holme* v. *Barry*.

The defendant paid the plaintiffs, who were the Sword-blade company, two goldſmiths notes, at three in the afternoon; the plaintiff's ſervant, the next morning, leaves the notes with the goldſmith, in order to have the money ready for him, as he came back a clearing; it being, as they proved, cuſtomary for the Bank, and the Sword-blade company, to ſend out their notes in the morning, and call for their money, as their ſervant returned in the evening: and the goldſmith, upon receiving the notes, always cancelled them, and got the money told out againſt the time it was uſually called for. The notes, in this caſe, were brought early in the morning, and received and cancelled: and between four and five in the afternoon, the ſervant that left them called again for the money, when the goldſmiths had juſt ſtopped payment: upon which the ſervant takes new notes of the ſame tenor and date with the cancelled ones he left in the morning: and becauſe the plaintiffs had done nothing but what was uſual, in leaving the notes inſtead of taking the money when he firſt called in the morning, the chief juſtice directed the jury to find for the plaintiffs, which they did. *Turner et al.* v. *Mead et al. Hayward* and *the Bank of England*.

Upon the 17th of September, being Saturday, about two o'clock in the afternoon, Harriſon gave to Manwaring, in payment, a note for one hundred pounds by Mitford and Martin, goldſmiths, dated the fifth of September, payable to Harriſon or order. The ſame afternoon, Manwaring pays away the note to J. S. Mitford and Martin paid all Saturday and Monday; and on Tueſday morning, as ſoon as the ſhop was opened, and before any money paid, J. S. came and demanded the money, but Mitford and Martin ſtopped payment: Manwaring paid back the money to J. S. and demanded it again of Harriſon, who refuſing to pay it, an action was brought. And, on *non aſſumpſit*, the chief juſtice told the jury, that giving the note is not immediately payment, unleſs the receiver does ſomething to make it ſo by neglecting to receive it in a reaſonable time; by which he gives credit to the maker of the note. He left it to them, whether there had been any neglect; and obſerved, that the note was payable to Harriſon, who had kept it eleven days, and probably would not have demanded it ſooner than Manwaring did, it appearing the goldſmiths were in full credit all the while. The jury deſired they might find it ſpecially, and leave it to the court, whether there was a reaſonable time: but the chief juſtice told them, they were judges of that: whereupon they found, for the defendant, and declared it as their opinion, that a perſon who did not demand a goldſmith's note in two days, took the credit on himſelf. *Manwaring* v. *Harriſon*. *Hoar* and *De Coſta*. *Eaſt-India company* v. *Chitty*. *Fletcher* v. *Sandys*. *Taſſel* v. *Lewis*. *Ward* v. *Evans*.

*An executor gave a legatee a bill on a goldſmith, but the legatee did not demand the ſame of the goldſmith; and the goldſmith breaks. It was held by the lord keeper, that the loſs ſhould be to the legatees; but if he had demanded it in convenient time, and the goldſmith had not paid it, but had broke, it would be no payment; but legatee might reſort back to the executor for his legacy: and it was ſaid, in this caſe, that four or five days ſhould be a convenient time for this purpoſe.* 2 Freem. Rep. 247. *See* 2 Freem. 257, *where it was held and admitted, that if a man receives a goldſmith's bill in payment for money, and he that receive the bill never demands it in three or four days time at the moſt, and afterwards the goldſmith breaks, that this neglect ſhall occaſion the loſs to fall upon the receiver; but if the goldſmith breaks in three days time, the loſs ſhall fall upon him who gave the bill for payment; for although taking a goldſmith's bill is payment,* prima facie, *yet it is ſubject to that contingency, that the bill may be had if it be demanded in three days time; and that, the lord keeper ſaid, was the practice in Guild-hall when he practiſed there: but in this caſe the plaintiff was offered his choice at the goldſmith's ſhop, to have either his money or a bill; and he choſe a bill; and the next day the goldſmith broke: and therefore the loſs falls not upon the party who paid the money, but upon the plaintiff; for it was his own fault that he would not take his money.* *See* 2 Show. 296. 12 Mod. 208, 521.

Caſe. The plaintiff declares, *quod inter mercatores et alios negotiantes intra hoc regnum*, there is, and time whereof, &c. hath been a cuſtom, that if any merchant, or other trader, make a bill or note in writing, by which he aſſumes to pay to any other perſon, or the bearer of the bill, ſuch a ſum of money, that then ſuch perſon, who makes ſuch a note, is bound by it, to pay ſuch ſum to ſuch perſon to whom the note is made payable, or to the bearer thereof: then the plaintiff ſhews, that the defendant, Segdwick, being a goldſmith, made a note in writing, by which he promiſed to pay to one Maſon, or to the bearer thereof, one hundred pounds; that Maſon delivered the note to the plaintiff for one hundred pounds in value received; and that, for non-payment of this one hundred pounds by the defendant to the plaintiff upon demand, the plaintiff brought this action againſt the defendant. *Non aſſumpſit* pleaded, and verdict for the plaintiff. And it was moved in arreſt of judgment, by ſerjeant Wright, that this action could not be brought in the name of the bearer, but it ought to be brought in the name of him to whom it was made payable. *Quod fuit conceſſum per curiam.* For the difference is, where the note is made payable to the party or order. In the latter caſe the indorſee has been allowed to bring the action in his own name; for there can be no great inconvenience, becauſe the indorſement of the party muſt appear upon the back of the note, or ſome other thing, ſufficiently intimating his aſſent; but where it is payable to the party, or bearer, if the bearer be allowed to bring the action in his own name, it may be very inconvenient; for then any one who finds the note by accident may bring the action. And, though this laſt has been frequently attempted, it has never yet prevailed; and therefore, in a caſe in this court between Horton and Cogs, the goldſmith, this difference was taken and agreed; and the judgment there (being the ſame caſe with this principal caſe) was arreſted; but the court ſaid that the bearer might bring the action in the name of him to whom the note was made payable; and judgment was arreſted *niſi*, &c. and the ſame point was reſolved between Hodges and Steward: but there it was reſolved, that the indorſement to the bearer binds the party who immediately indorſes it to him. The principal point was alſo reſolved between Eſcourt and Cudworth. *Nicholſon* v. *Sedgwick*.

If A buy a thing of B, and gives him a goldſmith's bill in payment, which the vendor accepts without exception; if the goldſmith was worth nothing, and A does not know it, it is a good payment. *Secus*, if A knew him to be in a failing condition, *per Holt*. *Anon*.

If A owes B money, and he gives him a goldſmith's note in payment, the debt is not diſcharged till B receives the money, if there be not default in him that it was not paid; or if he does not at the receipt of the note give an acquittance for the debt to A, *per* Holt, chief juſtice. *Ward* verſus Sir *Peter Evans*.

If A and B be two goldſmiths, and B gives a note to C for one hundred pounds, A gets poſſeſſion of it, and brings it to B, and takes a new note for it, giving up his former, it is no payment; *per* Holt, chief juſtice. 12 *Mod.* 521. Same caſe.

The court held, that a goldſmith's note is no payment, being only paper, and received conditionally, if paid, and not otherwiſe, without an expreſs agreement to be taken as caſh. *Ward* v. *Evans*.

A ſells goods to B, and B is to give a bill in ſatisfaction. B is diſcharged, though the bill is never paid: for the bill is payment; but otherwiſe a bill ſhould never diſcharge a precedent debt or contract; but if part he received, it ſhall only be a diſcharge of the old debt for ſo much. *Clark* v. *Mundall*.

A goldſmith's note was given in part of payment on a Saturday, and not offered till the Monday following to the drawer, when the caſhier of the drawer cancelled the note, but not having money to pay it, gave a new note of the ſame date with the former. This is no new credit given to the drawer, but that the indorſor is ſtill liable. *Mead* verſus *Caſwell*.

If any perſon ſhall ſteal, or take by robbery any goldſmiths notes for payment of money, being the property of any other perſon or perſons, or of any corporation, notwithſtanding they are deemed in law choſen in action, it

ſhall

ſhall be deemed and conſtrued to be felony, of the ſame nature, and in the ſame degree, and with or without benefit of clergy, in the ſame manner it would have been if the offender had ſtolen any other goods of like value with the money due on ſuch notes, or ſecured thereby, and remaining unſatisfied.

A note of one goldſmith was taken in by another goldſmith, who gave his note for the ſame ſum, and ſent his dunner many times for the money; but at length the goldſmith failed. The ſecond goldſmith was decreed to pay the money, though his note given by him was for ſo much received on account; and that he had entered in the margin of the other note, whom he had received it of, and ſo lord keeper affirmed a former decree made at the Rolls. *Trowell* v. Sir *Stephen Evans*.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE has no other manufactures than ſome woven ſtockings, but produces corn and malt; and near Nottingham is found tobacco-pipe and potters clay. This ſhire brews fine ale in great abundance, and clubs its quota of the two thouſand ton of cheeſe, mentioned in Derbyſhire, to be ſhipped for London.

NOVA-SCOTIA. No part of our American ſettlements has occaſioned more conteſts than this, or has ſo often changed maſters; having been ſeveral times alternatively poſſeſſed by French and Engliſh, though our title to it is founded on Cabot's diſcoveries, and was therefore originally regarded as a part of North-Virginia, and as ſuch, within the charter of the weſtern company, who gave ſtrict orders to thoſe in their ſervice, by all means to prevent foreign nations from ſettling in their limits.

Sir Samuel Argal, then governor of Virginia, made a cruiſing voyage in 1618, round the coaſt northwards, as far as Cape Cod in New England, about five or ſix years before the Engliſh adventurers arrived in that country; and being informed by the Indians, that ſome white men had ſettled farther north, he went, and found a fort built, with a French ſhip riding at anchor before it, both which he took; and the French afterwards cancelled their patent from their king; and acquainted him of another ſettlement made by their countrymen at a place they had named Port-Royal, in a bay on the ſouth-weſt of Acadia, which he alſo went to and reduced.

When Sir Ferdinand Gorges was preſident of the New England company, he propoſed to Sir William Alexander to procure a particular grant for the land to the northward of their patent, who accordingly applied for and obtained it of king James I. in 1621; and the next year ſent a ſhip with paſſengers to plant and ſettle there; but it being late in the ſeaſon, they were forced to winter in Newfoundland, and to wait the ſpring's return before they could get away, which they effected as ſoon as the weather would permit it, and proceeded on their voyage till they happily concluded it, and landed in what they afterwards called Luke's-Bay; and Sir William Alexander having publiſhed a book, with the deſcription of the country, placed it in ſo tempting a light, that his ſovereign created a new order, called the knights of Nova-Scotia, purely to facilitate its plantation.

This objected ſettlement, however, proved abortive; and there was afterwards another grant made of the northern part of this country, to Sir David Kirk, from whom the French king bought it, or at leaſt contracted to give him 5000 l. for it; and Sir William Alexander, ſome years after, ſold his property to Claude de la Tour, a French Nobleman; which plainly proves that the rights and titles by which they held them were acknowledged by that nation.

Oliver Cromwell, in 1654, ſent Major Sedgwick to diſlodge the French from Port-Royal, which he effected, and took poſſeſſion of the ſaid tract of land; on which Charles de St. Eſtina (I believe it ſhould be Eſtienne) ſon and heir to Claude de la Tour, came to England, and on making out his claim under Sir William Alexander, then earl of Sterling, Cromwell allowed it.

On the 20th of September 1656, the ſaid Charles de St. Eſtina ſold and conveyed his property in the ſaid country to Sir Thomas Temple and William Crown, who divided the ſaid land by deed of partition.

Sir Thomas afterwards, viz. in the year 1662, made out his right, and obtained a patent from the crown, not only for the territory mentioned therein, but for the government thereof during his natural life, and the ſole monopoly of the fiſhery and trade with the Indians.

By the treaty of Breda, in 1667, this land was again ceded to the French; and in 1670, the poſſeſſion was delivered to them by Sir Thomas, in virtue of the ſaid treaty, and in obedience to expreſs orders from the earl of Arlington, then ſecretary of ſtate, though he never conveyed his right to the lands, nor ever received a ſingle farthing of 16200 pounds ſterling, then ſtipulated to be paid him in recompence of his diſburſements for building forts, maintaining garriſons, and the debts due to him from the natives, though much ſollicited for, both at the court of England and France.

In 1690, on the twenty-eighth of April, Sir William Phipps, having by order of the Maſſachuſet's government, ſet forward on an expedition for the reduction of this country, ſucceeded therein; and having diſpoſſeſſed the French thereof, and appointed a governor, he returned to New-England on the thirtieth of May following, and the Engliſh remained maſters of it till 1697, when by the treaty of Riſwick it was once more reſtored to the French.

In 1710, it was again reconquered by the forces of her late majeſty queen Anne, ſent from hence and New England, under the command of general Nicholſon; and by the treaty of Utrecht in 1712, was yielded up to Great-Britain, and has ever ſince continued in the poſſeſſion of this crown, having been conſtantly garriſon'd by a regiment of ſoldiers, till its late ſettlement augmented the number of theſe, as well as of its inhabitants.

Sir Thomas Temple died on or about the twenty-ſeventh of March, 1674, at Brentford in Middleſex, leaving his nephew John Nelſon, Eſq; of Boſton in New-England, his heir and ſole acting executor to his will; who by deed, bearing date the fifteenth of April, 1731, ſold and conveyed all his right, title, claim, &c. in and to the ſaid lands, debts, rents, &c. to Samuel Waldo, Eſq; of Boſton aforeſaid; of which the ſaid Samuel Waldo afterwards ſold and conveyed an undivided moiety to W. Beawes Eſq. And as they were conſcious of what importance the ſettlement of this province would be to the northern colonies, they ſecured a conſiderable number of Swiſs proteſtants to begin it, not imagining, after ſo clear a deduction of their title, they ſhould have any impediment to ſo neceſſary a work, pregnant with innumerable advantages to the nation. However, leſt their right ſhould be futurely conteſted, on account of the aforeſaid ſeveral treaties and changes of poſſeſſion, they humbly intreated his majeſty, about thirteen years ago, to confirm their grant, or to give them a new one; which petition he was graciouſly pleaſed to refer to a committee of council, and the committee referred it to the conſideration of the attorney and ſollicitor general; which being juſt before the breaking out of the late war, this occurrence made them deſiſt from preſſing the affair; ſo that we believe it was never reported; however, they humbly conceive their right to be no way prejudiced, much leſs extinguiſhed thereby.

This country lies in a good and healthy climate, being in the ſame latitude with Old France; enriched with a fertile ſoil, abounding in fine navigable rivers, that, like its coaſts, are full of various kinds of fiſh; more eſpecially ſalmon, ſturgeon, herrings, cod, and whales; and beſides theſe, the province is capable of producing hemp, flax, maſts, iron, and all the naval ſtores, *extra* of furs, oil, whalebone and poorjack, of which ſeveral cargoes were caught and cured about thirty years ſince at Canſo; it can alſo as conveniently as any other, ſupply the ſugar colonies with proviſions, boards, ſtaves, &c. and conſequently, under proper encouragement, ſoon become capable of taking off large quantities of Britiſh manufactures, and in time prove a valuable eſtabliſhment to its mother country.

In the year 1749, a town was built in this colony, and called Hallifax, from the noble patron of the undertaking, who then preſided at the board of trade. By the goodneſs of its harbour and convenience for the Britiſh men of war to winter in during the expeditions againſt Canada, together with its happy ſituation for the cod fiſhery, this bids fair to be one of the moſt conſiderable towns in North America, notwithſtanding its northern climate, being free from ice the whole winter. Several other towns have been ſettled in this colony during the late war concluded in 1762, which ſhews that the old maxim, of war being unfavourable to new ſettlements, may now be exploded.

NOVA ZEMBLA, *or* NEWLAND, which the Dutch call the iſland of Veygats, is ſituated in the north of the Frozen Ocean, between fifty and eighty degrees of eaſt longitude, and near the north pole; ſeparated from the province of Samoieda, in Ruſſia, by a narrow ſtraight called the ſtraights of Veygats. Whether it be an iſland, or part of ſome great continent, is uncertain, no ſhips having ever paſſed to the northward of it, though many attempts have been made to find out a north eaſt paſſage to China that way. The Dutch, indeed, paſſed the ſtraights of Veygats, ſouth of Nova-Zembla, and wintered on the eaſt ſide of it, *anno* 1596, but did not find it practicable to ſail further, for the fields of ice they met with. There are no conſtant inhabitants here; but the Samoieds and Oſtiacs climb over the mountains of ice in the ſtreights, when they are frozen over, and hunt elks and rein-deer here, at proper ſeaſons.

NOVOGOROD, in Ruſſia. This dutchy is ſituate on the eaſt of Pleſkow, and the lake of Ladoga on the north; on the eaſt of the dutchy of Belozeca, and Twere; and the province of Rzeva on the ſouth.

It is called Novogorod Veleki, or Superior, to diſtinguiſh it from the Inferior, or Nizi Novogorod. Its extent from eaſt to weſt on the ſouthern part, is computed to extend near two hundred and fifty miles, but grows more and more narrow towards the north. Its chief produce is corn, flax, hemp, wax, honey, and leather; in all which it drove a conſiderable traffic, when it was governed by its own princes, though, even then, it was very often obſtructed by its wars with Muſcovy; but, ſince it is become under its ſubjection, it is much decayed of its flouriſhing condition.

The city of Novogorod Veliki, capital of this province, called by the French, Neugard, and by the Dutch New Garten, ſtands on the Wolohova, and is a large and conſiderable place, very populous, and well fortified.

NOYONNOIS, a province in France, was formerly a part of Picardy, but under the government of the iſle of France, and is bounded on the north by Vermandois, part of which belongs to the election of Noyon; on the eaſt by Laconois; on the ſouth by Soiſſonnois; and on the weſt by the bailiwick of Roy in Picardy. There are here but two cities of any note, viz.

NOYON, ſituate on the declivity of a hill, of an eaſy deſcent, on the rivulet Vorſa, which, at a quarter of a league's diſtance, falls into the Oiſe. It is ſeven leagues diſtant from Soiſſons to the north-weſt; five from Laon to the weſt; and ſixteen from Paris to the north. It is a pretty large city, containing about 4500 inhabitants, and is well ſituated for inland trade, which conſiſts here in wheat and oats, which they ſend to Paris; they have alſo manufactories of linen, cloths, lawns, and tanned leather.

*Chauny* is ſituated on the river Oiſe, near the borders of the iſle of France, three leagues diſtant from Noyon to the eaſt, and ſomething leſs from La Fere to the ſouth. It is a royal city, and the ſeat of a caſtleward.

NUBIA, the kingdom of, in *Africa*, is bounded on the north by Upper Egypt; on the eaſt by the Red Sea; on the ſouth by Ethiopia, from which it is ſeparated partly by the Nile, and partly by a long ridge of mountains, and the deſart of Gorham; and on the weſt it is bounded by the kingdom of Goaga.

This country, though under ſo hot a climate, being wholly within the torrid zone, is yet in many places, eſpecially on each ſide of the Nile, very fruitful, the inhabitants being much given to agriculture, and produces ſome fine fruits, plenty of corn, and ſugar-canes; but of this laſt they ſeem not to know the uſe rightly, ſo that it bears little or no value, either among the natives or foreigners.

The chief commodities this country affords, are gold in great quantity, and very fine muſk, ivory, ſanders, and other medicinal woods, &c.

*Dongala*, the metropolis of the kingdom, is ſaid to be very populous, and to contain about ten thouſand houſes, but moſt of them meanly built of wood and mud only. The inhabitants, however, are rich, and drive a conſiderable commerce with Cairo, and other parts of Egypt, where they exchange their own commodities, more eſpecially ſanders and muſk, for arms, linen cloth, and other wares.

*Lennar*, another large city, ſaid to contain one hundred thouſand ſouls, ſtands on the weſtern bank of the Nile; about two hundred and fifty miles ſouth of Dongala. They trade in gold, muſk, elephants teeth, and other commodities, for which they receive in exchange, ſpices, ſilks, cottons, and other merchandizes from India; for they make no uſe of money in all their commerce, though they have variety of coins among them. *See* AFRICA.

NUMERO, in commerce, &c. a term prefixed to any number of things marked N°.

NUTMEG, is the kernel of a roundiſh nut which grows in the Eaſt-Indies. The outſide covering of this fruit is ſoft and fleſhy, like that of a walnut, and ſpontaneouſly opens when the nut grows ripe; immediately under this lies the mace, which forms a kind of reticular covering, through the fiſſures whereof appears a hard, woody ſhell that includes the nutmeg. Thoſe kernels are of an oval figure, about half an inch long, full of irregular wrinkles and of an aſh colour: they are at firſt ſoft; but being dried by keeping, grow hard, and appear inwardly variegated with yellowiſh or dark reddiſh veins, of a pleaſant ſpicy ſmell, and an agreeable, aromatic, bitteriſh, and ſomewhat aſtringent taſte. The nutmeg, when in perfection yields a conſiderable portion of eſſential oil. From ſixteen ounces of nutmegs, Geoffroy obtained one ounce of oil; after the diſtillation, a fat, unctuous matter, was found ſwimming on the water, like tallow, almoſt intirely deſtitute of all aromatic virtue. The ſame quantity of nutmegs yielded, on expreſſion, three ounces and a quarter of oil of a ſebaceous conſiſtence, greatly reſembling the nutmegs both in taſte and ſmell.

There is another ſort of nutmeg called the female, which is of a longiſh and almoſt cylindrical form, and ſomewhat aromatic taſte and ſmell; but this is not in uſe in the ſhops. The trade of nutmegs is in the hands of the Dutch.

Nutmegs have been long uſed as a medicine, and are deſervedly looked upon as a warm and agreeable aromatic. They are ſuppoſed likewiſe to have an aſtringent virtue, and are made uſe of in that intention in diarrhæas and dyſenteries. Their aſtringency is ſaid to be promoted by torrefaction, but this does not appear to the taſte. This treatment certainly deprives the ſpice of ſome of its finer oil, and therefore renders it leſs efficacious to any good purpoſe; and, if we may reaſon from analogy, probably abates of its aſtringency. Geoffroy relates from Bontius, that too liberal a uſe of preſerved nutmegs is apt to produce lethargic diſorders, hurts the ſtomach, and diſpoſes to inflammations.

NUX-VOMICA, in natural hiſtory, a flat round kernel of a fruit, ſomewhat downy, and of an extremely firm texture; it has no ſmell, but is of a very bitter taſte. It was not at all known to the ancient Greeks. We have it only from the Eaſt-Indies, together with another drug, the *lignum colubrinum*; and this is the tree on which the *nux vomica* grows.

Many have concurred in ranking this kernel among the alexipharmics.

NYON, built on the banks of the Lake Leman, is a great paſs for goods that this town, Valais, and the Milaneſe, export from ſeveral provinces of France. Its ſoil is as proper for vines, as that part of the country of Vaud, bordering on the ſaid lake, which produces thoſe good wines on the Coaſt and Vaud, that are ſo much eſteemed, of which the trade of the latter in Switzerland, and of the Coaſt in foreign countries, is very conſiderable.

# O.



O, The fourth vowel, and fourteenth letter of the alphabet; among the ancients, was a numeral letter, ſignifying eleven, when a daſh was added at the top, as $\bar{O}$, it ſignified eleven thouſand.

OAK, a tree well known. It is one of the principal materials in building, being ſtrong in all puſitions.

There are five ſorts of oak in England; but we ſhall only recommend two kinds of them to be planted for timber. The beſt is the upright oak, which grows more erect than any other; the other is the large ſpreading oak. We have many inſtances of theſe kinds, that have attained to ſuch prodigious greatneſs of ſtature, that the timber alone of one tree has been ſold for upwards of fifty pounds. The oak doth not only afford us the moſt ſerviceable timber for naval architecture, but alſo for other building. Its bark is uſeful to tanners, and the oak is therefore cut down about April, when its bark will peel. The acorns are excellent food for hogs. This tree delights in moiſt ground of a conſiderable depth, and will proſper on the coldeſt clay, and, as Mr. Evelyn ſays, in gravel alſo.

Some oaks having been ſown in hedge-rows, have, in the ſpace of thirty years, borne a ſtem of a foot diameter. There have been ſome ſeedling oaks of twenty years growth, of near that ſubſtance, which had never been removed from the place where they were ſown; and every plantation of oaks ſhould be ſet with acorns, on the very ſpot where they are to remain, and we ſhould be careful to choſe our acorns from thriving, vigorous trees. The diſtance between them ought to be about thirty-three feet, and the ſpace between the oaks ſhould be interſown for underwood.

The oak is an ineſtimable tree to plant, in a proper ſituation, for the benefit of poſterity. There is no part in huſbandry which men commonly more fail in, neglect, and have cauſe to repent of, than that they did not begin planting betimes. And, indeed, ſuch perſons who have been deaf to demonſtration, at the firſt poſſeſſion of their eſtates, and are afterwards convinced of the vaſt advantages to be reaped by an early plantation, either from the experience of their neighbours or themſelves, muſt bave a pungent retroſpect upon this occaſion.

Every man is naturally willing to enjoy the profits of the works, as we may ſay, of his own hands; and he, therefore, who begins at fifty to be ſenſible tbat he has loſt many a fair thouſand, by neglect of improving his eſtate between twenty and that age, is to himſelf indeed a loſer, but a warning to others to avoid that folly.

OAK-APPLES, *or* OAK-BALLS, a kind of galls, or excreſcences, ariſing out of the oak. *See* GALLS.

OAKHAM, *or* OAKUM, among ſhipwrights, implies the matter of old ropes, untwiſted, and pulled out again into looſe hemp, uſed in caulking of ſhips.

OAR, in navigation, an inſtrument whereby a boat, barge, galley, &c. is rowed along the water.

OATHS. [*Cuſtom-houſe oaths, and other revenue oaths.*]

1. Of the oaths taken by the officers of the Cuſtoms.

The *comptrollers*, who by 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 1. as well as the cuſtomers, were to be choſen from amongſt the beſt and moſt ſufficient men, and not to be made for affection or reward, or upon any ſolicitation, but upon deſert; and were to ſit with the cuſtomers, and in all things to cheque and imitate their tranſactions; and as the cuſtomers were wont to write their accounts in rolls, the comptrollers were to keep counter-rolls; which counter-rolls, or accounts, they were to deliver into the Exchequer yearly, upon oath. And now there are collectors appointed, to receive and account for the king's duties; they are likewiſe to cheque all their tranſactions, by examining and ſigning all accounts, diſpatches, &c. and by keeping the like books of accounts; and they are to be privy to all orders of the commiſſioners, and to be conſulted with, in the whole management and buſineſs of their reſpective poſts, and to join with the collectors in all their proceedings.

And for the due and faithful diſcharge and execution of their duties, thoſe comptrollers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oaths, viz.

"Ye ſhall ſwear, That well and truly ye ſhall ſerve the king, in the office of comptroller of the king's cuſtoms and ſubſidies, in the place of cuſtomer; and truly ye ſhall enter all the goods and things cuſtomable, the which ſhall come to the ſaid port, or ſhall paſs from the ſame; and that ye ſhall no gift take for to do your office, nor for any thing that may fall in diſadvantage of the king; nor any merchandize, nor any other thing cuſtomable, ye ſhall not ſuffer to paſs out of the ſaid port, without cuſtom due to be paid: and ye ſhall do the office yourſelf, and dwell thereupon in your proper perſon, without making any ſubſtitute or deputy under you: and ye ſhall write the rolls with your own hands: and the king's profit ye ſhall wait and do, inaſmuch as you may, after your knowledge and power: as God you help, and his ſaints."

*Some rules, in regard to oaths in particular, that are to be obſerved by the officers of the Cuſtoms in general, by* 13 *and* 14 Car. II. c. 2. ſ. 32. 4 *and* 5 Will. *and* Mar. c. 5. ſ. 25.

1. That no perſons are to be employed in the buſineſs of the Cuſtoms, till they have given ſecurity, and have taken their corporal oaths in the following form, viz.

Deputation dated the , ſureties, D. E. of E. F. of penalty *l. juravit apud die coram nobis.* B. C. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

"I, A. B. (his employment) do ſwear to be true and faithful in the execution and diſcharge (to the beſt of my knowledge and power) of the truſt committed to my charge and inſpection in the ſervice of his majeſty's Cuſtoms; and that I will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, directly or indirectly, other than

than my ſalary, or what is or ſhall be allowed me from the crown, or the regular fees eſtabliſhed by law, for any ſervice done, or to be done, in the execution of my employment, upon any account whatſoever. So help me God.

A. B.

But note, this act does not direct who ſhall adminiſter this oath. Which oath is to be adminiſtered by the principal officers of every out-port, or any two of them, and to be entered or regiſtered in a book to be kept in the Cuſtom-houſe for that purpoſe; and if the ſecurity be given at the port, the bond muſt be returned to the commiſſioners, and the ſufficiency of the ſureties, with their places of abode, certified to the examiner of ſecurities.

2. That all perſons employed in the Cuſtoms, in any out-port, muſt, at their admiſſion, likewiſe take the aforeſaid oath, before two juſtices of the peace, in the county, town, or place, where their employment ſhall be, upon forfeiture of their employments, for refuſal or neglect: and the ſaid juſtices muſt certify the taking of this oath, to the next general quarter-ſeſſions, by 6 and 7 *Will.* and *Mar.* *c.* 1. *ſ.* 5, 6.

And when any officer, having taken theſe oaths, is thereupon to be admitted, the collector and comptroller are to deliver him his deputation or commiſſion, taking a receipt for the ſame, in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, and alſo at the foot of the copy of his inſtructions annexed to his bond, which are to be tranſmitted together to the commiſſioners.

*The* CUSTOMERS.

Who by 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 5. were to be choſen from amongſt the beſt and moſt ſufficient men to be found, to the lord treaſurer's eſtimation, and not for affection or reward, nor upon any ſolicitation, but upon deſert: and by the king's letters patent, under the great ſeal of England, were appointed collectors of the great and petty Cuſtoms, as alſo of the ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage: which office they were not to have by 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. 31 *H.* VI. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. for life, or term of years, but only during the king's pleaſure; and if their patents were to be made contrary, they were to be void.

And for the due and faithful diſcharge and execution of their duties, theſe cuſtomers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

"Ye ſhall ſwear, That ye ſhall make continual abiding in the port , and ſhall overſee the charge of wool, leather, and wool-fells, and all other merchandizes and things cuſtomable, and the number of ſacks in the ſaid port; and, inaſmuch as in you is, ye ſhall not ſuffer that the king have hurt or loſs there; and that true account thereof ye ſhall yield; and of the iſſues of the ſaid Cuſtoms, truly ye ſhall anſwer, without fauxim, or fraud, to be done in any point: as God you help, and his ſaints."

They were, by 7 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 13. upon ten days notice given them in writing, by the king, or ſix of his privy-counſellors, to declare what money due to the king, was in their hands, and to make ready and full payments, upon forfeiture of office; and they were by 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1. to ſwear to their accounts in the Exchequer.

But now there are particular officers appointed, by the name of collectors, who receive the king's cuſtoms, ſubſidies, &c. and account for them to the comptroller-general; ſo that cuſtomers have only the accounts to keep, which they ſtill deliver into the Exchequer, yearly upon oath.

*The* SEARCHERS *or* FINDERS.

Who, by 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1. were to be choſen as the cuſtomers were, and were appointed for their aſſiſtance in the buſineſs of the Cuſtoms, without doors, to ſee that no goods were imported or exported without due payment of duty; and not being allowed any ſalary, were to take the moiety of all forfeitures and ſeizures for their pains; and they were to keep entries of all cockets, &c. paſſed to them from the cuſtomers, and likewiſe of their own ſeizures, and were to account yearly for the truth of their tranſactions.

And for the due and faithful diſcharge and execution of their duties, theſe ſearchers were, at their admiſſion, to take the following oath, viz.

"Ye ſhall ſwear, That ye ſhall ſerve the king well and truly in the office of the ſearchership in the port of and do the king's profits in all things that belongeth to you to do, by way of your office: and well and truly, ye ſhall make due ſearch of all the ſhips and veſſels coming in or paſſing out of the ſaid port, and truly anſwer the king of all that ſhall belong unto him in your ſaid office, without fraud or maligne, after your wit and power: as God help you, and his ſaints."

Under the article affidavit, we have conſidered the ill conſequences which are greatly to be feared, may attend the multiplicity of oaths that are required to be taken in this nation by traders, in relation to the public revenue. If the conſtitution of the public revenue was ſuch, that no oaths need be required to be taken but by the officers concerned in the collection, it might prove far leſs injurious to the public; by removing the motive to perjury; which is grown to ſuch a pitch among us, that all wiſe and good men lament it as one of the greateſt evils that can attend the community.

This conſideration alone is inducement ſufficient to point out the neceſſity of ſo changing the ſyſtem of the public revenue, that there might be no occaſion for any oath to be taken in regard thereunto, except by the officers concerned in it; ſo that we need here only make ſome ſhort obſervations on oaths in general, while the revenue continues in its preſent ſtate and conſtitution.

As the impoſition of an oath was always eſteemed to be the greateſt tie and obligation that can be contrived, for the diſcovery of the truth of any fact; and the uſual confirmation of all oaths, being in the moſt ſolemn manner to call upon, and appeal to, the Almighty God, who knows the ſecrets of all hearts, to judge of, and be a witneſs to, the truth thereof; and to beg his help, upon no other terms, than that what is there aſſerted be true, and in teſtimony thereof, kiſſing his holy Goſpel: we ſhould think that none but the moſt profligate, or the moſt ignorant of mankind, would be ſo hardy as to diſhonour God's name, by thus taking it in vain, which muſt either ſuppoſe that he knows not whether we ſpeak true or falſe, or elſe, that he will countenance our ſolemn lies and perjuries.

And, with reſpect to the perſons thus affirming the truth of any fact or thing upon oath, it muſt be conſidered, that if he knows there is not perfect truth in what he ſwears, he is guilty of wilful and downright perjury: as he alſo is, if he ſwears to the poſitive truth of that whereof he is wholly ignorant, nay, or only doubtful; for, though the ſame ſhould be true, yet ſuch ſwearing is but a venture, to what might as well be falſe. And, as all perſons making oath to the truth of any thing, are ſuppoſed to perfectly know the whole affair, and to have carefully informed and ſatisfied themſelves in every particular circumſtance, which may occaſion the leaſt doubt; it is not only very ſilly, but very wicked, to ſoothe themſelves with the poor evaſion, that the fact or caſe might be ſo for aught they know, becauſe they know nothing of the matter. And of this abominable nature is that ſhameful excuſe for thoſe perjuries, which, it is to be feared, are but too frequently committed at the Cuſtom-houſe, viz. that it is but a Cuſtom-houſe oath; as if God, who is omnipreſent, did not ſee, and was not equally offended at profaning his name there, as at any other place whatſoever: but let theſe offenders remember the puniſhment which is denounced againſt them in the third commandment. Since, therefore, oaths are of ſuch a ſacred and ſolemn nature, they ought to be adminiſtered with all imaginable reverence, and not ſlightly and with indifference; but, after having interrogated the perſon concerning every particular circumſtance, and being ſatisfied that he underſtands the nature of an oath, and does not offer to ſwear ignorantly or raſhly, and not having any reaſon to doubt his ſincerity, the whole oath ſhould be maturely, deliberately, diſtinctly, and reverendly rehearſed to him.

And,

And, as the multiplicity of oaths in the buſineſs of the revenue, particularly in the Cuſtoms, does, it is to be feared, in a great meaſure, leſſen that awe and juſt regard that ought to be paid to ſuch ſolemn and ſacred ties; it is much to be wiſhed, that fewer oaths were neceſſary, and therefore we would recommend, that any ſuperfluous oaths ſhould not by any means be exacted; but only ſuch as are either expreſsly enjoined by the letter of the law, or are abſolutely neceſſary for the diſcovering or aſcertaining any thing for the ſervice of the revenue, which cannot be obtained by any other means.

As to the perſons to which the oaths are to be adminiſtered, it muſt be carefully obſerved that they who offer to ſwear, are the proper perſons in the eye of the law; and where the laws have not particularly directed, that they be ſuch perſons as are the moſt proper, according to the nature of the caſe, as being either principally concerned, or the moſt knowing in the whole affair; provided they are not boys or ſuch ignorant perſons as are not capable of underſtanding the nature and conſequences of an oath.

Beſides the oaths before mentioned, there are likewiſe promiſſory or obligatory oaths, particularly in the report of a ſhip outwards, concerning the not relanding of goods intitled to a drawback, bounty, &c. the breach of which is not leſs criminal, than of any other oath; and, if the maſter, at the time of making ſuch oath, has no real intention to make it good, or whether he then has or not, if he afterwards breaks the ſame, he certainly muſt be deemed guilty of perjury.

And, laſtly, as to oaths in general, it muſt be remembered, that they are always to be taken according to the common and uſual interpretation of the words, and in the ſame ſenſe that they are known to be deſigned, and not with any private reſerve or evaſion. *See* OFFICERS.

OBLIGATION. *See* BOND.

OBOLUS, in pharmacy, a weight, two of which make a ſcruple, and three ſcruples one drachm.

OBSERVATION, among navigators, implies the taking the ſun or ſtars meridian altitude, in order thereby to find the latitude of the place.

When they have found the meridian altitude of the ſun or ſtar, they ſubſtract it from ninety degrees, which gives the diſtance of the object from the zenith; and the latitude of the place, is an arch of the meridian, intercepted between the zenith of any place and the equinoctial, being always equal to the height of the viſible pole, or arch of the meridian, comprehended between the pole and the horizon.

As the zenith diſtance is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the object and zenith of any place, being always equal to the complements of the object's meridian altitude; and as the declination of any object is an arch of the meridian, comprehended between its center and the equinoctial, it follows, that if the zenith diſtance, or complement of the meridian altitude, and the declination of any heavenly object be given, we may from thence find the latitude of the place of obſervation.

If the object be in the equinoctial, or have no declination, the meridional zenith diſtance will be equal to the latitude of the place; for then the zenith diſtance will be the arch of the meridian, intercepted between the equinoctial and zenith; which, if the object, when in the meridian, be to the ſouthward of the place of obſervation, the latitude will be north; but, if to the northward, it will be ſouth. This is ſo eaſy that it needs no example.

If the object appears in the zenith, the declination will be equal to the latitude of the place, for then the declination is equal to the arch of the meridian, comprehended between the zenith and equinoctial; which will be of the ſame name with it, that is, if the declination be north; but, if the ſouth, the latitude will be ſouth. This is alſo ſo eaſy, that it would be ſuperfluous to give an example.

If the object hath both declination and zenith diſtance, and they be both of one denomination, i. e. if the object, when on this meridian, be to the northward of the place of obſervation, and its declination be north; or, if it lie to the ſouthward, and its declination be ſouth; then, if the zenith diſtance be equal to the declination, the latitude vaniſhes, the place being ſituated under the equinoctial; but, if the zenith diſtance be greater than the declination, their difference will be the latitude, which will be of a contrary name with the declination and zenith diſtance, that is, if the declination, &c. be north, the latitude will be ſouth, and the contrary; but, if the zenith diſtance be leſs than their declination, their difference will be the latitude, which will be of the ſame name with the declination and zenith diſtance.

If the meridional zenith diſtance and the declination of any heavenly object be of contrary denomination, that is, the one north, and the other ſouth; then their ſum will be the latitude of the place; which will always be of the ſame name with the declination, that is, if the declination be north, the latitude is north, &c.

When the latitude of the place exceeds the complement of the declination, and are both the ſame way, then the object will never ſet but tranſit the meridian on the contrary ſides of the zenith; from the greateſt meridional zenith diſtance, take the leaſt, and half the remainder will be the complement of the latitude of the place; which is north, if the greater of the ſecond zenith diſtances be north; but, if the greater be ſouth, the latitude is ſouth.

OCEAN, the great ſea, or the vaſt collection of ſalt and navigable water which encompaſſes the whole globe of the earth.

The proportion of the ſurface of the ocean to that of the earth, ſo far as diſcoveries have been made, may be found, by taking the paper of a terreſtrial globe, and ſeparating the land from the ſea with a pair of ſciſſars, and comparing the reſpective weights of each. This experiment ſuppoſes the delineation of the globe to be correct; the paper whereon it is printed ſhould alſo be of an equal thickneſs as near as poſſible. In this manner Dr. Long weighed the papers of Mr. Senex's globe of ſixteen inches diameter, and found the weight of the paper whereon the ocean was repreſented, was three hundred forty-nine grains, and that of the earth one hundred and twenty-four grains; ſo that the ſurface of the ſea is almoſt three times as great as that of the land hitherto diſcovered. He tells us, that he omitted weighing the parts contained between the polar circles, becauſe it is not known to any degree of exactneſs, how much of them is land, and how much is ſea.

The ſurface of the whole ocean, or of all the ſeas of the globe (Mr. Keill computes in his Examination of Dr. Burnet's Theory of the Earth) to be 85490506 ſquare miles; and, therefore, ſuppoſing the depth of the ocean *communibus locis* to be one-fourth of a mile, the quantity of water in the whole is 21372626½ cubic miles.

This great and univerſal ocean is ſometimes, by geographers, divided into three parts; as, 1. The Atlantic and European Ocean, lying between part of Europe, Africa, and America. 2. The Indian Ocean, lying between Africa, the Eaſt-Indian Iſlands, and New Holland. 3. The great South Sea, or the Pacific Ocean, which lies between the Philippine iſlands, China, Japan, and New Holland, on the weſt, and the coaſt of America on the eaſt. Sometimes, alſo, with regard to Europe, they call that the Hyperborean Ocean, which incloſes it on the north; and that which incloſes it on the weſt, the Weſtern Ocean. That ſea, which incloſes Aſia on the north and eaſt, is often called the Tartarean, and ſometimes the Chineſe Ocean; and, on the ſouth, Aſia is bounded by three ſeas, which are called the Indian, Perſian, and Arabian Oceans. Alſo the great ſea, on the eaſt of Africa, is called the Oriental Ocean, as is alſo that vaſt ſea which incloſes America on the eaſt.

### *Of the changes of land into ſea and ſea into land.*

One of the principal cauſes of the changes that happen on the earth, is the motion of the ſea, a motion which it had at all times; and the chief motion of the waters of the ſea, is from eaſt to weſt; whence it ſeems to us that the ſea has gained on the Eaſtern coaſts, as well of the old as the new continent, a ſpace of about five hundred leagues. Amongſt other proofs of this, it may be ſaid, that all the ſtreights which join ſeas, point from eaſt to weſt; the ſtreights of Magellan, the two ſtreights of Forbiſher, that of Hudſon, the ſtreights of the iſland of Ceylon, thoſe of the ſea of Corea, and of Kamtſchatka, have all this direction, and appear to have been formed by the irruption of waters, which being driven from eaſt to weſt, opened for themſelves thoſe paſſages in the ſame direction, wherein they

they alſo have a more conſiderable motion than in all other directions: for in all thoſe ſtreights there are very ſtrong tides, whereas in thoſe ſituate on the Weſtern coaſts, as thoſe of Gibraltar, the Sound, &c. the motion of the tides is almoſt inſenſible.

The inequalities of the bottom of the ſea change the direction of the motion of the water; they have been produced ſucceſſively by the ſediments from water and the things it has tranſported, either by its motion of flux and reflux, or by other motions; for we do not aſſign as the only cauſe of thoſe inequalities the motion of flux and reflux, though the principal, the firſt, and the moſt conſtant, but we ſhould admit as cauſe the action of the winds on the ſurface of the ſeas; for the agitation they communicate to it, is much more conſiderable, as to external effects, than that of the tides; it even extends to great depths, as may be ſeen by the different things ſeparated from the bottom of the ſeas, and which are ſcarce ever thrown up on ſhore but in times of ſtorms.

Between, and even ſome degrees beyond, the tropics, there reigns continually an eaſt wind; and this wind, which contributes to the general motion of the ſea from eaſt to weſt, is as ancient as the flux and reflux, ſince it depends on the courſe of the ſun and the rarefaction of the air, produced by the ſun's heat. Here are then two conjunct cauſes of motion, and the greater under the equator than any where elſe; the firſt, the flux and reflux, which, as it is well known, is more ſenſible in the ſouthern climes; and the ſecond, the eaſt wind, which blows continually in thoſe ſame climes: theſe two cauſes have concurred ſince the formation of the globe, to produce the ſame effects, that is, to make the waters move from eaſt to weſt, and to agitate them with greater force in that part of the world, than in all other parts; and it is therefore that the greateſt inequalities of the ſurface of the globe are found between the tropics. The part of Africa comprized between thoſe two circles is nothing more, as it were, than a group of mountains, whoſe different chains extend, for the greater part, from eaſt to weſt, as we may be aſſured thereof, by conſidering the direction of the great rivers of that part of Africa; the ſame may be ſaid of the parts of Aſia and America comprehended between the tropics, and a judgment may be formed of the inequality of the ſurface of thoſe climates by the number of high mountains and iſles found therein.

From the combination of the general motion of the ſea from eaſt to weſt, of that of the flux and reflux, of that produced by currents, and that formed by winds, an infinity of different effects have happened, as well on the bottom of the ſea, as on the coaſts and continents. Varenius ſays, that it is very probable that the gulphs and ſtreights have been formed by the reiterated effort of the ocean againſt the land; that the Mediterranean Sea, the gulphs of Arabia, Bengal, and Cambaye, have been formed by the irruption of waters, as well as the ſtreights between Italy and Sicily, between Ceylan and India, between Greece and Eubea, and that the ſame may be ſaid of the ſtreights of the Manillas, Magellan, and Denmark. As a proof of the irruption of the ocean into the continents, and of its having abandoned different tracts of land, it may be alledged, that very few iſlands are found in the midſt of great ſeas, and never a great number of iſles neighbouring upon one another; that in the immenſe ſpace occupied by the Pacific Sea, ſcarce two or three little iſlands are found towards the middle; that in the vaſt Atlantic Ocean between Africa and Brazil, none are found but the inconſiderables iſles of St. Helena and Aſcenſion; but that all iſlands lie near great continents, as the iſles of the Archipelago near the continent of Europe and Aſia, the Canaries near Africa, all the iſles of the Indian Sea near the Eaſtern continent, the Antilles iſlands near that of America, and that none but the Azores are far advanced in the Sea between Europe and America.

The inhabitants of Ceylan ſay, that their iſland had been ſeparated from the peninſula of India by an irruption of the ocean, ſo that this popular tradition is very probable; it is likewiſe believed, that the iſland of Sumatra had been ſevered from Malacca, the great number of rocks, ſhelves, and banks of ſand found between both ſeeming to be a ſufficient proof of it. The inhabitants of the Malabar coaſt ſay of a certainty, that the Maldivia iſles made a part of the continent of India; and, in general, it may be believed, that all the Eaſtern iſles have been diſjoined from continents by the irruption of the ocean.

It appears, that formerly the iſland of Great-Britain made a part of the continent, and that England joined France, the beds of earth and ſtone, which are the ſame on both ſides of the ſtreights of Dover, and the ſhallowneſs of the water, ſeeming to indicate that it was ſo. Suppoſing, ſays Dr. Wallis, as every thing ſeems to corroborate this opinion, that England formerly communicated with France by an iſthmus below Dover and Calais; the great ſeas on both ſides beat againſt the coaſts of this iſthmus, by an impetuous flux, twice in twenty-four hours; the ſea of Germany, which is between England and Holland, beat againſt this iſthmus on the eaſt, and the ſea of France on the weſt; and this was ſufficient in time to wear down and deſtroy a tract of narrow land, ſuch as we ſuppoſe this iſthmus formerly was: the flux of the French ſea acting with great violence, not only againſt the iſthmus, but alſo againſt the coaſts of France and England, muſt neceſſarily have carrried off, by the motion of the waters, a great quantity of ſand, earth, and mud, from all the parts againſt which the ſea acted; but being ſtopped in its current by this iſthmus, it ſhould not have depoſited, as it might be believed, ſediments againſt the iſthmus, but ſhould have tranſported them into the great plain, now forming Romney-Marſh, which is fourteen miles long, and eight broad; for whoever has ſeen this plain, cannot doubt of its having been formerly under the waters of the ſea, becauſe in high tides it would ſtill be partly overflowed, were it not for the dikes of Dunchurch.

The German ſea muſt have acted in like manner againſt the iſthmus, and againſt the coaſts of England and Flanders, and muſt have carried the ſediments to Holland and Zeland, the ground of which formerly under water, has riſen upwards of forty feet; on the other ſide on the Engliſh coaſt, the German ſea muſt have occupied that large valley where the river Stour now runs, at upwards of twenty miles diſtance, beginning from Sandwich, Canterbury, Chattam, Chilam, as far as Aſhford, and perhaps farther: the ground is now much more elevated than it formerly was, the bones of a ſea-horſe buried at ſeventeen feet depth, and the anchors of ſhips and marine ſhells having been found at Chattam.

Now, it is very probable that the ſea might have formed new tracts of land by the accumulation of ſand, earth, mud, &c. for we plainly ſee that in the iſland of Okney, adjoining the marſhy coaſt of Romney, there had been a low ground always in danger of being overflowed by the river Rother; but in leſs than ſixty years the ſea has raiſed this ground conſiderably by carrying to it at every flow and ebb a conſiderable quantity of earth and mud, having at the ſame time dug ſo deep the channel through which it enters, that in leſs than fifty years the depth of this channel is become great enough to receive large veſſels; whereas, before it was a ford where men might paſs.

The ſame thing has happened about the coaſt of Norfolk, the bank of ſand, that extends obliquely from the coaſt of Norfolk towards the coaſt of Zealand, having been formed in the like manner; this bank is the place where the tides of the German and French ſeas meet each other ſince the iſthmus has been broken down; and it is there the earth and ſand, carried off from the coaſts, are depoſited; and, perhaps, in time this bank of ſand may form a new iſthmus.

It is very probable, ſays Ray, that the iſland of Great-Britain was formerly joined to France, and made a part of the continent: it is not known whether this happened by an earthquake, or by an irruption of the ocean, or by the work of men, upon account of the utility and convenience of the paſſage, or for other reaſons; but what proves that this iſland made part of the continent, is that the rocks and the coaſts at both ſides are of the ſame nature, and compoſed of the ſame materials, and to the ſame depth or height, ſo that along the coaſts of Dover are found the ſame beds of ſtone and chalk which are found between Calais and Boulogne; the length of thoſe rocks along theſe coaſts is very nearly the ſame on each ſide, that is, about ſix miles; the ſmall breadth of the channel in this place is only twenty-four Engliſh miles over, and the little depth, comparatively to the neighbouring ſea, give room to be-

lieve, that England had been ſeparated from France by accident; add to thoſe proofs, that there were formerly wolves and even bears in that iſland, and it is not to be preſumed that they ſwam over there, nor that men had tranſported thither thoſe hurtful animals; for, in general, we find the hurtful animals of the continents in all the iſles that lie adjacent to them, and never in thoſe at a diſtance, as the Spaniards obſerved when they arrived in America.

In the time of Henry I. king of England, there happened a great inundation in a part of Flanders by an irruption of the ſea; in 1446, a like irruption deſtroyed upwards of ten thouſand perſons on the territory of Dordrecht, and more than a hundred thouſand about Dullart in Friſeland and in Zealand, and there were in thoſe two provinces upwards of two or three hundred villages laid under water, the ſummits of whoſe towers and points of ſteeples are ſtill ſeen riſing a little above the ſurface of the waters.

On the coaſts of France, England, Holland, Germany, and Pruſſia, the ſea has retired in ſeveral parts. Hubert Thomas ſays, in his deſcription of the country of Liege, that the ſea formerly ſurrounded the walls of the city of Tongres, which is now thirty-five leagues diſtant from it; which he proves by ſeveral good reaſons, and among others, he ſays, that ſtill in his time were ſeen the iron rings in the walls to which were faſtened the ſhips that arrived there. We may alſo conſider as lands deſerted by the ſea in England the great marſhes of Lincoln and the Iſle of Ely, in France La Crau of Provence; and the ſea likewiſe has retired pretty conſiderably from the mouth of the Rhone ſince the year 1665. In Italy, a conſiderable tract of land has been formed at the mouth of the Arno, and Ravenna which was formerly a ſea-port of the Exarchs, is now no longer a maritime town: all Holland ſeems to be new ground, where the ſurface of the land is almoſt upon a level with the bottom of the ſea, though the country be conſiderably raiſed, and riſes every day by mud and earth brought thither by the Rhine and Meuſe; for formerly it was computed that the land of Holland was in ſeveral parts fifty feet lower than the bottom of the ſea.

It is pretended, that in the year 860, the ſea in a furious ſtorm drove towards the coaſt ſo great a quantity of ſand that it blocked up the mouth of the Rhine near Catt, and that that river overwhelmed the whole country, threw down trees and houſes, and diſcharged itſelf into the bed of the Meuſe. In 1421, there was another inundation, which disjoined the city of Dordrecht from the *terra firma*, drowned ſeventy-two villages, ſeveral caſtles, a hundred thouſand ſouls, and deſtroyed a prodigious number of cattle.

In the county of Kent in England, there was at Hyth, a port town which was choaked up, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken to the contrary, and notwithſtanding the great ſums expended at different times for emptying and cleanſing it: here are found a prodigious quantity of ſhells and other ſpoils of the ſea throughout the extent of ſeveral miles, formerly heaped upon one another, and not long ſince covered over by mud and earth, on which are now paſtures. On the other hand, there are firm lands, which the ſea gradually has gained upon and covered, as the lands of Goodwin, which belonged to a lord of that name, and which now are nothing more than ſands covered by the waters of the ſea: thus, the ſea gains ground in ſeveral parts, and loſes it in others; and this depends on the different ſituation of the coaſts, and the places where the motion of the tides ſtops, and where the waters tranſport from one place to another, earth, ſand, ſhells, &c.

On the mountains of Stella in Portugal, there is a lake in which are found the wrecks of ſhips, though this mountain is upwards of twelve leagues diſtant from the ſea. Sabinus, in his Commentaries on the Metamorphoſes of Ovid, ſays, that it appears from hiſtorical monuments, that in the year 1460 a ſhip, with its anchors, was found in a mine on the Alps.

It is not only in Europe that we find examples of thoſe changes of ſea into land and land into ſea; the other parts of the world might furniſh us perhaps with more remarkable, and in greater number, if they had been well obſerved.

Calecut was formerly a celebrated city, and the capital of a kingdom of the ſame name; now it is but a large village ill built, and thinly inhabited; the ſea, which for a century paſt has gained much upon that coaſt, has overwhelmed the better part of the ancient city with a good ſtone fortreſs that was in it; the ſhipping now caſt anchor on their ruins, which appear at low water, and on which ſhips are often wrecked.

The province of Jucatan, a peninſula in the gulph of Mexico, made formerly a part of the ſea: this piece of land extends into the ſea about one hundred leagues in length from the continent, and does not exceed twenty-five leagues in its greateſt breadth; the quality of the air is there intirely hot and moiſt, and though there are neither ſtreams nor rivers in ſo long a ſpace, the water is every where ſo near, and ſo great a number of ſhells are found in opening the earth, that one is inclined to conſider this vaſt extent as a place that made formerly a part of the ſea.

The inhabitants of Malabar pretend, that formerly the Maldivia iſlands were attached to the continent of India, and that the violence of the ſea had ſeparated them; the number of thoſe iſles is ſo great, and ſome of the channels that ſeparate them are ſo narrow, that the bowſprits of the ſhips that paſs there, ſtrike down the leaves of trees from both ſides; and in ſome places an active man, holding to a branch of a tree, may vault into another iſle. The coco-trees at the bottom of the ſea, are a ſufficient proof that thoſe iſlands were formerly dry land; for ſometimes coco-nuts are detached from them, which are thrown upon the ſhore by ſtorms: the Indians eſteem them as a valuable acquiſition, and attribute the ſame virtues to them as to the bezoar.

It is believed, that formerly the iſland of Ceylan was united with the continent, and made a part of it; but that the currents, which are extremely rapid in many parts of the Indies, had ſeparated, and formed an iſle of it.

The ſame thing is believed in regard to the iſle of Rammanakoiel and ſeveral others. What is certain is, that the iſland of Ceylan has loſt thirty or forty leagues of ground on the north-weſt ſide, which the ſea has ſucceſſively gained.

It appears, that the ſea has lately deſerted a great part of the advanced lands, and of the iſles of America; we have juſt now ſeen that the ſoil of Jucatan is compoſed only of ſhells; and the ſame obtains in the lower lands of Martinico, and the other Antilles iſlands. The inhabitants have called the bottom of their ſoil, lime, becauſe they make lime with thoſe ſhells, whoſe banks are immediately found under the vegetable earth.

There are ſome tracts of land which are ſometimes covered with water and ſometimes not, as ſeveral iſles in Norway, the Maldivia iſles, gulph of Cambaye, &c. The Baltic Sea has gained inſenſibly upon a great part of Pomerania, and covered and ruined the famous port of Vineta: in like manner, the ſea of Norway has formed ſeveral iſles, and advanced into the continent.

The ſea can form hills and raiſe mountains ſeveral different ways, firſt, by tranſports of earth, mud, and ſhells from one place to another, either by its natural motion of ebbing and flowing, or by the agitation of waters cauſed by the winds; ſecondly, by ſediments and impalpable parts which it detaches from coaſts and its bottom, and which it tranſports and depoſits at conſiderable diſtances; and, laſtly, by ſands, ſhells, mud, and earth, which the winds of the ſea drive often againſt the coaſts, which produces downs and hills, which, as the waters deſert gradually, they become parts of the continent.

The motions of the ſea are therefore the principal cauſes of the changes that have happened, and that happen on the ſurface of the globe; but this cauſe is not the only: there are many others, leſs conſiderable, that contribute to thoſe changes; rivers, ſprings, the melting of ſnow, torrents, froſts, &c. have changed conſiderably the ſurface of the earth. Rains have diminiſhed the height of the mountains; rivers and ſprings have raiſed plains; great rivers have choaked up the ſea at their mouths; the melting of ſnows and torrents have formed huge cavities in gorges and in vallies; and froſts have ſplit rocks and made them tumble down from mountains: a great number of examples may be alledged of the different changes occaſioned by all theſe cauſes; ſo that fire, air, and water produce continual changes on the face of the earth, all which become very conſiderable in time; and not only there are general cauſes whoſe effects are periodical and regular, whereby the ſea aſſumes ſucceſſively the place of the earth and abandons its own,

own, but there are a great number of particular cauſes that contribute to thoſe changes, and produce overthrows, inundations, and ſinkings in; whence the ſurface of the earth, the moſt ſolid that we know of, is ſubject, as all the reſt of nature, to perpetual viciſſitudes.

OFFENCES againſt penal ſtatutes may be proſecuted, tried, &c. by way of action, &c. before juſtices of aſſize, *niſi prius*, gaol-delivery, oyer and terminer, or juſtices of peace for the county, &c. where committed. 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 1.

Informer or plaintiff not proving the offence by evidence to the jury, the defendant to be found not guilty. 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 2. *See* INFORMATIONS.

OFFICERS of the Cuſtoms not to obtain their offices for gift, favour, or affection, but for deſert, as being of the beſt and moſt lawful men, and ſufficient to their eſtimation and knowledge. 12 *Rich.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 1.

Not to have their offices for life or term of years, but during the ſovereign's pleaſure only, and the ſaid officers to remain in his hands, under the government of the Treaſury.

Letters patents, charters, or grants made otherwiſe, are void. 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 1. 17 *Rich.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1. 20 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 5. 31 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1.

To reſide by themſelves, or their ſufficient deputies, at the ſeveral head ports, members and creeks, on penalty of one hundred pounds, loſs of office, and impriſonment. 1 *Hen.* IV. *cap.* 13. *ſect.* 1. 4 *Hen.* IV. *cap.* 20. *ſect.* 1. 13 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Eliz. c.* 11. *ſ.* 8. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 14.

No perſon may bargain or ſell any office, or the deputation thereof, or any part thereof, nor receive any money, fee, or reward, or any promiſe, agreement, or aſſurance for any office in the Cuſtoms, upon penalty of forfeiting the place by the ſeller, and the buyer to be adjudged incapable to enjoy the ſame, and the bargain, ſale, &c. to be void. 5 and 6 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 2, 3.

Or their deputies or clerks, not to have any ſhips of their own, nor to freight any ſhips, nor to buy or ſell any merchandize, nor to have any wharfs or keys, nor hold any common hoſteries, or taverns, nor to be factors for any merchant denizen or alien, or hoſt to any merchant alien, on forfeiture of forty pounds. 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 1. 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1. 11 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 1. 20 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1.

No perſon to be cuſtomer, comptroller, or ſearcher in any port where he is common officer, or deputy to ſuch common officer, upon forfeiture of forty pounds, for every half year he executes both offices. 3 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 7. *ſect.* 1.

Two of the commiſſioners firſt named in the commiſſion are, before the chancellor, or chief baron of the Exchequer, or maſter of the Rolls; and every other of the commiſſioners, patent-officers, their deputies, clerks or ſervants, all other officers of the Cuſtoms in the port of London, are, before any two of the ſaid commiſſioners, upon their admiſſion, to take their corporal oaths for the true and faithful execution of their truſts and employments, to the beſt of their knowledge and power, and that they will not take or receive any reward or gratuity, except their ſalaries, and what is allowed them from the crown, or their regular fees eſtabliſhed by law.

Officers in the out-ports at their admiſſion to take the like oath before two juſtices of the peace.

Refuſal or neglect of taking ſuch oath, is forfeiture of office.

The taking of ſuch oath to be certified to the next general quarter-ſeſſions. 6 and 7 *W.* and *M. c.* 1. *ſect.* 5, 6.

Deputies, clerks, and ſervants before employed in the Cuſtoms, are to take their corporal oaths before the commiſſioners and principal officers in the port of London, or the principal officers in the out-ports, or any two of them, for the true and faithful execution and diſcharge of their truſts and employments, to the beſt of their knowledge and power: which oaths are to be entered and regiſtered in the Cuſtom-houſes of the reſpective ports where the perſons are employed. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 33.

In England. To receive the ſacrament of the Lord's ſupper, according to the uſage of the church of England, in ſome publick church, upon a Lord's day, within three months after admiſſion, under the penalties, forfeitures, diſabilities, as in article 16. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſect.* 2. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. *ſect.* 24.

A certificate thereof, under the hands of the miniſter and churchwardens, muſt be produced in the court where the oaths mentioned in the following article are directed to be taken; and there confirmed by the oaths of two credible witneſſes at the leaſt. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſect.* 3.

At any time before the end of the next term, or general quarter-ſeſſion, after admiſſion, are to take and ſubſcribe the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy and abjuration (in the words preſcribed by 1 Geo. I. cap. 13.) if they reſide within London or Weſtminſter, or within thirty miles thereof, in the courts of Chancery, King's Bench, Common Pleas, or Exchequer; or elſe at the general quarter-ſeſſion of the county, &c. where they reſide, between the hours of nine and twelve in the forenoon; upon forfeiture of office, unleſs it be in inheritance, and a deputy be appointed, who qualifies himſelf, and is approved by his majeſty under his privy-ſignet.

Executing their office after the expiration of the time, without compliance, are diſabled to ſue in courſe of law, or to be guardian to any child, or executor, or adminiſtrator to any perſon, and rendered incapable of any legacy, or deed of gift, or of enjoying any office, or of voting for members of parliament, and to forfeit five hundred pounds. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 2, *ſect.* 2, 4, 5. 1 *Ann. c.* 22. *ſect.* 5. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. *ſect.* 1, 3, 9, 10, 20, 29. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſect.* 3, 4.

But upon compliance, after forfeiture, may be capable of a new grant either of the ſaid office, or any other, if not granted to, or enjoyed by another perſon. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſect.* 14. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. *ſect.* 16. 27.

Perſons bred up in the popiſh religion, and profeſſing themſelves to be popiſh recuſants, ſuffering their children to be educated in the ſaid religion, are incapable of any office.

Such children likewiſe incapable, till they are converted to the church of England, and have taken the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy, and ſubſcribed a declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, before the juſtices of the peace, at the quarter-ſeſſions, and have received the ſacrament after the uſage of the church of England, and obtained a certificate thereof under the hands of two or more of the ſaid juſtices. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſect.* 8, 9.

In Scotland. To take and ſubſcribe the oaths of allegiance and abjuration, and ſubſcribe the aſſurance, in the court of Seſſion, Juſticiary, Exchequer, or quarter-ſeſſions, within three months after admiſſion, under the ſame penalties, forfeitures, and diſabilities, as the officers in England. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. *ſect.* 1, 4, 5, 9, 10, 16, 20, 29.

The deputations or authorities granted to collectors, ſurveyors, or other inferior officers of the cuſtoms, not void by the death or removal of the commiſſioners who granted them. 12 *Ann*, *c.* 8. *ſect.* 13.

Taking a bribe, or conniving at a falſe entry of any goods, to the prejudice of his majeſty, or ſuffering prohibited goods to paſs, are incapable of any office for the future, and to forfeit one hundred pounds; and the perſon giving the bribe, or offering any bribe, whether it is accepted or not, to forfeit fifty pounds. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 19. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſect.* 24.

But the offenders revealing their offences within two months, to the treaſurer of England, the chancellor, under-treaſurer, or barons of the Exchequer, are to be acquitted. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 20.

Illegally detaining goods, or neglecting or refuſing to make repayments and allowances, or after notice given, not giving out and executing their warrant, liable to double coſts and damages. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 34.

Or their deputies, may go on board any ſhips, and there remain till all the goods be diſcharged. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 4.

Upon oath made before the lord-treaſurer, or any of the barons of the Exchequer, or the chief magiſtrate of the place, that goods liable to duties have been landed or conveyed away without due entry, they may iſſue out a warrant to enable any officers of the Cuſtoms, with the aſſiſtance of a ſheriff, juſtice of the peace, or conſtable (within one month after offence committed) to enter into any houſe in the day-time; and in caſe of reſiſtance, to break

them open, and to ſeize the ſaid goods. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 19. *ſect.* 1, 2.

The information upon ſuch houſe falſe, the party injured may recover full coſt and damages againſt the informer. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 19. *ſect.* 4.

Authorized by writ of aſſiſtants out of the court of Exchequer, may in the day-time (at any time after the offence) with a conſtable, &c. enter any houſe, ſhop, &c. and in caſe of reſiſtance, break open doors, cheſts, &c. in order to ſeize and bring away prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, and ſecure them in his majeſty's ſtorehouſe of the port. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 5.

Forcibly hindered, affronted, abuſed, beaten, or wounded in the due execution of their office, the next juſtice of the peace, or other magiſtrate, may commit the offender to priſon, till the next quarter-ſeſſions; when the juſtices may puniſh him by fine, not exceeding one hundred pounds; and the ſaid offender is to remain in priſon till diſcharged of the fine and impriſonment by the court of Exchequer, or he diſcovers the perſon that ſet him on work. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 6.

Eight or more armed perſons, tumultuouſly aſſembled, ſo offending, to be tranſported to the Britiſh plantations for any term not exceeding ſeven years. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſect.* 34.

Such offenders returning into Great-Britain or Ireland, before the expiration of the ſaid term, to ſuffer as felons. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſect.* 35.

Offenders diſcovering two or more of their accomplices to the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, within two months, are to be acquitted, and to receive forty pounds for each: to be paid by the receiver-general of the Cuſtoms, upon a certificate of their conviction, under the hand of the judge or juſtice of the court. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſect.* 36, 38.

The like, beſides other rewards and advantages, for other perſons diſcovering within three months. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſect.* 37.

A member of the houſe of commons may not, by himſelf or deputy, or any other perſon in truſt for him, enjoy or execute any office relating to the Cuſtoms, upon penalty of being incapable of ſitting or voting in the ſaid houſe. 12 and 13 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſect.* 87, 88. 6 *Ann*, *c.* 7. *ſect.* 25.

May not in any manner endeavour to perſuade, or diſſuade any elector in his vote for the choice of a member to ſerve in parliament, upon the penalty of one hundred pounds; one moiety thereof to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh; and incapacity to hold any office under his majeſty. 12 and 13 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſect.* 89.

Cuſtomers and comptrollers to take bonds from, and give oaths to gentlemen or officers in the army, going over ſea to ſerve foreign princes, that they will not turn papiſts, nor enter into conſpiracies againſt his majeſty; receiving for every bond ſixpence, and to return a regiſter thereof yearly into the Exchequer, upon forfeiture of five pounds for every bond, and twenty ſhillings for every oath not certified. 3 *Jac.* I. *c.* 4. *ſect.* 19, 20, 21.

Granting a warrant for, or ſuffering any of the enumerated goods from the plantations, to be carried to any other country, until firſt landed in Great-Britain, forfeit their places, and the value of the goods. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſect.* 9.

Or others razing, counterfeiting, or falſifying any cocket, tranſire, let-paſs, certificate, or other Cuſtom-houſe diſpatch, forfeit one hundred pounds, and ſuch diſpatch to be void. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 8.

Granting a falſe coaſt-certificate, forfeit their office and fifty pounds; to be impriſoned a year without bail, and to ſuffer ſuch corporal puniſhment as the court of Exchequer ſhall think fit, and to be incapable of ſerving again in the Cuſtoms. 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7. *ſect.* 5. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 8.

Viz. cuſtomers not mentioning the colour, length, content, weight, and value of foreign goods in coaſt-certificates, are to forfeit their office, and to be fined at the king's pleaſure. 3 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 3. *ſect.* 1.

Viz. cuſtomers and collectors of the Cuſtoms, within ten days notice from the king, or ſix of his privy-council, are to declare what money due to the king is in their hands, and to pay the ſame when commanded, upon forfeiture of office. 7 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 1. *ſect.* 13.

Viz. cuſtomers, upon yielding their accounts in the Exchequer, to be ſworn thereto. 5 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 20. *ſect.* 1.

Viz. cuſtomers, collectors, and comptrollers, concealing the cuſtoms duly entered and paid, forfeit treble the value of the goods, and are to make fine and ranſom. 4 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 3. *ſect.* 1. 18 *Eliz.* *c.* 9. *ſect.* 5.

Viz. collectors detaining public money, are to pay intereſt for the ſame after the rate of twelve pounds *per cent. per annum*, with treble damages to the perſons grieved, and to be diſmiſſed. 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſect.* 1.

Viz. collectors, diverting or miſapplying the money received on the branches therein appropriated, are to be diſmiſſed, rendered incapable to ſerve his majeſty, and to forfeit double the ſum diverted or miſapplied, and twelve *per cent.* intereſt. 9 *Ann*, *c.* 21. *ſect.* 14.

Appointed for managing, collecting, &c. the reſpective branches, refuſing or neglecting to pay the monies into the Exchequer, or diverting or miſapplying any part thereof, are to forfeit their offices, and to be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty in any place of profit or truſt, and to forfeit double the value of the ſum diverted or miſapplied.

Collectors detaining any monies received for any of the ſaid duties, are to be diſmiſſed, and to be charged with intereſt at twelve pounds *per cent. per annum*, and be liable to treble damages. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 44. *ſect.* 42. 4 *Ann*, *c.* 6. *ſect.* 10. 5 *Ann*, *c.* 19. *ſect.* 12. 6 *Ann*, *c.* 11. *ſect.* 7. 8 *Ann*, *c.* 4. *ſect.* 12. 8 *Ann*, *c.* 7. *ſect.* 37. 9 *Ann*, *c.* 6. *ſect.* 20. 9 *Ann*, *c.* 11. *ſect.* 48. 9 *Ann*, *c.* 12. *ſect.* 29. 10 *Ann*, *c.* 19. *ſect.* 122. 10 *Ann*, *c.* 26. *ſect.* 76. 12 *Ann*, *c.* 9. *ſect.* 32. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſect.* 22. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 10. *ſect.* 45.

Officers of the Cuſtoms in Great-Britain, viz. cuſtomers, collectors, receivers, &c. All lands, tenements, profits, commodities, and hereditaments, which any officer, whoſe whole receipt from the beginning, or yearly receipt, exceeds three hundred pounds, hath or ſhall have whilſt he remains accountable, ſhall be liable to the payment of his arrearages or debts, and may be put in execution for the ſame by way of extent. 13 *Eliz.* *c.* 4. *ſect.* 1, 10.

If arrearages are not paid within ſix months after the account be finiſhed, or debt known, the king may, by letters patent, make ſale of ſo much of the lands, &c. as will ſatisfy the debt. 13 *Eliz.* *c.* 4. *ſect.* 2, 3.

Such ſale may be made, though the officer be dead, if the account be ſtated, or debt known within eight years after his death; unleſs ſuch officer had a *quietus eſt*, or a diſcharge in his life-time. 27 *Eliz.* *c.* 3. *ſect.* 2, 8.

Lands, &c, purchaſed after the perſon became an officer, if for his own uſe, though in the name of another perſon, yet to be liable to the crown's debts. 13 *Eliz.* *c.* 4. *ſect.* 5.

The crown's debts being fully, or in part ſatisfied, by ſale of the lands, &c. the officer's ſureties are to be diſcharged accordingly. 13 *Eliz.* *c.* 4. *ſect.* 15. 27 *Eliz.* *c.* 3. *ſect.* 5.

Embezzling any goods lodged in any warehouſe in their cuſtody, are to forfeit double the value, and full coſts. 8 *Ann*, *c.* 13. *ſect.* 27.

May not exact unlawful fee. But may take ſuch recompence for extraordinary ſervice and attendance at times and places not required by law, as the commiſſioners in the port of London, and the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller of the out-ports, or any two of them, ſhall determine. 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 7. *ſect.* 15.

Conniving at frauds, or guilty of any other offences, are ſubject to penalties ſpecified in ſeveral articles of this work.

In diſputes upon any trial, whether a perſon is an officer, it ſhall be ſufficient proof that he was ſo reputed, and had ſo acted, without producing his authority, unleſs there be evidence to the contrary. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſect.* 25. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſect.* 32.

Attempting to corrupt them, the penalty is five hundred pounds. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſect.* 40.

Officers, or their aſſiſtants, being reſiſted or moleſted in the execution of their duty, by perſons paſſing armed with prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, may oppoſe force to force

force in defence of themſelves and execution of their duty; and if apprehended for beating, maiming, or killing any perſon ſo reſiſting them, are to be admitted to bail. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſect.* 35.

Offices of the Cuſtoms in Great-Britain, either by patent, grant, or otherwiſe, are not void by the demiſe or death of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, but are to continue in force for the ſpace of ſix months after, unleſs ſooner ſuperſeded or made void by the ſucceſſor: but the officers not required to take any oaths, *de novo*, in reſpect of being continued for ſuch ſix months only. 1 *Ann*, *c.* 8. *ſect.* 2. 4 and 5 *Ann*, *c.* 8. 6 *Ann*, *c.* 7. *ſect.* 8, 18. 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 5 and 23. *ſect.* 2, 7.

Of the Cuſtoms, Exciſe, and Stamp duties, ſeverally continued for ever; with a proper number of commiſſioners, and a comptroller, in each of them. 9 *Ann*, *c.* 21. *ſect.* 12.

Of profit, and all other payments from the crown, are liable to a deduction not exceeding ſixpence in the pound; which his majeſty may, by a warrant under the great ſeal of Great-Britain, privy-ſeal, or royal ſign manual, cauſe to be made, out of all ſalaries, fees, wages, and other payments, or any arrearages thereof from the crown, for the uſe of his majeſty's civil liſt. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27. *ſect.* 19. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 17. *ſect.* 19. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſect.* 26.

OFFING, *or* OFFIN, among ſeamen, implies that part of the ſea, at a good diſtance from the ſhore, where there is deep water, and no need of a pilot. When a ſhip is ſeen from the ſhore, ſailing to ſeaward, they ſay, ſhe ſtands for the offing, &c.

OICOYA. *See* PANAMA.

OIL, *oleum*, an unctuous, inflammable matter, drawn from ſeveral natural bodies.

The chemiſts call it ſulphur, being the ſecond of their hypoſtatical, and of the true five chemical principles. To this they attribute all the diverſity of colours, and all the beauty and deformity of bodies. Probably their various odours in a great meaſure ariſe from it. It ſweetens the acrimony of ſalts; and by ſtopping, or filling up the pores of a mixt body, keeps it longer from corruption where it abounds. And we find that the evergreens, ſuch as box, holly, &c. abound more with oil than other plants. There are two ſorts of oils; one which ſeems to be mixt with ſpirit (for it can never be drawn pure) and which will ſwim upon water; ſuch as oil of anniſeeds, lavendar, roſemary, &c. which the chemiſts call eſſential, and is commonly drawn in a limbec, with ſtore of water. And another kind, which probably is mixed with ſalts, and theſe will ſink in water; ſuch are the oils of ponderous woods, as guaiacum, box, clover, &c.

There are ſome things, which are very improperly called oils, as oil of tartar *per deliquium*, which is only a fixed ſalt diſſolved. Oil of vitriol, which is nothing but the moſt cauſtic and ſtrongeſt part of the ſpirit of vitriol. Oil of antimony, which is only a mixture of antimony and an acid ſpirit.

Oils are of two kinds, the one obtained by expreſſion, and the other by diſtillation. The method of procuring oil by expreſſion from nuts, ſeeds, maſte, &c.

Take two pounds of ſweet almonds, blanched and beat ſmall in a ſtone mortar; wrap the maſs up in a piece of ſtrong thick canvas, and commit it to a ſtrong ſcrew-preſs; where being ſqueezed between two cold iron cheeks, it will gradually part with a conſiderable quantity of oil.

This experiment holds of all thoſe vegetable matters that contain a copious oil, in a looſe manner, or in certain cavities or receptacles; the ſides whereof being broke, or ſqueezed, makes them let go the oil they contained. And thus the zeſt or oil of lemon-peel, orange-peel, citron-peel, &c. may be obtained by preſſure, without the uſe of fire; for the rinds of thoſe fruits being preſſed green, the oily parts will ſeparate from the aqueous, and may be rendered pure by waſhing them in fair water.

How far this method of obtaining oils may be applied to advantage ſeems not hitherto conſidered: it has been commonly applied to olives, almonds, linſeed, rape-ſeed, beech-maſte, ben-nuts, walnuts, bay-berries, mace, nutmegs, &c. but not that we know of to juniper-berries, cachou-nuts, Indian cloves, pine-apples, or fir-nuts, and many other ſubjects that might be enumerated, both of foreign and domeſtic growth. It has, however, of late been applied to muſtard-ſeed with great ſucceſs, ſo as to extract a curious yellow or golden coloured oil from that ſeed, and at the ſame time leaving a cake behind, fit for making the common table-muſtard.

Certain dry matters may, as well as moiſt ones, be made to afford oils by expreſſion; for when they are not ſo moiſt as almonds, or fit to be reduced to a pulp in a ſtone mortar, they may be ground into a meal, which, being ſuſpended to receive the vapour of boiling water, will thus be moiſtened, ſo as to afford an oil in the ſame manner as almonds, eſpecially, if the iron cheeks employed be firſt heated by lying in boiling water. And thus an oil may be produced from linſeed, hemp ſeed, lettice ſeed, white poppy ſeed, &c.

The oils obtained by this treatment, ſhould be ſuffered to depurate themſelves by ſtanding in a moderately cool place, to ſeparate from their water, and depoſit their fæces; from both which they ought to be carefully freed. And, if in this manner they are not rendered ſufficiently pure, they may be well waſhed and beat with freſh water; then thoroughly ſeparated from it again, by the ſeparating glaſs; whereby they will be rendered bright and clean.

Particular care muſt be had to keep ſuch of theſe oils cool as are deſigned for eating, or for any internal uſe; becauſe they are apt in a few days to turn rancid and corroſive with the heat of the ſummer's ſun, ſo as to prove very unwholeſome. Hence the phyſician and apothecary ſhould be curious that the oils given in pleuriſies and other diſtempers, be freſh drawn from ſound objects, no way tainted, or already turned rancid; as almonds, piſtachios, and other nuts are apt to do: and again, that theſe oils have felt no conſiderable heat, either by drawing or ſtanding long in a warm place: and the ſame caution ſhould likewiſe extend to animal oils, intended both for internal and external uſe; ſince theſe alſo become rancid, or change to a yellow, red, or grey colour in hot weather; and thus become exceedingly nauſeous and corroſive, as we ſee in butter, bacon, and other fat bodies; which then prove only fit for the tallow-chandler, or other ignoble uſes.

Our preſent experiment is likewiſe applicable to the procuring oils or fats from certain animal bodies which contain much fat; being chopped ſmall, and, ſet in a pan, over the fire, they become fit for the canvas bag; and, by preſſure, afford a large quantity of fat, as we ſee in the art of chandlery, which thus extracting the oily matter, leaves a hard cake, or what they commonly call greaves, behind.

Theſe greaves, and all the reſiduums of the preſent proceſs, after being ſqueezed ever ſo hard with the preſs, will ſtill afford a copious oil by boiling in water; ſo that perhaps it might be made more profitable for the tallow-chandler to boil his greaves for oil, as bones are uſually boiled for it, than to diſpoſe of them in the ordinary manner.

So likewiſe if the almonds remaining in canvas, after the expreſſion of their oil, be ground in a mortar with warm water, the water will thus extract the remaining oil, and turn therewith into a milky liquor or emulſion. And if this operation had been performed upon the almonds at firſt, before we committed them to the preſs, we might thus have diſſolved out all their oil, and left only a dry chaffy, or light huſky, and exhauſted matter behind. Whence we have a method of diſſolving oils in water, and thereby of making a kind of artificial milk, which, by ſtanding, will afford a cream, and turn ſour, like the milk of animals; but not grow rancid with heat, as oil. Whence ſuch emulſions may, in ſome caſes, be medicinally uſed, with greater ſafety and ſucceſs than expreſſed oils.

Any of theſe expreſſed oils will receive particular colours and odours, at the direction of the artiſt. Thus for example, if a little alkanet root be barely infuſed in oil olive, it gives a beautiful red colour to that oil, without altering its taſte; ſo again, if a few drops of the eſſential oil of cinnamon be added to a pint of ſallad oil, ſuch ſallad may be rendered agreeable to thoſe who admire the flavour of cinnamon. And thus may oil, butter, &c. be diverſified, infinite ways, by a proper uſe of tinging ingredients, and ſuitable chemical oils.

The ſame contrivance has likewiſe its uſes in making eſſences for the ſervice of the perfumer; not only where eſſential oils are procurable, but alſo where theſe either can-

not well be obtained, or only in ſmall quantity. The eſſential oil of jaſmin flowers, honey-flowers, ſweet briar, damaſk roſes, lilies of the valley, &c. are either extremely dear, or ſcarce obtainable by diſtillation; and in ſome of them the odorous matter is ſo ſubtile as almoſt to be loſt in the operation. But if jaſmin flowers, damaſk roſes, lilies of the valley, &c. be barely infuſed in fine oil of nuts, or oil of ben, drawn without heat, and kept in a cool place, the ſubtile odorous matter of the flowers will thus paſs into the oil, and richly impregnate it with their native and odoriferous ſpirit, which can ſcarce otherwiſe be procured, or ſeparated from the flowers, without loſs or debaſement. And theſe eſſences may be rendered perfect by ſtraining of the oil at firſt put on, and letting it ſtand again, without heat, upon freſh flowers; thus repeating this operation twice or thrice.

To conſider the thing attentively, we ſhall find that the eſſences thus obtained are a kind of eſſential oils, not greatlydiffering from thoſe prepared by diſtillation from the flowers, ſeeds, or bark of odoriferous vegetables; for all ſuch eſſential oils are found to be little more than the native odorous ſpirit of the vegetable ſubject, wrapped up, lodged, or entangled in an unctuous or direct oily ſubſtance. This oily ſubſtance indeed riſes or becomes vegetable by the heat of boiling water; but ſo do not the oils gained by expreſſion; whence the principal difference betwixt thoſe natural and artificial eſſential oils, as we may call them, ſeems to conſiſt in the different tenacity, volatility, or fixedneſs of their unctuous or direct oily parts; the native ſpirit appearing the ſame in both; though indeed it is the more delicate and unimpaired in the artificial kind of eſſential oils, as not having here felt the force of fire. And hence, perhaps, ſome conſiderable improvements might be made in the arts of the oilman, perfumer, and apothecary; not to mention other œconomical uſes, and the art of the dairy.

### *The method of procuring eſſential oil.*

Take eight pounds of juniper-berries, bruiſe them in a ſtone mortar, put them into a ſtill, along with four gallons of river water; and, working with a briſk fire, draw off a gallon of water; with it will be obtained a conſiderable proportion of a fragrant eſſential oil, which muſt be ſeparated from the water by a ſeparating glaſs.

The experiment is eaſily rendered general or made applicable to the diſtilling the eſſential oils from flowers, leaves, barks, roots, woods, gums, and balſams, with a ſlight alteration of circumſtances; as by longer digeſtion, briſker diſtillation, &c. according to the tenacity and hardneſs of the ſubject, the ponderoſity of the oils, &c.

If the liquor that remains in the ſtill after the preſent operation be ſtrained, and evaporated to the conſiſtence of honey, it makes the rob of juniper-berries, which is eſteemed a valuable medicine, that may defray the charge of the operation, being uſed as a ſtrengthener of the ſtomach and inteſtines, as a preſervative from the ſtone and dropſy, and as a cure for the diſorders of the urinary paſſages.

Eſſential oils may be divided into two claſſes, according to their different ſpecific gravities; ſome floating upon water, and others readily ſinking to the bottom thereof. Thus the eſſential oils of cloves, cinnamon, and ſaſſafras, readily ſink; but the oils of lavender, marjoram, mint, &c. ſwim in water. The lighteſt of theſe eſſential oils, is perhaps oil of citron-peel, which even floats on ſpirit of wine, and the heavieſt ſeems to be oil of ſaſſafras: but the ſpecific gravities of the intermediate eſſential oils, are not hitherto adjoined and tabled, as for the ſervice of chemiſtry they ought to be.

For obtaining the full quantity of the more ponderous oils from cinnamon, cloves, ſaſſafras, &c. it is proper, (1.) To reduce the ſubjects to fine powder. (2.) To digeſt this powder for ſome days in a warm place with thrice its quantity of ſoft river water, made very ſaline by the addition of ſea-ſalt, or ſharp with oil of vitriol. (3.) To uſe the ſtrained decoction or liquor left behind in the ſtill, inſtead of common water, for a freſh digeſtion. (4.) To uſe for the ſame purpoſe the water of the ſecond running, after being clear of its oil. (5.) Not to diſtil too large a quantity of theſe ſubjects at once. (6.) To leave a conſiderable part of the ſtill, or about one-fourth empty. (7.) To uſe a briſk fire, or a ſtrong boiling heat, at the firſt, but to ſlacken it a little afterwards. (8.) To have a low ſtill-head with a proper internal ledge and current, leading to the noſe of the worm. And, (9.) To cohobate the water, or pour back the liquor of the ſecond running upon the matter in the ſtill, and repeat this once or twice.

Theſe cautions are all neceſſary, in order to diſtil the ponderous eſſential oils to profit and perfection. The phyſical reaſons wherever they depend may deſerve to be conſidered. (1.) The reduction of the ſubject to powder expoſes all its parts the better to the action of the water and ſalt; whereby the oil is the more mollified, attenuated, and rendered fitter to riſe along with the aqueous vapour in diſtillation. (2.) The digeſtion is requiſite for the ſame reaſon, as being no more than allowing time for this action to be performed in a moderate warmth. The water ſhould rather be the ſoft water of rivers than that of rain, which is more corruptive or fermentative; or, than of ſprings, which is often ſo hard as not to mollify the oil, but rather defend it from the action of the ſalt, or acid, which are added not only to prevent all tendency to fermentation or corruption, that would abſolutely change or deſtroy the oil; but, more particularly as having a known property of attenuating liquefying, diſſolving, and purifying groſs viſcous and tenacious oils. Beſides which, it likewiſe increaſes the ſpecific gravity of the water; whereby the ſubject is now buoyed up, ſo that it cannot readily touch the bottom of the ſtill, or come in the way of the fire to be ſcorched: and, at the ſame time, this addition alſo increaſes the heat of the liquor, or makes it exceed that of mere boiling water; whence the aſcent of the oil is likewiſe promoted. (3.) The ſtrained decoction is properly uſed inſtead of water, as being already ſaturated with oily particles; ſo that it cannot much rob the ſubject. And, (4.) The ſame holds alſo of the water of the ſecond running, which neceſſarily contains ſome oily particles. (5.) If too large a quantity of the ſubject be diſtilled at once, the heat will neceſſarily act unequally, or ſtrong upon ſome parts, and weak upon others; whence, as the oil is ſo extremely ponderous, a large part of it will be left behind in the ſubject. (6.) If too much empty ſpace be left in the ſtill, it will be difficult for the ponderous oil to aſcend; and, if too intenſe a heat be uſed, it deſtroys the grateful odour of the oil without raiſing any conſiderable quantity; and, if the ſtill be filled too full, the matter will be apt to boil over and ſoul the oil. (7.) The fire is ordered to be briſk at firſt, to prevent the oil, now in ſome meaſure ſeparated by the heat, from going back into the ſubject: but, after a part is thus come over, if the fire be not a little ſlackened, the oil is apt to ſcorch, and come out of the noſe of the worm, in the form of a ſmoke, that cannot be catched and condenſed; yet, the whole operation needs not be long continued, or above two hours, becauſe the valuable part of the oil ſoon comes over. (8) If the head of the ſtill be not low, the ponderous oil will have too far to riſe; and, unleſs the oil be directed to the worm by a proper ledge and current, a conſiderable part will fall back into the ſtill, and ſo prolong the operation or leſſen the produce. (9.) Laſtly, two or three cohobations or returns of the water upon the ſubject in the ſtill, muſt needs bring over all the oil that will any way riſe: and water, already ſomewhat impregnated with the oil, is manifeſtly better for the purpoſe, than ſuch as has never been uſed before.

The entire aromatic virtue of plants is contained in their eſſential oil alone; and, conſequently, the virtue of every oil may be known from the reſpective ſimple from whence it is extracted.

Oil. Search to be made in London for defective oils, 3 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14.

Duties on hempſeed oil, rape oil, and other ſeed oil, and olive oil, 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 9, 41. No lamps to be uſed in private houſes but of fiſh oil, 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 18.

OILMAN. The qualifications required in a boy deſigned for this trade, are only thoſe neceſſary for every other ſhop-keepers. The whole myſtery of the buſineſs conſiſts in knowing the buying and ſelling prices, and making up a few common pickles. The oilman deals not only in oils for the uſe of other trades, but in all ſorts of pickles, either imported, or made at home, and in ſoap, ſalt, and many other articles for the uſe of the kitchen. Thoſe of this buſineſs take from twenty to ſeventy pounds with an apprentice, according to the extent of their trade; and require

from

from one hundred to one thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

OKER, *ochra*, in natural hiſtory, an argillaceous ſubſtance, of a yellow colour, and an aſtringent taſte. It is greatly uſed in painting, and ſometimes in medicine, as a topic for diſcuſſing hard tumours, and preventing marks from blows, &c.

OLDENBURG. This country, belonging to Denmark, abounds in cattle, and raiſes a great number of coach-horſes, very much ſought after for their colour, which is yellowiſh, though otherwiſe their qualities are not extraordinary.

OLERON, weſt longitude one degree twenty minutes, latitude forty-ſix degrees, an iſland of France, near the coaſt of Poitou, and territories of Aunis, ſituated fourteen miles ſouth-weſt of Rochelle, being about fifteen miles long and ſix broad, and containing ten thouſand people. The ancient inhabitants of this iſland, had ſuch a reputation for their ſkill in navigation, that their rules became a model for other maritime powers to make their laws by, in relation to ſea affairs; and theſe were called the *Laws of Oleron*.

The ſoil of this iſland produces plenty of corn and wine, and they make a great deal of ſalt of the ſea-water. There is a light-houſe on this iſland, for direction of ſhips.

OLIBANUM, frankincenſe, in pharmacy, a dry reſinous ſubſtance brought to us in detached pieces or drops as it were, like thoſe of maſtic, but larger, and of a leſs pure and pellucid texture. It is of a pale yellowiſh white colour, but with ſome mixture of a browniſh caſt in it. It is moderately heavy: its ſmell is ſtrong, but not diſagreeable, and its taſte bitter, acrid, and reſinous. The drops of olibanum ſometimes adhere two or more together; and, when two oblong and ſmall ones adhere to one another, fanciful writers have called ſuch male frankincenſe, from the reſemblance of a man's teſticles; and, when too larger and rounder pieces adhered, they likened it to a woman's breaſts, and called it female frankincenſe; and hence the origin of the *thus teſticuloſum* and *thus mammoſum* of theſe writers. Sometimes four or five of theſe granules were found adhering together to the bark of the tree. This was called the cluſter frankincenſe, and the ſmall fragments broke off from the reſt in the carriage were preſerved ſeparately, and made another kind under the name of *manna thuris*, the manna of frankincenſe. How idle and ridiculous were ſuch diſtinctions among people who knew, at the ſame time, that the drug was the ſame under all theſe accidental forms?

Olibanum is to be choſen whitiſh, pure, dry, and as much approaching to pellucidity as may be. It has been known the moſt univerſally of perhaps any drug in the world, and that from as early times as thoſe of Theophraſtus and Dioſcorides, who deſcribe it under the name of Libanos, and Hippocrates alſo mentions it under that of Libanoton. The Latins call it *thus* and *tus*, and the Arabians *ronder*, *cender*, and *hatcth*. The earlieſt accounts we have of any thing, tell us, that frankincenſe was in uſe among the ſacred rites and ſacrifices, and it is uſed in many different parts of the world at this time to the ſame purpoſes. As well however as the world has been at all times acquainted with the drug itſelf, we are not yet well acquainted with its hiſtory. The country which produces it is a much diſputed point among authors. Some affirm it was never found any where but in Arabia, and there only in that part called Sabæa, or from this famous product Arabia Thurifera. Others are for bringing it from Æthiopia, and others from other places. If we are uncertain as to the place whence the olibanum is brought, we are much more ſo as to the tree that produces it.

Olibanum is greatly commended by many againſt diſorders of the head and breaſt, and againſt diarrhæas and dyſenteries, and profluvia of the menſes, and fluor albus. Its doſe is from ten grains to a drachm. It is by many eſteemed a ſpecific in pleuriſies, eſpecially when epidemic.

Externally it is uſed in fumigations for diſorders of the head, and againſt catarrhs, and is an ingredient in ſome plaiſters. It is a noble balſam in conſumptions, given in ſubſtance, or diſſolved with the yolk of an egg into the form of an emulſion. There is an oil made of it by deliquium, in the ſame manner as that of myrrh. This is done by putting the powder of it in the white of a boiled egg in a cellar till it runs into a liquor; this is eſteemed a great coſmetic and deſtroyer of pimples in the face. Dioſcorides had his doubts about the internal uſe of olibanum in large doſes; he talks of its bringing on madneſs, and even death; but none of the other Greek writers ſay any thing of its ill qualities, nor do we at preſent know any of them.

OLIVE, a fruit which yields a large quantity of oil, the produce of the olea, or olive-tree.

They are brought to us from Italy, Spain, &c. in pickle, chiefly ſalt-water. They are very oily and ſmooth, and, therefore, not ſo good for the ſtomach, being apt to pall and relax it too much.

*Oil of* OLIVES. This oil is produced by expreſſion, after the manner explained under the article oil. It is moderately heating and mollifying, rendering the body lax and ſoluble; it is good in diſorders of the breaſt and lungs, tempering the ſharp choleric humours in the bowels; and, by that means, helps gripings and the cholic; and is uſeful againſt all corroſive mineral poiſons, as arſenic, ſublimate, &c. It has alſo been found to be a ſpecific againſt the bite of the viper, by bathing the wound with it.

OLIVE *colour*, a yellow mingled with black.

ONE PER CENT. *See* MEDITERRANEAN.

ONOR, is a ſmall kingdom of Biſnagar, where the Portugueſe have a factory, and purchaſe almoſt all the pepper gathered here, which has the reputation of producing the beſt and heavieſt in all India. Here may be ſhipped off about eight thouſand quintals yearly, bought of the king of Baticala, who is alſo ſovereign here, and muſt be paid for ſix months before the crop, otherwiſe the factors will return without it. A quantity of rice is alſo extracted from hence for ſeveral parts of India.

ONUS IMPORTANDI. The charge of importing, mentioned 12 *Car.* II. *art.* 28.

ONUS PROBANDI. The burden of proving, ſpoken of 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. and ſeveral other ſtatutes.

ONYX, in natural hiſtory, a ſemi-pellucid gem, of which there are ſeveral ſpecies, and of different colours.

It is a very elegant and beautiful gem, and though leſs eminent in the variety of colours, or in their high tinge, than many of the ſemi-pellucid gems, it is perhaps not inferior to any of them in luſtre and brightneſs, and by the regular arrangement and diſpoſition of its colours, makes amends for their want of ſhew. It is found in ſmall maſſes of a very irregular and indeterminate form; ſome of them are flat, others rounded in the manner of our common pebbles, and others are variouſly protuberant, and reſemble the common flints in ſhape. Theſe are uſually met with very ſmall; maſſes of half an inch are rare, but there are ſome formed up to two inches or more in diameter, and, when theſe are perfect, they are of a very conſiderable value. They are always of a cruſtated or tabulated ſtructure. Thoſe maſſes which are of the ſhape of pebbles, have uſually a maſs of an opake, white, cryſtalline matter in the center, by way of nucleus, and are formed of a regular ſucceſſion of cruſts diſpoſed around that: there are ſome of them white, ſome brown, and ſome of a bluiſh caſt, and are all diſpoſed very regularly and evenly over one another. The nucleus about which they are formed, is ſeldom round, but uſually runs into angular points; and this adds a great deal of beauty to the ſtone, as all the ranges of the cruſts or zones follow the figure of theſe, and run into the ſame angular forms. Thoſe maſſes which are flat are found to be not formed of any nucleus, but compoſed of plates or tables of theſe different coloured matters, laid evenly and ſmoothly over one another: they are uſually laid regularly in an alternate order, and theſe maſſes are for many uſes the beſt, though the others in the maſs, or in a ſimple plate cut tranſverſely and poliſhed, are much the more beautiful: the bluiſh matter may properly be called the baſis of the ſtone, and the brown and the white are the variegations; the matter of the maſs always appears to have been of this, and that of the zones received into it; they are ſomewhat leſs pellucid than the reſt, and are always diſpoſed in this regular order. The ſtone is very bright and moderately tranſparent, and is capable of a very high poliſh.

It is found on the ſhores of rivers in the Eaſt-Indies, and often in New Spain, and ſome other parts of America, as alſo in Germany; but the latter are greatly inferior to the American kind, and that does not nearly come up to the beauty of the Oriental.

The characters of the onyx, in ſome authors who have treated of the *materia medica*, would ſeem to point out the common kind with bluiſh zones, only as that fitteſt

fitteſt for medine; but this other ſpecies ſeems to have much the moſt general claim to that pre-eminence; though, as the credit of theſe things ſtand at preſent, it would be a very idle diſpute to enter into. The ancients ſuppoſed the onyx to have wonderful properties, and imagined that, if only worn on the finger, it acted as a cardiac. They have alſo recommended the powder of it as an aſtringent; but, at preſent, it is no more regarded than the reſt of this claſs of medicines.

OPAL, *opalus*, in natural hiſtory, a very elegant and very ſingular kind of ſtone; it hardly comes within the rank of what we call the pellucid gems, being much leſs opake and much leſs hard than any of them: it has, however, been at all times received among them, and placed tolerably high in rank. The Romans made it the fourth in value; and, at preſent, though as little valued as it ever was in the world, the good and perfect ſpecimens of it will ſell for a conſiderable price.

It is never found in a columnar or angular form, but always in what is called the pebble ſhape: it is of various ſizes, from that of the head of a pin up to the bigneſs of a walnut: it ſometimes exceeds even this, but that rarely; and, in general, the larger ſpecimens are ſeldom found quite perfect, ſo that the jewellers are often obliged to cut them. It is ſometimes met with as round as a marble, but its more frequent form is an oblong or oval, rounded on one ſide and flat on the other: ſometimes it has been found of the ſhape of a bean, with the bent on one ſide; ſometimes in the pyriform, or pear like figure; and ſometimes in ſmall flat pieces, which are the leaſt valuable. It is naturally bright, ſmooth, and gloſſy, and ſhews all its beauty without the help of the lapidary. Opals are, for this reaſon, frequently worn natives, as rubies are. In colour it very much reſembles the fineſt mother of pearl, its baſis ſeeming a bluiſh or greyiſh white, but with a property of reflecting all the colours of the rainbow, as turned differently to the light: it has this quality in a much ſuperior degree to the mother of pearl, and is brighter, and greatly more tranſparent, ſo that one ſees very deep into it. The colours it throws out are almoſt equal to thoſe of all the ſeveral pellucid gems that poſſeſs them ſingly: the green and blue are particularly beautiful in it, but the fiery red is the fineſt of all: this ſeems to be deep in the ſtone, and to throw itſelf out from its bottom, as it is turned properly to the light, with a peculiar force: the red ſeems the moſt properly, of all the adventitious colours, to belong to the nature of the ſtone, for we ſometimes meet with blackiſh opals, which ſhew no other colour in any light, only the red, but that in its full glory; even this, however, is not properly inherent in the opal, for fragments of this ſtone, broke ſmall, ſhew neither this nor any other of the colours, but are of a pale ſimple grey.

The opal is found in the Eaſt-Indies, in Egypt, Perſia, and Tartary, and in ſome parts of Europe, eſpecially in Bohemia. The Oriental in this, as in all the other gems, are much the finer; they are found in the ſides of mountains, and in the beds of rivers, but always lying looſe among earth or ſand: the Bohemian are generally bedded in a hard ſtone of the jaſper kind, of a greeniſh or greyiſh colour. The Oriental are harder as well as brighter than the others; but even they are difficultly poliſhed to any degree of nicety; ſo, unleſs they are accidentally foul or ſcratched, it is often better to wear them with their native poliſh than otherwiſe.

The virtues, both medical and magical, that have been attributed to the opal by old authors, are almoſt innumerable; but we live in an incredulous age, in which, very happily, nothing of all that is ſaid of it is believed.

OPHITES, in natural hiſtory, a kind of variegated marble, of a duſky green ground, ſprinkled with ſpots of a duſky green colour.

OPIUM, is a ſolid, but ſoftiſh reſinous gum, of a dark, reddiſh brown colour, a hot bitter taſte, and ſtrong ſmell, brought from the Levant and Eaſt-Indies, in regular cakes of different ſizes, from four ounces to a pound and upwards in weight, and covered with leaves and other vegetable matters. This celebrated drug is prepared from the milky juice, which iſſues from inciſions made in white poppy heads, by expoſing it for ſome time to the open air, in which it acquires the colour and conſiſtence abovementioned.

Opium conſiſts of five parts of gum, four of reſin, and three of earth. Water, wine, vinegar, and brandy, in the proportion of twelve parts of the menſtruum to one of opium, take four or five days for the ſolution without heat; but in the proportion of eight to one, ten or twelve days: alcohol requires a month: proof ſpirits intirely diſſolve it: the reſiduum of a ſolution in cold water contains nothing that boiling water can extract. Sixteen ounces of opium, yielded forty-two drachms, ſix grains of phlegm; one drachm, fifty-eight grains of volatile ſalt; ſixteen drachms of oil: the *caput mortuum* afforded two drachms, eighteen grains of fixed alcaline ſalts; two drachms, twenty-five grains of earth remaining: nineteen drachms, fifty-ſix grains were loſt in the diſtillation; and forty-three drachms, ſeventeen grains were conſumed in the calcination. Eight ounces of opium being fermented and then diſtilled, yielded about three ounces of weak ſpirit, the flavour of which was different from that of opium: the reſinous reſidium was full as much as if the opium had not been fermented, and retained a little ſmell, but the extract made with water had nothing of it.

The Europeans, for many ages, eſteemed the Thebaic opium greatly ſuperior to that of Aſia Minor, or the Eaſt-Indies, but at preſent there is no diſtinction made; but opium that is not too dry and friable, and that has a good ſmell, and no accidental foulneſs mixed among it, is all eſteemed of equal value.

The plant which affords opium, is one of the *polyandria monogynia* of Lynnæus, and one of the *herbæ flore tetrapetalo anomalo* of Ray; and is deſcribed by all the botanical writers under the name of the white garden poppy, the *papaver hortenſe ſemine albo*, *papaver ſativum Dioſcoridis*, and *papaver album Plinii*.

The fields of Aſia Minor are in many places ſown with the white poppy, as ours are with corn. When the heads grow towards maturity, but are yet ſoft, green, and full of juice, they make inciſions on them, and from every one of them flow a few drops of a milky juice, which ſoon hardens into a ſolid conſiſtence: theſe drops are gathered with great care, and are the fineſt opium. Tournefort tells us, that, after they have obtained all they can this way, they bruiſe the heads and expreſs their juice, and by this means get a much larger quantity: but Bellonius, who had been through the ſame place where Tournefort was, ſays not a word about this opium procured by expreſſion: nor does Kæmpfer mention any ſuch proceſs in his treating of obtaining opium in the Eaſt. Both theſe authors make three kinds of opium, but not one of them is procured in this coarſe way. Kæmpfer's account is this: when the heads are near ripening, they wound them with an inſtrument, which is a kind of knife with five edges; this, on being ſtruck into the head, makes five long cuts in it, from which the opium flows, and is the next day ſcraped off with an edgeleſs knife, and is put in a veſſel, faſtened to the girdle for that purpoſe: at the time the opium is collected, the oppoſite ſide of the popy-head is wounded by the ſame inſtrument uſed at firſt, and the opium is collected next day in the ſame manner.

They diſtinguiſh, however, the produce of the firſt wounds from thoſe of the ſecond, and with great reaſon, the firſt being greatly ſuperior to the ſecond. They call this firſt flowing off the heads gobaar; it has much more virtue than the reſt, and is ſold at a much greater price: its colour is at firſt white, but afterwards yellowiſh; and, when long kept, of a duſky brown. The opium produced from the ſecond wounds is darker coloured, and approaches to blackneſs; it has a weaker ſmell and taſte than the former: after this they make a third operation, but the produce is black, and of very little value.

After they have collected the opium, they moiſten it with a ſmall quantity of water, or of honey, and work it a long time upon a flat, hard, ſmooth board, with a thick and ſtrong inſtrument of the ſame wood, till it becomes of the conſiſtence of pitch: finally, they work it up with their hands, and form it into cakes, or rolls, for ſale. Multitudes of people are continually employed in this preparation, and have ſeveral ways of doing it; but what we have is the mere crude juice, or at moſt ſuch as has been worked up with water, or a ſmall portion of honey, no more than ſufficient to bring it into form.

Opium has been, till lately, conſidered in general as a ſoporific and ſudorific only; and its uſe moſtly confined to the removal of deliriums, nervous coughs, and ſome other



particular

particular purpoſes: but the experience of modern practice has ſo extended its application, as to give a ſufficient light into the true nature of it. The quality of opium, to which its medicinal effects are owing, is the diminiſhing the ſenſibility and tenderneſs of the nerves in ſuch a manner, that ſpaſms and convulſive cramps that are excited by inflammation, or the action of any irritating bodies, are thereby greatly mitigated, and in general removed; and the ſymptomatic miſchiefs attending many diſorders thence prevented or leſſened. This power, therefore, renders it of very great ſervice in the following diſorders, the evil conſequences whereof are the reſult of the irritating acrimony of depraved humours: firſt, in the *cholera morbus*, where the whole of the danger ariſes by the violent convulſions, cauſed by the intolerable ſtimulus of the exceſſively acrid bile, poured out of the *ductus choledochus communis* into the inteſtines, in an incredible quantity: in this caſe opium will give a reprieve from the fatal conſequences of the ſpaſm, till a diſcharge of the morbid matter is procured by the aid of cathartics, when it would be impracticable by any other means, to give the leaſt relief. It is in like manner highly efficacious in diarrhæas and dyſenteries, which owe their origin to a parallel cauſe; as alſo in the convulſions of children, produced by an aceſcent acrimony of the humours in the *via prima:* it is, when judiciouſly uſed, of great importance in ſeveral caſes of eruptive and other fevers, where a ſpaſmodic ſtate ariſes from nervous irritations, particularly in reſpect of children, where, by a proper uſe of this medicine, the fatal ſpaſms which attend their coming out may be frequently evaded. It is likewiſe of great efficacy in many female caſes, relieving the convulſive diſorders of the uterus, and checking thoſe exceſſive diſcharges of the catamenia and profuſe hæmorrhages, conſequent to delivery, which are cauſed by them. Beſides theſe, there are many occaſions not reducible to the general rules, where, on the ſame principle, this quality of opium may remove ſymptoms, which would be otherwiſe fatal or dangerous, and on which all the other qualities of medicine could have no influence; whence, it may therefore be juſtly ranked among thoſe few medicines, of whoſe effects, the recovery of the patient, from violent and dangerous diſeaſes, is the evident reſult.

*Prepared opium*, or laudanum, is a tincture of opium, made either with ſpirit of wine, or water, having different ingredients added to it, according to the uſe it is intended for.

OPOBALSAMUM, in pharmacy, the ſame with the balſam, or balm of Gilead. *See* BALSAM.

OPOPANAX, in pharmacy, a vegetable juice, approaching in ſome degree to the ſagapenum, and uſually joined with it in preſcription. It is a gum reſin, of a tolerably firm texture, and is brought to us, uſually, in form of ſmall looſe granules, or drops, ſometimes in large maſſes, formed of numbers of theſe connected by a quantity of matter of the ſame kind; but theſe are uſually loaded with extraneous matter, and are greatly inferior to the pure looſe kind.

The drops or granules of the fine opopanax are uſually of the bigneſs of a pea, ſometimes larger, often very ſmall; they are of a browniſh red colour on the outſide, and of a duſky yellowiſh or whitiſh within. They are moderately heavy, of a ſomewhat fatty or unctuous appearance, ſmooth on the ſurface, and of a ſtrong diſagreeable ſmell, and an acrid and bitter taſte: it is brought to us from the Eaſt, and is to be choſen in clear pieces, of a ſtrong ſmell, and acrid taſte; ſuch as are black and too hard are to be rejected. The opopanax, in maſſes or cakes, is uſually of this black colour, and full of ſticks and ſtraws.

Opopanax is inflammable in the manner of the reſins, but is ſoluble in water; as the gums, it makes the water white and milky. It is attenuating and diſcutient, and is gently purgative; it diſpels flatulencies, and is good in aſthmas, in inveterate coughs, and diſorders of the head and nerves. It alſo promotes the menſes, and is good againſt all obſtructions of the viſcera. It is but little uſed in extemporaneous preſcriptions; in the compoſition of the ſhops it is a frequent ingredient.

OPTICAL-INSTRUMENT-MAKER. A boy, deſigned for this ingenious buſineſs, ought to have a philoſophical turn of mind; and, before he be put apprentice, ſhould acquire ſome knowledge of optics; which he may afterwards carry to perfection, by carefully ſtudying Sir Iſaac Newton's inimitable performance on that ſubject. The optical-inſtrument-makers in London keep handſome ſorts of ſhops, and ſell all kinds of optical-inſtruments; as various teleſcopes and microſcopes of different ſtructures, lenſes, ſpectacles, burning-glaſſes, and all other inſtruments invented for the help or preſervation of the ſight, or for making optical experiments. Thoſe of this trade execute very little of the work, except grinding convex-glaſſes on a braſs concave ſphere, and concave-glaſſes on a convex ſphere of the ſame metal. Theſe are ground with ſand, and poliſhed with emery and putty. The caſes and machinery of their inſtruments are made by different workmen; and the optician prepares and fixes the glaſſes to them: he ought therefore to be thoroughly acquainted with the nature of the ſeveral inſtruments he is obliged to make; and to be a perfect judge of ſuch work as he employs others to execute. This buſineſs is ſometimes joined with that of the mathematical inſtrument-maker. The optical-inſtrument-maker takes from twenty to fifty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn about twenty ſhillings a week; or, with five hundred pounds, may ſet up maſter: though there are ſome who employ three or four times that ſum in this ingenious and profitable trade.

ORANGE, a delicious fruit of the apple kind, too well known to need deſcription.

This fine tree not being natural to our climate, we muſt quicken the nature of our ſoil, with a compoſition that may cauſe it to correſpond as much as poſſible with the temperament of warmer countries. It delights greatly in a ſoil that is compoſed of an equal quantity of ſheep's dung that has reſted two years; old compoſt, or the ſoil of a ſewer; and fat land taken either from a marſh or hempcloſe.

Oranges are brought from ſeveral parts: the beſt and moſt in eſteem for a good taſte are thoſe which grow in hot countries; not only becauſe the ſoil of the places, having ſtore of exalted ſulphur and volatile ſalts in it, communicates a great quantity of the ſame to theſe fruits, and gives them an agreeable ſmell, but becauſe the heat of the ſun there digeſts, and more completely ripens their juice, and gives them a more delicious taſte.

The juice of the orange is ſharp, becauſe it contains much acid ſalt, and becauſe their ſalt is but little embarraſſed with the ropy parts; which is the reaſon it communicates almoſt all its acidity to the little nervous fibres of the tongue. As for the juice of the ſweet oranges, as it contains leſs ſalt than that of the four ones, and as this ſalt is kept under by a great quantity of oily parts, it is eaſy to be underſtood that it can make but a ſlight impreſſion on the parts it touches.

They prefer the juice of the four orange in medicinal uſe to the other, for cooling, moiſtening, and mitigating fevers; becauſe this juice has more of the acid in it, and can more eaſily thicken the over-thinned liquors, allay their violent motions, and keep down thoſe ſharp humours that throw them into an extraordinary fermentation.

ORANGE-MERCHANT. This buſineſs requires no great abilities. The orange-merchant imports oranges, lemons, Spaniſh onions, nuts, and other articles from Spain; which he ſells again, either packed up in ſlight cheſts, in the manner in which he receives them, or by retail. The orange-merchants keep ſhops: but there are only few of this buſineſs; and theſe take from one hundred to about three hundred pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, will require upwards of a thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

ORANGE-COLOUR, a dye, or colour, partaking equally of red and yellow, or a medium between the two.

ORANGEADE, a drink made of orange-juice, water, and ſugar.

ORCADES, or the iſlands of Orkney in Scotland, are divided on the ſouth, from that part of the main part of the land called Caithneſs, Pentland, or Pictland Firth, which is twenty-four miles long, and from twelve to ſixteen in breadth. They have the Caledonian Sea on the weſt, the German on the eaſt, and the ſea that parts them from Shetland on the north. They are reckoned about thirty in number, and contain, according to Mr. Templeman, an area of ſix hundred ſquare miles, but they are not all inha-

bited; the reſt, which are called Holmes, are uſed only for paſturage for ſheep and goats. The longeſt day amongſt them exceeds eighteen hours by ſome minutes. Their winters are not ſo ſubject to ſnow as to rain, which falls ſometimes in violent ſpouts, and the wind is often boiſterous. As theſe iſlands are larger, and have more inhabitants than thoſe of Shetland, the ſoil is better and more improveable; and as they are ſo much nearer to Scotland, there is more commerce, and much more converſation; for here are ſeveral gentlemen of good families, who have good manſion-houſes, on the iſlands, where their eſtates lie.

The principal iſlands of the Orcades, are South Ronaldſha, Swinna, Hoy, Burra, Lambholm, Flotta, Faira, Cava, Gram-ſay, Main-land or the Chief Iſland, Copinſha, Strapinſha, Damſey, Inhallo, Stronſa, Paſſa-Stronſa, Sanda, North Ronaldſha, Eda, Roufa, Wire, Garſa, Engleſha, North Faira, Weſtra, Papa-Weſtra.

The chief difference betwixt theſe iſlands, is in their ſituation, or their being more or leſs mountainous. The ſoil in ſome places is extremely dry and ſandy, in others wet and marſhy. They produce corn in abundance, but the chief of it is oats for bread, and barley or beer-corn; for they have no wheat, rye, or pulſe, except in the gentlemen's gardens.

They have, however, all ſorts of wild-fowl, partridges, moor fowl, plover, duck, teal, widgeon, rabbits, &c. and they want neither fiſh nor veniſon: ſo that the inhabitants have every thing to make life comfortable except better bread, and warmer weather.

It is a very pleaſing proſpect to ſtand on the ſhore and behold the ſea in calm weather, in the narrows ſounds and paſſages between the iſlands; how the different tides run as from a ſluice, as well one way as the other, and to ſee a boat fly upon them like an arrow out of a bow, it being as impoſſible to row againſt them, as to ſhoot London bridge againſt a ſteep fall.

In the Pentland firth, behind the iſland Swinna, are two great whirlpools, called the Wells of Swinna, which are ſure to ſwallow up any veſſels that come within the draught; and the paſſage of the firth is of itſelf very dangerous, becauſe of the many ſtrong tides, which are not leſs than twenty-four, and make the ſea go very high upon the leaſt contrary wind. Theſe whirlpools are moſt dangerous in a calm; for if there be any wind, and the boat under ſail, they are paſſed without danger. If the mariners, who carry paſſengers between the main-land and the iſles, happen to be drove near them by the tides, they throw a barrel, bundle of ſtraw, or ſome other bulky thing into the whirlpools, which makes them ſmooth enough, till the veſſel has paſſed them; and what is thus caſt in, is generally found floating a mile or two off. Mean time the natives on both ſides, who know the proper ſeaſons, paſs this firth every day very ſafe, except when the weather is tempeſtuous.

The trade of the Orkneys differs from that of Shetland, only in not depending upon the reſort of ſtrangers, but on their own produce. They export annually a very great quantity of corn, black cattle, ſwine, and ſheep, as alſo of butter, tallow, and white ſalt, together with ſeal-ſkins, otter ſkins, lamb and rabbit ſkins, &c. alſo ſtuffs and very great quantities of good down, feathers, writing quills and pens, hams and wool.

Their corn, in particular, is ſold as far as Edinburgh, from whence they bring what goods they want in exchange. But the chief of their commerce conſiſts in their fiſhing for herrings, and white fiſh, and in their corn and cattle. Having not merchants to export their fiſh when taken, they ſell fiſh for the Dutch, and the merchants of Inverneſs, &c. And though, upon this account, they ſometimes go far from home, yet as they are an adventurous hardy people, and good ſailors, they make no difficulty of fiſhing in the darkeſt nights, though at a great diſtance from the iſland; and yet their boats are none of the beſt.

Their white fiſhing trade lies chiefly on the weſt ſide of the iſlands, towards thoſe which we call the Weſtern-Iſlands.

There have been ſeveral attempts, by the merchants both of England and Scotland, to eſtabliſh a fiſhery both in the Orkneys and in the Weſtern Iſlands; but the extraordinary expence of building warehouſes, fiſhing-veſſels, &c. always rendered it fruitleſs till lately; beſides that, the taking of the herrings in thoſe ſeas does not turn to ſo good an account as thoſe taken on the eaſt ſide of Scotland, the markets being more remote. Indeed, the Glaſcow fiſhing-boats generally come up as far north as the Leuze, and fiſh for herrings; as do alſo the fiſhermen from Londonderry, Belfaſt, and other parts of Ireland: by whom the people of the iſlands are ſupplied with many neceſſaries, eſpecially tobacco, wine, brandy, and other liquors, and ſome manufactures alſo for clothing; but they meet with few or no returns, except fiſh and ſome oil, which the iſlanders make by killing porpoiſes, ſeals, and ſuch creatures.

ORE, in natural hiſtory, the mineral glebe, earth, or ſtone dug out of the mines, to be purified, and have the metalline particles ſeparated from it.

ORGAN-BUILDER. The boy, deſigned for this buſineſs, ought to have a pretty good ear, and ſome ſkill in muſic: for the organ-builder not only performs ſome of the work, but fixes up the organs in ſuch a manner as to give every pipe its proper ſound. This is a profitable branch of buſineſs, where the maſter has ſufficient cuſtom. The organ-builder takes from ten to about thirty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn above twenty ſhillings a week; or, with about two hundred pounds, may ſet up maſter.

ORIENTAL, ſomething ſituated towards the eaſt, with regard to us, or ſomething brought from thence.

ORLEANS. The wines that are gathered in very great quantities in this province, make the principal part of its products, amounting to one hundred thouſand tons; and it is ſaid, that Blois and Beaugency do not furniſh leſs: it is likewiſe very fertile in corn, and not intirely barren in manufactures, as at Orleans, Dourdan, Gien, Blois, Chartres, and ſome other places, ſubject to this generality, are made all ſorts of woollen ſtockings, both wove and knit, and at Dourdan many are made of ſilk; at Orleans alſo are wove caps, as cloths are at St. Genoux, Clamocy, Chatillon-ſur-Loing, and Montargis; various ſorts of ſtuffs, different ſpecies of ſerges, crapes, capuchin cloths, bays, linſey woolſey, eſtaminas, &c. are made at Baugency, Blois, Vendome, Pierre, Fitte, Monteir, Salbry, Soueſme, Novan-le-Fuzelier, Vouzon, Jergean, Chartres, St. Fargean, Brou, St. Agnan, Chateau-Neuf, Brinont, Sully, La Charité, Petiviers, Pongoin, Chandun, Bazoches, Illiers, and Anthon. This province has ſeveral fabrics of hats, though the principal ones are at Orleans, Vendome, La Charité, and Blois, at all which places there are likewiſe conſiderable tanneries; and in the neighbourhood of La Charité, are twelve forges, and three furnaces for iron. The Beauſſe and Vendomois produce a great quantity of wheat and other grain, as moſt other diſtricts of this receiverſhip do: in this province, upwards of two hundred thouſand pounds of wool are manufactured into about twenty-five thouſand pieces of cloth, and orher ſtuffs, moſt of it the growth of the country.

ORMUS. The city and iſle of Ormus, although quite fallen from its former luſtre, and intirely deſtroyed by order of Cha-Abas, after his retaking them from the Portugueze, merit however to be mentioned, as due to the memory of what they once were, and the rank they for a long time maintained among the moſt trading iſles and cities of Aſia.

This iſle, ſeated in the Perſian Gulph, pretty near its mouth, and two leagues from the coaſt of Perſia, has little more than twenty leagues extent; yet it bore, for a conſiderable time, the title of a kingdom, with its own monarchs, tributaries however to the king of Perſia.

The Portugueze, who judged this port neceſſary to their infant commerce in the Indies, took it in 1507, and hereby ſhut up the entrance to Perſia againſt all other nations, as no perſon was henceforward permitted to traffic there, without their paſsport, or under their colours; and whilſt they, of all the Europeans, remained maſters of the Indian trade and navigation, the Perſians did not find themſelves in a condition to ſhake off this yoke, which theſe new comers had put on one of the moſt famous empires of Aſia. But the Dutch, having followed the Portugueze to India in the latter end of the ſixteenth century, and the Engliſh at the beginning of the ſeventeenth, the emperor Cha-Abas valued himſelf on the aſſiſtance of theſe latter, to drive his enemies from their iſle, which they were obliged to

to ſurrender in 1622, having loſt, as they pretend, at its taking, more than ſix or ſeven millions in merchandize, and other effects.

ORPHAN, is a fatherleſs child; and in the city of London there is a court of record eſtabliſhed for the care and government of orphans. 4 *Inſt.* 248.

Funds appointed for the relief of the orphans of London. 5 *Will.* and *Mar.* c. 10. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29.

Duty on wines imported to London. 5 *Will.* and *Mar.* c. 10. *ſ.* 8. *See* CUSTOM *of London.*

The duty of ſix-pence *per* chalder or ton on all coals brought into the port of London further granted to the mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, for the orphan fund for thirty-five years, from 20 September, 1750, ſubject to an annual payment thereout of three thouſand pounds to the mercers company. 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 1.

ORPIMENT, in natural hiſtory, one of the moſt beautiful foſſils we know, when it is pure; but it is much more frequently met with mixed and blended in ſmall flakes, among a ſolid ſubſtance approaching to its own nature; but without its luſtre or foliating texture. This ſubſtance, diſtinctly called *zarnich*, is uſually underſtood to be a part of the orpiment; but, as there are maſſes of orpiment looſe and intire without any of this ſubſtance about them, and as this is alſo frequently found in large maſſes with no true orpiment among them, and the two ſubſtances have their ſeparate qualities, the one being flexible, the other friable without the leaſt attempt to bend it; the one foliated, the other granulated; the one perfectly ſoluble in oil, the other not; it is very proper to diſtinguiſh them.

As theſe ſubſtances, properly called zarnichs, in which orpiment, is ſometimes lodged, are not received in the *materia medica*, unleſs by error under the name of orpiment, it is not neceſſary to mention them here any farther, than juſt to obſerve, that, as the common kinds, it is to this we owe the diſtinction of orpiment into thoſe colours; there is indeed, in nature, no ſuch ſubſtance as green orpiment; whatever therefore is ſeen under the name of orpiment, and of this colour, is to be rejected, as in great part zarnich, it being generally a maſs of the green zarnich, with a little orpiment in it; and it is a good rule that nothing be bought under the name of orpiment, but what is compoſed intirely of flakes or plates, for no zarnich is ſo.

The diſtinction is the more neceſſary, as this zarnich contains a large quantity of arſenic in it, and as the common yellow arſenic of the ſhops, which is by a ſhameful error frequently offered to ſale under the name of orpiment, may poſſibly paſs, upon an incurious obſerver, for orpiment, who has before taken pure maſſes of zarnich for that mineral; but can never be received as ſuch by any body, who has implanted in his memory, that orpiment is a mineral, compoſed intirely of flakes, or plates, like the Muſcovy talc.

The true and genuine orpiment is a foliaceous foſſil, ſometimes found in maſſes of two or three inches diameter, and of an inch or more in thickneſs, compoſed of plates ſo large, that one ſingle plate makes a whole ſurface; this is its moſt pure and perfect form; but it is more uſually met with in ſmaller congeries of flakes, from an eighth of an inch to a third in diameter; lodged in a dull yellowiſh, or greeniſh, or whitiſh matter, which is the zarnich abovementioned. In whichever of theſe ſtates it is found, the flakes, when ſeparated, are of the ſame nature; every thing that is truly flaky, in the coarſeſt maſſes, being truly orpiment. It is of a perfectly fine and pure texture, and remarkably heavy; of a ſmooth, bright, and gloſſy ſurface, and very ſoft to the touch. It is of a beautifully regular ſtructure, being compoſed of a multitude of thin ſcales, or flakes, perfectly reſembling thoſe of the foliaceous talc; one plate or flake always makes up the whole ſurface of the maſs, however large it be; and theſe plates, eſpecially the large ones, are uſually more or leſs bent and undulated; they may be parted by ſplitting into a great number of thinner and thinner flakes, which are very flexible, but which differ extremely from the talcs, in that they are not elaſtic; they are eaſily bent into any poſture, and very freely remain in it. Its colour is a bright beautiful yellow, much like that of gold. It is not hard, but very tough, eaſily bending without breaking; and, when freſh ſplit, affords a very beautiful, gloſſy ſurface; and, in thin pieces, is very tranſparent. This is the true ſtate of the pure orpiment; but as it is liable to be itſelf immerſed in maſſes of a heterogeneous matter, ſo it ſometimes alſo has a different ſubſtance of the ſame claſs, a fine red native orpiment, formed of ſmall ſcales or flakes, and much reſembling native cinnabar in colour, mixed in lines and veins in it.

The ſpecimens thus variegated make a very beautiful figure in the cabinets of the curious; but till we are more perfectly informed of the qualities of this red orpiment, than we are at preſent, it is proper to reject all, but the pure and genuine yellow one, from uſe in medicine. This red orpiment, beſides the broader and ſmaller flaked yellow kinds, are all the ſpecies of orpiment known in the world; the latter, though two diſtinct ſpecies, according to the ſyſtems of naturaliſts, are, in reality, both orpiment, and there is no need to diſtinguiſh them in medicine; only we are to obſerve, that if the ſmall flaked kind is uſed, it is to be firſt carefully picked from the zarnich, in which it is uſually bedded.

The errors that have ariſen from the confuſion of names, between orpiment and arſenic, have not been, even to this time, thoroughly ſet right; ſome accounting orpiment a poiſon, others an innocent medicine. It is certain, that the ſmell of garlic, which orpiment emits, while burning, and its effect in turning copper white by its vapour, ſavour greatly of its containing arſenic, ſince they are qualities of that mineral; yet we have numerous accounts of its having been given with ſafety. The ancients gave it internally, and ordered its fumes, while burning, to be received into the mouth in aſthmas and diſeaſes of the lungs; and the Chineſe, at this time, give it a place among their cathartic medicines, after it has been burnt a little.

Among the modern writers on theſe ſubjects, Geoffroy declares it a corroſive and poiſonous mineral, and tells us, that the ſymptoms it brings on are ſpaſms of the head and feet, ſtupors, cold ſweats, palpitations of the heart, ſwooning, thirſt, and heat, vomitings and tormina of the bowels, and, finally, death itſelf; and adds, that in bodies opened after death, brought on by this poiſon, the throat, ſtomach, and inteſtines have been found inflamed, eroded, and even perforated.

On the other hand, Boerhaave declares orpiment an innocent and harmleſs medicine: and Hoffman, who has been at more pains than any body to examine into its nature, declares the ſame; and even gives inſtances of its being given to dogs without any harm.

It is an excellent depilatory mixed with lime, and made into paſte with water. The painters are fond of it as a gold colour; and a lixivium of it with quick-lime, makes the liquor which renders letters, written with a ſolution of lead viſible, and at the ſame time thoſe which are written with burnt cork and water, and which were before very legible, inviſible. Theſe are the famous ſympathetic inks; the methods of uſing them is to write with a ſolution of lead, or of ſugar of lead, in vinegar; when this is dry, nothing appears; over this is to be written ſome different ſentence with the black ink, made of the burnt cork and gum water; and over this, when dry, is to be rubbed a piece of cotton, wetted with the lixivium of lime and orpiment; the ſentence that was legible will then diſappear, and the inviſible one, before written with the ſolution of lead, will be ſeen in its place very black and ſtrong.

ORRICE-WEAVER. The qualifications neceſſary in the boy deſigned for this buſineſs, are a lively apprehenſion, a good degree of ſtrength, on account of the heavy treadles he is obliged to move with his feet, a dry, cool hand, free from ſweat, that he may not tarniſh his work, and ſome notion of drawing, that he may deſign his own patterns on paper, by repreſenting the figure and number of threads to be wove, in order to raiſe it on the lace. The looms are conſtructed much in the ſame manner as thoſe of the damaſk-weavers, only allowing for the narrowneſs of the work; and the workman raiſes the figure upon gold and ſilver lace, by the ſame principles. The orrice-weaver takes from five to ten pound with an apprentice; who may earn, if a good workman, about eighteen ſhillings a week; or, with fifty or a hundred pounds, may ſet up maſter.

OSTEND, caſt longitude two degrees forty-five minutes, latitude fifty-one degrees fifteen minutes, a city and

port

port town of the Auſtrian Netherlands, in the province of Flanders, ſituate twelve miles from Bruges. *See* AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY. The late emperor, Charles VI. attempted to eſtabliſh an Eaſt-India company at Oſtend in the year 1718, but was compelled to deſiſt from the deſign by the Engliſh and Dutch.

OSTEOCOLLA, in natural hiſtory, a white or aſh-coloured ſparry ſubſtance, ſhaped like a bone, and by ſome ſuppoſed to have the quality of uniting broken bones, whence the name.

Oſteocolla is frequent in many parts of Germany, lying near the ſurface of the earth, ſometimes in ſtrata of ſand, but more frequently in marls. That which is found in the earth is uſually of the regular cretaceous kind, and has frequently the remains of ſticks, &c. about which it has been formed. This ſubſtance has been long famous for bringing on a callus in fractured bones; and the Germans, at this time, frequently give it, where the callus does not ſeem to form itſelf ſo quick as they could wiſh. It is alſo recommended as a diuretic, and as good in the *fluor albus*; but it is intirely neglected with us in the preſent practice.

OSTRACITES, in natural hiſtory, has been uſed by authors to expreſs the common oyſter in its foſſile ſtate, under whatever circumſtances it has been petrified; but, as the virtues aſcribed to it, in medicine, ſeem to depend on its being either ſated with ſpar, or retaining ſomewhat of its original teſtaceous nature; at leaſt, as they are not to be expected in ſuch petrifactions of this ſhell as are abſolutely of the flinty or ſtony kind, it will be proper to reject all thoſe out of practice. The oyſter is not only of ſeveral diſtinct ſpecies in its recent ſtate, but every one of thoſe ſpecies is liable to many accidental varieties, there being ſcarce any known ſhell in which nature ſports ſo much, as to ſhape, as the oyſter kind. Every of theſe ſtates of the oyſter, as well as each ſeveral ſpecies, may be buried in the earth, and every one may be petrified there in a different manner. Some of them are found hard, ſolid, and flinty, others ſofter and more flaky; theſe laſt are to be choſen for uſe. They will always be known to be oyſter-ſhells by the ſhape, and the greateſt reaſon, for proving them proper for medicinal uſes, is that they burn readily into lime in the fire.

The virtues attributed to the oſtracites are the ſame with thoſe of the *belemnites*, *lapis Judaicus*, and the reſt of this claſs; but they ſtand better recommended than thoſe of any other by a late authority. Dr. Liſter has recorded a letter of his friend, Dr. Cay, in which that phyſician declares the oſtracites to be, upon his own knowledge, one of the greateſt known medicines in nephritic caſes. He never gave it, he ſays, to any that had a confirmed ſtone, but to ſuch only as were troubled with gravel, or with ſmall ſtones that might be made to paſs, and that almoſt all he had given it to were cured; ſome voiding gravel and ſtones, others not; that it was to be taken a conſiderable time, in order to have the effect; but that no body, he ever cured by it, ever had a return of the ſame complaint.

This is a very remarkable recommendation of a medicine; and Dr. Liſter himſelf, who tried it on this, in a great meaſure, confirms what his friend ſays of it. The teſtimony of two ſuch people may render it worth trying again. The doſe is from half a drachm to a drachm in white wine. The oſtracites is to be reduced to fine powder; and Dr. Cay, to prevent a ſickneſs at the ſtomach, that ſometimes attended the taking it, uſed to mix it with one-third part of the quantity of powdered chamomile flowers.

OSTRACITES, is alſo the name of a kind of cadmia, found at the bottom of furnaces where copper is purified.

OUBANG, is a gold money of the largeſt ſort at Japan; its figure is oval, nearly reſembling in form and ſize the ſole of a ſhoe, and its value is ten coupangs or coupans, which are pieces of gold of the ſame figure, but ten times leſs in their weight, or one-fifth leſs in their ſurface; the oubang is worth one hundred ſix-dollars in India, and the coupang ten.

OUCHY. *See* LAUSANNE.

OVERISSIL, in the United Netherlands. This province is bounded on the north-weſt by Friezland, and part of the Zuyder Sea; on the weſt, by that part of Guelderland called the Veluſe; on the ſouth, by the county of Zutphen; on the eaſt, by the biſhopric of Munſter; and, on the north, by the province of Groningen. The ſoil in many places is barren, being full of ſands, heaths, and marſhes; but, in ſome parts, they have good corn and paſture: it is the worſt peopled of any of the provinces, partly on account of its barrenneſs, and becauſe their ſituation is not convenient for trade.

*Zwol* ſtands on the river Aa, which falls here into the Vecht, and runs into the Zuyder Sea, making a channel, into which the tide flows, which advances the trade of the town: it conſiſts chiefly in timber, cattle fattened in the neighbouring paſtures, Bentheim ſtones, wool, corn, butter, and cheeſe.

*Champen* ſtands on the Iſſel, a little above where it falls into the Zuyder Sea. Its trade is decayed of late, the harbour being ſo choaked up with ſand that it does not admit large veſſels. It has two ſuburbs, inhabited chiefly by fiſhermen, there being plenty of fiſh in its neighbourhood.

*Vollenhoven*, on the Zuyder Sea, has a great market for corn from the Baltic.

*Blockzyl*, on the ſame ſea, at the mouth of the river Aa, is a place of conſiderable trade, and very populous: its harbour will hold above two hundred veſſels.

OWLER, a maſter of a ſhip, or other perſon who conveys wool, or other prohibited goods, in the night, to the ſea-ſide, in order to ſhip them off, contrary to law.

OWSE, among tanners, implies oaken bark beaten, or ground ſmall.

OXFORDSHIRE, has a conſiderable manufactory at Witney for blankets; Banbury is noted for its fine cheeſe, Henley for malt, and Burford for horſe-faddles. It is a very great corn country, and one of thoſe that plentifully ſupply London with freſh butter of an excellent quality.

OYSTERS. The hiſtory, the generation, and ordering of green oyſters, commonly called Colcheſter oyſters.

In the month of May the oyſters caſt their ſpawn (which the dredgers call their ſpat) it is like to a drop of candle, and about the bigneſs of a half-penny.

The ſpat cleaves to ſtones, old oyſter-ſhells, pieces of wood, and ſuch-like things, at the bottom of the ſea, which they called cultch.

It is probably conjectured, that the ſpat in twenty-four hours begins to have a ſhell.

In the month of May the dredgers (by the law of the admiralty court) have liberty to catch all manner of oyſters, of what ſize ſoever.

When they have taken them, with a knife they gently raiſe the ſmall brood from the cultch, and then they throw the cultch in again, to preſerve the ground for the future, unleſs they be ſo newly ſpat that they cannot be ſafely ſevered from the cultch, in that caſe they are permitted to take the ſtone or ſhell, &c. that the ſpat is upon, one ſhell having many times twenty ſpats.

After the month of May, it is felony to carry away the cultch, and puniſhable to take any other oyſters, unleſs it be thoſe of ſize, that is to ſay, about the bigneſs of an half-crown piece, or when the two ſhells being ſhut, a fair ſhilling will rattle between them.

The places where theſe oyſters are chiefly catched, are called the Pont, Burnham, Malden, and Colne waters, the latter taking its name from the river of Colne, which paſſeth by Colne-Cheſter, gives the name to that town, and runs into a creek of the ſea, at a place called the Hythe, being the ſuburbs of the town.

This brood, and other oyſters, they carry to creeks of the ſea, at Brickle Sea, Merſey, Langs, Fringrego, Wivenno, Toleſbury, and Salt-coaſt, and there throw them into the channel, which they call their beds, or layers; where they grow and fatten, and, in two or three years, the ſmalleſt brood will be oyſters of the ſize aforeſaid.

Thoſe oyſters which they would have green, they put into pits about three feet deep, in the ſalt marſhes, which are overflowed only at ſpring-tides, to which they have ſluices, and let out the ſalt-water until it is about a foot and a half deep.

Theſe pits, from ſome quality in the ſoil co-operating with the heat of the ſun, will become green, and communicate their colour to the oyſters that are put into them, in four or five days, though they commonly let them continue there ſix weeks or two months, in which time they will be of a dark green.

To

To prove that the ſun operates in the greening, Toleſbury pits will green only in ſummer; but that the earth hath the greater power, Brickle ſea-pits green both winter and ſummer; and, for a further proof, a pit within a foot of a greening-pit will not green; and thoſe that did green very well, will in time loſe their quality.

The oyſters, when the tide comes in, lie with their hollow ſhell downwards, and, when it goes out, they turn on the other ſide; they remove from their place, unleſs in cold weather, to cover themſelves in the ouſe.

The reaſon of the ſcarcity of oyſters, and conſequently of their dearneſs, is becauſe they are, of late years, bought up by the Dutch.

There are great penalties, by the admiralty court, laid upon thoſe that fiſh out of thoſe grounds which the court appoints, or that deſtroy the cultch, or that take any oyſters that are not of ſize, or that do not tread under their feet, or throw upon the ſhore, a fiſh which they call a five-fingers, reſembling a ſpur-rowel, becauſe that fiſh gets into the oyſters when they gape, and ſucks them out.

The reaſon that ſuch a penalty is ſet upon any that ſhall deſtroy the cultch, is becauſe they find that, if it be taken away, the ouſe will increaſe, and then muſcles and cockles will breed there, and deſtroy the oyſters, they having not whereon to ſtick their ſpat.

The oyſters are ſick after they have ſpat; but in June and July they begin to mend, and in Auguſt they are perfectly well. The male-oyſter is black-ſick, having a black ſubſtance in the fin: the female white-ſick (as they term it) having a milky ſubſtance in the fin. They are ſalt in the pits, ſalter in the layers, but ſalter at ſea.

There are various other ſpecies of oyſters, which are ſo well known, that it is needleſs to enlarge upon this article.

*The laws of England in regard to oyſters.*

I. *Stat.* 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 2. All oyſters imported from France ſhall be rated at ſeven-pence *per* buſhel ſtrike-meaſure, according to the Wincheſter corn-buſhel, and ſhall pay the old ſubſidy according to that rate, and not according to the values affirmed by the importers.

II. *Sect.* 3. Where the ſaid oyſters are ſubject to the further ſubſidy, the one-third ſubſidy, the two-thirds ſubſidy, the additional impoſt, or the duty payable upon goods imported from France, according to the value ſet thereon for the old ſubſidy, the ſame ſhall be paid according to the values ſet thereon for the old ſubſidy aforeſaid, and not according to the oath of the importer.

III. *Sect.* 4. Upon exportation of the ſaid oyſters, the duties ſhall not be drawn back or allowed.

IV. *Sect.* 5. The ſeveral duties upon the ſaid oyſters ſhall be paid, or ſecured, by ſuch ways, and under ſuch penalties, &c. as are mentioned in the ſeveral acts of parliament which granted or continued the ſame.

# P.



P A conſonant, and the fifteenth letter in the Engliſh alphabet.

P. M. in aſtronomy, denotes *poſt meridiem*, or afternoon; ſometimes *poſt mane*, after morning, that is, after midnight.

P. in antiquity, was a numeral letter, denoting the ſame with G, namely, a hundred.

When a daſh was put at top P̄, it ſtood for four hundred thouſand.

P. in medicine, denotes *pugil*, or the eighth part of a handful.

P. Æ. in medicine, *partes æquales*, equal parts, the ſame with *a*, or *ana*.

P. P. in medicine, *pulvis patrum*, the jeſuit's bark in powder, ſo called, as theſe fathers were the firſt who brought it into Europe.

PACE, *paſſus*, a meaſure taken from the ſpace between the two feet of a perſon in walking, being commonly reckoned two feet and a half, and by ſome a yard: the geometrical, or German, or greater pace, is five feet.

The ancient Roman, and modern Italic mile, conſiſts of *mille paſſus*, a thouſand paces; the French league is three thouſand, and the German four thouſand paces.

PACIFIC, any thing peaceful, free from troubles, tumults, &c. The South Sea is, by geographers, denominated *Mare Pacificum*, the Pacific Ocean, which was ſo called by Magellan, as he had a very favourable wind, when he firſt traverſed it in 1520.

PACK *of* WOOL, is a horſe-load, which conſiſts of ſeventeen ſtone and two pounds. *See* SARPLAR.

PACKAGE. Under this article may be comprehended the duties of package, ſcavage, balliage, portage, all familiar to the city of London.

*The grant to the city of London of the duties of package, ſcavage, &c. confirmed by an act of 2 Will. and Mar. intitled, an act for reverſing the judgment in a quo warranto againſt the city of London, and for reſtoring the city of London to its ancient rights and privileges.*

Charles, by the grace of God, of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. to all to whom theſe preſent letters ſhall come, greeting: whereas our well-beloved the mayor and commonalty and citizens of the city of London, and their predeceſſors, within the port of London, within the liberties and franchiſes

of our city of London and ſuburbs thereof, have had, exerciſed and enjoyed, or claimed to have, exerciſe and enjoy, the office of package of all cloths, wools, woolfells, calve-ſkins, goat-ſkins, bales of tin, and of all other merchandizes whatſoever, to be packed, caſked, piped, barrelled, or otherwiſe veſſelled, out of the ſaid port, to be tranſported to any the parts beyond the ſeas, of the goods and merchandizes as well as of aliens and perſons born under any foreign allegiance, in any parts beyond the ſeas, whereſoever they ſhould be cuſtomed; and alſo the office as well for ſurveying or ſcavage of all goods or wares of any merchant, either alien or denizen, whoſe father was or ſhould be an alien born without our allegiance, and from the parts beyond the ſeas, to be brought to the ſaid port by way of merchandize; as alſo for the ſurveying, delivering, or balliage of all goods and wares of any ſuch merchant aforeſaid, to be exported from the ſaid port into the parts beyond the ſeas, or otherwiſe, on the account of merchandizes upon and through the river Thames, within the ſaid port, in any ſhip, boat, barge or veſſel whatſoever, floating, laden, remaining, or being off of any ſhore of the ſaid river of Thames, and upon any wharf or ſhore of the ſame river, which ſhould happen there to remain, and be delivered or unladen, as well by water as by land, within the port aforeſaid, within the franchiſes and liberties of the ſaid city and ſuburbs thereof; all which they have enjoyed time out of mind, and by virtue of ſeveral charters or letters patents of Edward the Fourth, late king of England, in the firſt and eighteenth years of his reign, to them granted; and alſo by virtue of a certain other charter or letters patents of Henry the Eighth, late king of England, to the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens aforeſaid, granted in the third year of his reign, by whatſoever name or names the ſame are called in the ſaid letters patents, by authority of parliament confirmed, or by colour of the ſame letters patents, or any of them, or by the preſcription aforeſaid, with divers fees and rewards to the ſaid offices belonging and appertaining. And whereas divers queſtions and differences have of late riſen about and concerning the offices aforeſaid, and the execution thereof within the port aforeſaid, within the liberties and franchiſes of the city aforeſaid, and ſuburbs thereof, whereby the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens, of the city of London aforeſaid, have been hindered and diſturbed in the offices aforeſaid, and in the exerciſe of them. Know ye, that we, for the removing and utter taking away all doubts and queſtions about the ſaid offices, and likewiſe for the corroborating, amplifying, increaſing, declaring and eſtabliſhing the liberties and privileges of the ſaid city, of our ſpecial grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, and alſo for and in conſideration of four thouſand and two hundred pounds of lawful money of England, to the hands of our ancient and faithful ſervant George Kirge, gentleman of our robes, and one of the grooms of our chamber, by a warrant under our privy ſeal, heretofore paid or aſſigned to be paid, whereof we do acknowledge ourſelf to be fully ſatisfied and paid, and them the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens, of the city of London aforeſaid, and their ſucceſſors, to be thereof acquitted and diſcharged for ever by theſe preſents; and for divers other good cauſes and conſiderations, us hereunto eſpecially moving, have for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, created, ordained, and conſtituted, and by theſe preſents do create, ordain, and conſtitute, that from henceforth, for ever hereafter, there ſhall be within the ſaid port of London, and the limits and bounds thereof, within the liberties and franchiſes of the ſaid city and ſuburbs thereof, an office and offices, employment and employments of package and of all woollen clothſ, woolfells, calve-ſkins, goat-ſkins, bales of tin, and of all other merchandizes whatſoever, to be packed, caſked, piped, barrelled, or any ways veſſelled, with a ſurvey of the meaſure, number and weight of the ſaid merchandizes, and alſo the ſurvey of all cuſtomable merchandizes, to the ſaid port, within the liberties and franchiſes of the ſaid city and ſuburbs thereof, coming, and out of the ſame port going, as well by land as by water, within the liberties and franchiſes of the city aforeſaid, and ſuburbs thereof, as well of the goods of any denizen, whoſe father is or ſhall be an alien, as of the goods of aliens whereſoever the ſame ſhall be cuſtomed: as alſo an office or employment of carriage and portage of all wools, woolfells, bales of tin, and of all other merchandizes whatſoever, as well of any denizens, whoſe father is or ſhall be an alien, born without the allegiance of us, our heirs or ſucceſſors, as of aliens born without the allegiance of us, our heirs or ſucceſſors, and under any foreign allegiance in any the parts beyond the ſeas, which ſhall be carried into London, from the river of Thames, to the houſe or warehouſe of ſuch alien, and from thence to the ſaid river; together with the fees, ſums of money, profits, and emoluments of the ſaid office or employments, and other the premiſſes, in two tables or ſchedules hereunto annexed, mentioned, and reſpectively limited and appointed. All and ſingular which fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments in the ſaid tables or ſchedules, expreſſed as due and lawful fees to the ſaid ſeveral offices of package and portage annexed and belonging, and in the execution of the ſame office, and either of them reſpectively, to be had and taken, we do for us, our heirs, and ſucceſſors, ratify, eſtabliſh and confirm, by theſe preſents, and the ſame fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments in the ſaid tables or ſchedules before mentioned, we do for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, grant unto the ſaid mayor, commonalty and citizens of the city aforeſaid, and their ſucceſſors, for ever, by theſe preſents. And furthermore, of our ſpecial grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, for the conſideration aforeſaid, we do for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, give and grant to the ſaid mayor, commonalty and citizens of the city aforeſaid, and their ſucceſſors, the ſaid office or employment of package of all and all manner of woollen cloths, woolfells, calve-ſkins, goat-ſkins, bales of tin, and all other merchandizes whatſoever, to be packed, caſked, piped, barrelled, or any ways veſſelled; with the ſurvey of the meaſure, number and weight of the ſaid merchandizes, together with the fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments aforeſaid; and alſo the office or employment of carriage and portage of all wools, woolfells, bales of tin, and all other merchandizes whatſoever, as well of any denizen, whoſe father is or ſhall be an alien born, without the allegiance of us, our predeceſſors, heirs or ſucceſſors, as of an alien born without the allegiance of us, our predeceſſors, heirs or ſucceſſors, and under any foreign allegiance, in parts beyond the ſeas, which ſhall be carried into London, from the river of Thames, to the houſe of ſuch alien, and from thence to the ſaid river, together with the fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments aforeſaid, to hold and exerciſe the offices and employments aforeſaid, and either of them, with their appurtenances, and the diſpoſitions, orderings, ſurveyings, and corrections thereof, and of either of them; together with all fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments whatſoever, to the ſaid offices or employments, or either of them, in the ſaid two tables or ſchedules to theſe preſents annexed, mentioned, and reſpectively appointed, to the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens of the ſaid city, and their ſucceſſors for ever: and alſo to exerciſe and occupy the ſaid offices or employments, and every and either of them, by themſelves, or by their ſufficient miniſter or miniſters, deputy or deputies, without any account or other thing, to be therefore rendered or made to us, our heirs and ſucceſſors (beſides the rent hereafter in theſe preſents mentioned to be reſerved and paid to us, our heirs and ſucceſſors) and without incurring any penalty or forfeiture of the offices aforeſaid, or either of them, or of any parcel thereof, although they or their deputies, officers or ſervants, do not pack the ſaid goods or merchandizes, when they are ready, and upon reaſonable requeſt and notice thereof given for the performing the ſaid ſervices. And that no other porter or carrier, or any other perſon or perſons whatſoever, ſhall preſume to intermit or intrude him or themſelves, to carry or lade any of the ſaid goods or merchandizes from any wharf or ſhore within the limits aforeſaid, into any ſhip or veſſel, or to unlade any goods or merchandizes from any ſhip or veſſel, upon any wharf, ſhore, or lane within the limits aforeſaid, without the ſpecial appointment or licence of the ſaid mayor, commonalty and citizens of the city aforeſaid, or of their officers or deputies for that purpoſe, firſt had or obtained. And that the porter or carrier appointed, and from time to time to be appointed, by the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens, and their ſucceſſors, or by their ſufficient officers or deputies for the time being, ſhall have, take or receive of or from the ſaid merchants, as well aliens born without the allegiance of us, our predeceſſors, heirs or ſucceſſors, and under

under any foreign allegiance in parts beyond the ſeas, as of the ſaid denizens born, or to be born within the power or allegiance of us, our predeceſſors, heirs or ſucceſſors, whoſe father is, or ſhall be, an alien born without the allegiance of us, our predeceſſors, heirs or ſucceſſors, for the carriage or portage of the ſaid goods and merchandizes, ſuch ſums of money for their labour aforeſaid, as in a certain ſchedule to theſe preſents annexed are mentioned and appointed, without any account or other thing to be therefore rendered or made to us, our heirs or ſucceſſors (beſides the rents hereafter in theſe preſents mentioned, to be paid to us, our heirs or ſucceſſors). And further, of our more abundant grace, certain knowledge, and mere motion, and for the conſideration aforeſaid, we do for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, give and grant to the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens of the city aforeſaid, and their ſucceſſors, the office or employment, of the ſcavage or ſurveying, and alſo the ſcavage of all the goods and wares cuſtomable whatſoever, of any merchants, as well aliens as denizens, whoſe father is or ſhall be an alien born or to be born without the allegiance of us, our predeceſſors, heirs or ſucceſſors, and to be brought from any parts beyond the ſeas, within the liberties and franchiſes of the ſaid city and ſuburbs thereof, on account of merchandizing; and alſo the ſurveying, delivering, or balliage of all the goods and wares of any of the ſaid merchants, within the liberties and franchiſes of the ſaid city, which ſhall be carried out into parts beyond the ſeas, by way of merchandize, through and upon the river Thames, within the limits aforeſaid, in any ſhip, boat, barge or veſſel whatſoever, floating, laden, remaining or being off of any ſhore of the ſaid river of Thames, and which upon any bank, wharf or ſhore of the ſaid river, ſhall happen to remain and be delivered or unladen within the liberties and franchiſes of the ſaid city and ſuburbs thereof; together with the fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments, in a certain table or ſchedule to thoſe preſents annexed, mentioned, and reſpectively limited and appointed, according to the form of the ſtatute made and publiſhed in the two and twentieth year of Henry the Eighth, late king of England. All and ſingular which ſaid fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments, in the ſaid table or ſchedule laſt mentioned and expreſſed, as due and lawful fees to the ſaid ſeveral offices of ſcavage and balliage aforeſaid, annexed and belonging, and in the execution of the ſame offices, and either of them reſpectively hereafter to be had and taken: we do for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, ratify, eſtabliſh, and confirm, by theſe preſents; and the ſame fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments, in the ſaid laſt mentioned table or ſchedule, we do, for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, grant to the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens of the city aforeſaid, and their ſucceſſors, for ever, by theſe preſents. To have and exerciſe the ſaid offices and employments laſt mentioned, and either of them, with the appurtenances, and the diſpoſings, orderings, ſuperviſings, and corrections of the ſame, and either of them, together with all the fees, ſums of money, profits and emoluments, to the ſaid offices or employments, and either of them in the ſaid table or ſchedule to theſe preſents annexed, mentioned, and reſpectively appointed, unto the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens of the ſaid city, and their ſucceſſors, for ever; and alſo to exerciſe and occupy the ſaid offices or employments, by themſelves, or by their ſufficient miniſter or miniſters, deputy or deputies, without any account or other matter to be rendered or made to us, our heirs or ſucceſſors, for the ſame (beſides the rents hereafter in theſe preſents mentioned to be reſerved and paid to us, our heirs, and ſucceſſors) and without incurring any penalty of the ſaid offices or employments, or either of them, or any parcel thereof, although they or their deputies, officers, or ſervants, ſhall not ſurvey or deliver the goods and merchandizes aforeſaid, when they ſhall be ready, upon reaſonable requeſt or notice thereof given, for the performing the ſaid works or ſervices. Willing, and by theſe preſents, for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, enjoining and commanding all and ſingular ſuch aliens and denizens aforeſaid, that they, from time to time, do make and deliver, or cauſe to be made and delivered, unto the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens, and their ſucceſſors, or their ſervants, deputies or collectors of the ſcavage aforeſaid for the time being, true and perfect bills of entry of all and every their goods, merchandizes and wares, which ſhall be, from time to time, brought within the liberties and franchiſes of the ſaid city and ſuburbs thereof, under pain of our royal indignation, and of being further puniſhed for their contempt of our command in this behalf. Yielding therefore yearly to us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, into the receipt of our Exchequer at Weſtminſter, three pounds, ſix ſhillings and eightpence, of lawful money of England, at the feaſt of St. Michael the archangel, and the annunciation of the bleſſed virgin Mary, by equal portions every year to be paid. And whereas we are informed, that with intent to defraud and deceive the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens, of the city aforeſaid, of the fees and profits to the ſaid ſeveral offices belonging and appertaining, ſeveral goods and merchandizes have been fraudulently laden and unladen, by divers perſons, at certain wharfs or places, commonly called, St. Katherine's, Tower-wharf, Southwark, Dick-ſhore, Wapping, Rotherhith, Deptford, Greenwich, and Blackwall, and other places between Blackwall and London-bridge, on both ſides of the river Thames aforeſaid, ſuppoſing the ſame places to be without the port of London aforeſaid, and the liberties, franchiſes, and ſuburbs thereof; we will, and by theſe prefents, for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, do ordain and declare, that for ever hereafter, all and ſingular merchant-ſtrangers, born without our allegiance, in parts beyond the ſeas, and under foreign obedience, and alſo the ſons of ſuch merchant-ſtrangers, who henceforth ſhall lade and unlade any goods or merchandizes cuſtomable in the port of the city of London aforeſaid, or in any of the ſaid places or wharfs abovementioned, ſhall, from time to time, render and pay, or make and cauſe to be rendered and paid, unto the ſaid mayor, commonalty, and citizens of the city aforeſaid, and their ſucceſſors, or their officers, deputies and ſervants, ſuch wages and fees, as are in the ſaid tables or ſchedules, mentioned and expreſſed. And farther, becauſe we are given to underſtand, that divers goods and merchandizes of merchants, as well aliens born without our allegiance, under foreign obedience, in parts beyond the ſeas, as alſo ſuch denizens, whoſe father is, or ſhall be an alien, and born under foreign allegiance, in parts beyond the ſeas, which are carried out of the port of the ſaid city, and brought into the ſaid port from foreign parts, and beyond the ſeas, are very often ſubtilly concealed and coloured under the names of other perſons, to defraud us of our cuſtoms and other things to us belonging, for ſuch goods and merchandizes, to the prejudice and loſs of us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, and alſo of the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens of the ſaid city, of the fees and ſums of money, ſo as aforeſaid reſpectively limited, appointed and ordained, by reaſon of the exerciſe of the offices aforeſaid, or any of them; we therefore being willing to look after our indemnity in this behalf, and alſo to the intent that the ſaid mayor, and commonalty and citizens, may the better detect the frauds, covins and deceits of all perſons concealing and withdrawing the ſaid goods and merchandizes, and the fees aforeſaid, we do for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, give, and by theſe prefents grant, to the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens, and their ſucceſſors, that the mayor of the city aforeſaid, for the time being, and the ſufficient deputies, ſervants or officers of the ſaid mayor, commonalty, and citizens of the city aforeſaid, in that behalf, from time to time, duly aſſigned, ſhall and may have full power and authority to give and adminiſter the oath upon the holy evangeliſts, from time to time, to all ſuch perſons, ſuſpected or to be ſuſpected, of the ſaid withdrawings, concealments, colourings, frauds, covins. And that it ſhall and may be lawful to the ſaid mayor, his miniſter and deputy, or officer for the time being, by all lawful ways and means, to compel all ſuch perſons ſuſpected, or to be ſuſpected, as ſhall refuſe or deny to take the ſaid oath. Although expreſs mention of the true yearly value, or of the certainty of the premiſes, or any of them, or of any other gifts or grants by us, or by any of our progenitors or predeceſſors, to the ſaid mayor and commonalty and citizens of the city aforeſaid, or any of them, heretofore made, is not made in theſe preſents, or any ſtatute, act, ordinance, proviſion, proclamation, or reſtraint to the contrary thereof heretofore had, made, publiſhed, ordained or provided, or any other thing, cauſe or matter whatſoever, in any wiſe notwithſtanding. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed theſe our letters to be made patents: witneſs ourſelf, at Weſtminſter, the fifth day of September, in the ſixteenth year of our reign.

*The*

*The* SCAVAGE-TABLE, *of* RATES INWARDS.

N. B. *That the goods enumerated by* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. *ſect.* 9. *and imported under the circumſtances therein ſpecified, are ſubject to this duty of ſcavage.*

| | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|
| **A.** | | |
| Alum, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Annotto, the hundred weight, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Apples, and pears, the little barrel | 0 | 1½ |
| Aqua vitæ, the hogſhead | 0 | 6 |
| Argol, white or red, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| **B.** | | |
| Babies heads, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Bacon, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| Bandſtrings, the dozen knots | 0 | 0¼ |
| Balks, great, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| Balks, middle, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 9 |
| Balks, ſmall, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Barlings, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Barley, the quarter, containing eight buſhels | 0 | 0½ |
| Barilla, or ſaphora, the barrel, containing two hundred weight | 0 | 4 |
| Baſket-rods, the dozen bundles | 0 | 4 |
| Baſt-rope, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| Battery, baſhrones, or kettles, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 6 |
| Beef, the barrel | 0 | 1 |
| Bell-metal, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Beans, the quarter | 0 | 0½ |
| Blacking, or lamp-black, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| Bottles of all ſorts, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Boards, barrel-boards, the thouſand | 0 | 4 |
| Boards, clap-boards, the hundred, cont. ſix ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| Boards, pipe-boards, the hundred, cont. ſix ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| Boratoes, or Bombaſines, narrow, the ſingle piece, not above 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Boratoes, or Bombaſines, broad, the ſingle piece, not above 15 yards | 0 | 3 |
| Books, unbound, the baſket or maund | 0 | 8 |
| Bow-ſtaves, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Braſs and irons, laver-cocks, chafing-diſhes, and all other braſs or latten wrought, the hundred pound, containing five ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Brimſtone, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| Briſtles, the dozen pounds | 0 | 0½ |
| Buckrams, of Germany, the dozen pieces | 0 | 3 |
| Buckrams, of France, the dozen pieces | 0 | 2 |
| Buffins, lillies, or mocadoes, narrow, the ſingle piece, not above 15 yards | 0 | 1 |
| Buffins, lillies, or mocadoes, broad, the ſingle piece, not above 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Bulruſhes, the load | 0 | 1 |
| Burs for mill-ſtones, the hundred, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Butter, the hundred, containg 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| **C.** | | |
| Cable ropes for cordage, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Cabinets, great, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Cabinets, ſmall, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Caddas, or cruel ribbon, the dozen pieces, each containing 26 yards | 0 | 1 |
| Candlewick, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Candles of tallow, the dozen pound | 0 | 0¼ |
| Capers, the hundred pound, containing five ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Capravans, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Cards, playing cards, the ſmall groce, containing 12 dozen pair | 0 | 2 |
| Cards, wool-cards, the dozen pair | 0 | 0¼ |
| Carpets, Turky, Perſia, Eaſt-India, and Venice, long, the piece | 0 | 6 |
| Carpets, of the ſame, or like ſort, ſhort, the piece | 0 | 4 |
| Carpets, carpets of all other ſorts, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| Caſes, for looking-glaſſes, gilt, from Numb. 3, to Numb. 10, the dozen | 0 | 1½ |
| Caſes, for looking-glaſſes, ungilt, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Camblets, mohair, and Turky grograms, each 15 yards | 0 | 1½ |
| Cheeſe, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Cherries, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Cloth, French woollen, each 20 yards | 0 | 8 |
| Cloth, ſcarlet, the yard | 0 | 1 |
| Cochineal, Silver, or Campechea, the pound | 0 | 0½ |
| Cochineal, of all other ſorts, the pound | 0 | 1 |
| Combs of box or light-wood, the groce, containing 12 dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Copper-bricks, or plates, round or ſquare, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Copperas, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Coral, rough or poliſhed, the maſt, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Cork, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Cork, the dozen pieces, ſhoemakers | 0 | 0¼ |
| **D.** | | |
| Deal-boards of all ſorts, the hund. cont. ſix ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| Dogs of earth, the ſmall groce, cont. 12 dozen | 0 | 1½ |
| Durance, or Duretties, with thread, each 15 yards | 0 | 1½ |
| Durance, or Duretties, with ſilk, each 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Drugs, amber-greaſe, the ounce | 0 | 1½ |
| Drugs, aloes Cicotrina, the pound | 0 | 0 |
| Drugs, barley hulled, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Drugs, Caraway and Cummin-ſeeds, the hun. wt. | 0 | 1½ |
| Drugs, China roots, the 100 lb. cont. five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| Drugs, Civet, the ounce | 0 | 1 |
| Drugs, gum-ammoniac, the hund. cont. five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| Drugs, Muſk, the ounce | 0 | 1 |
| Drugs, Muſk, cods, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Drugs, Saunders, white or red, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Drugs, treacle, common, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Drugs, turpentine, common, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| **F.** | | |
| Feathers for beds, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Fiſh, cod-fiſh, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Fiſh, cole-fiſh, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| Fiſh, eels, the barrel | 0 | 1 |
| Fiſh, eels, quick, the ſhip's lading | 10 | 0 |
| Fiſh, herrings, white or red, the laſt | 0 | 6 |
| Fiſh, lings, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Fiſh, lob-fiſh, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Fiſh, croplings, the hund. containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| Fiſh, titling, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 0½ |
| Fiſh, Sturgeon, the firkin | 0 | 1 |
| Fiſh, Sturgeon, the keg | 0 | 0½ |
| Fiſh, Salmon, the barrel | 0 | 1½ |
| Flax, undreſſed, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Flax, dreſſed or wrought, the hundred weight, containing 112 l. | 0 | 4 |
| Flax, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Frankincenſe, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Fuſtians, Barmillions, the piece, or two half pieces, containing 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Fuſtians, Naples fuſtian, tripe, or velure, the piece, containing 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Furs, beaver-ſkins, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| Furs, beaver-bellies, or wombs, the dozen | 0 | 4 |
| Furs, budge, tawed or untawed, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Furs, fox ſkins, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Furs, foyns without tails, the dozen | 0 | 1½ |
| **G.** | | |
| Galley-diſhes, each 12 dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Galls, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Glaſs, for windows, the cheſt or caſe | 0 | 3 |
| Glaſs, vocat. Venice drinking-glaſſes, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Looking-glaſſes, halfpenny-ware, the groce, containg 12 dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Looking-glaſſes, penny-ware, the groce, containing 12 dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Looking-glaſſes, of ſteel, ſmall, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Looking-glaſſes, of ſteel, large, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Looking-glaſſes, of cryſtal, ſmall, the dozen, under Numb. 6. | 0 | 1 |
| Looking-glaſſes, of cryſtal, the dozen, Numb. 7, 8, 9, 10. | 0 | 4 |
| Looking-glaſſes, of cryſtal, middle ſort, the dozen, Numb. 6. | 0 | 2 |
| Looking-glaſſes, of cryſtal, the dozen, Numb. 11 and 12. | 1 | 6 |
| Glaſs ſtone-plates plates for ſpectacles, rough, the dz. | 0 | 0½ |
| Glaſs-plates, or ſights for looking-glaſſes unfoyled, of chryſtal, ſmall, under N° 6. the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Glaſs-plates, or ſights for looking-glaſſes unfoyled, of chryſtal, N° 6. the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Glaſs-plates, or ſights for looking-glaſſes unfoyled, of chryſtal, N° 7, 8, 9, 10. the dozen | 0 | 2 |
| Glaſs-plates, or ſights for looking-glaſſes unfoyled, of chryſtal, N° 11, 12. the dozen | 1 | 0 |

| | | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Gloves of Spaniſh leather, the dozen pair | 0 | 0½ |
| | Grain for dyers, of ſcarlet-powder, the pound | 0 | 0½ |
| | Grain for dyers, of Sevil in berries, and grains of Portugal or Rotta, the pound | 0 | 0¼ |
| Grocery, | almonds, the hund. weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | aniſeeds, the hund. weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | cloves, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| | currants, the hund. weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | dates, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| | figs, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | fuſſes of cloves, the hundred pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| | ginger, the hundred pound, cont. five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| | liquorice, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| | mace, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 2 | 0 |
| | nutmegs, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| | pepper, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| | prunes, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | raiſins, great, or Malaga, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | raiſins, of the ſun, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | cinnamon, the hund. containing five ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| | ſugar, refined, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 10 |
| | ſugar, candy-brown, or white, the hund. weight | 0 | 8 |
| | ſugar, Muſcovadoes, and white, the hund. wt. | 0 | 4 |
| | ſugar, St. Thome and Pannelles, the hund. wt. | 0 | 2 |
| | Goats-hair, the hund. pounds, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| | Gunpowder, the barrel, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | Gum arabick, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |

H.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Hawks of all ſorts, the hawk | 0 | 2 |
| | Hats, baſt, or ſtraw-hats knotted, the dozen | 0 | 0¼ |
| | Hats, baſt, or ſtraw hats plain, the groce, cont. 12 dozen | 0 | 1½ |
| | Hats, woolſelts, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| | Hats, demicaſtors, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| | Hats, beaver hats, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| | Headings for pipes, hogſheads or barrels, the thouſand | 0 | 2 |
| | Heath for bruſhes, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | Hemp, undreſſed, the hund. weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | Hemp, dreſſed, the hund. weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | Hides, buff-hides, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| | Hides, cow-hides, or horſe-hides, the dozen | 0 | 3 |
| | Honey, the barrel | 0 | 1½ |
| | Horſes and mares, each horſe or mare | 0 | 6 |
| | Hops, the hundred weight | 0 | 2 |

I.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Indico-duſt, the hund. pound, containing five ſcore | 2 | 0 |
| | Indico-duſt, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| | Incle, wrought, the dozen pound | 0 | 1½ |
| | Incle, rolls, the dozen pieces, cont. 36 yards each piece | 0 | 1 |
| | Incle, unwrought, the hundred pound, containing five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| | Iron wrought, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | Iron unwrought, the ton | 0 | 6 |
| | Iron pots, the dozen | 0 | 1½ |

L.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Latten, ſhaven latten, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 6 |
| | Latten, black latten, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | Lace, bone-lace of thread, the dozen yards | 0 | 0½ |
| | Lace, ſilk bone-lace, the pound, cont. 16 ounces | 0 | 2 |
| | Lace, ſilk-lace of all other ſorts, the pound, containing 16 ounces | 0 | 1 |
| | Lemons, the thouſand | 0 | 1 |
| | Lemons, juice of lemons, the pipe | 0 | 6 |
| | Lemons, pickled lemons, the pipe | 0 | 3 |
| | Linſeed, the quarter | 0 | 1 |
| | Leaves of gold, the hund. leaves, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 0½ |
| | Lewers for hawks, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| | Leather, baſil-leather, the dozen ſkins | 0 | 0¼ |
| | Leather, hangings, gilt, the piece | 0 | 3 |
| | Leather, leather for maſks, the dozen pound | 0 | 2 |
| | Lutes, the dozen | 0 | 4 |
| | Luteſtrings, vocat. catlings, the great groce, containing 12 ſmall groce of knots | 0 | 1 |
| | Luteſtrings, vocat. minikins, the groce, containing 12 dozen knots | 0 | 0½ |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Linen, Brabant, Flemiſh, Embden. | Britiſh cloth, the hundred ells, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| | Frieze cloth, Gentiſh holland, Iſinghams, Overiſſel cloth, Rouſe-linen, Cowsfield, or Plats cloth, each 30 ells | 0 | 2 |
| | callicoes or dutties, the piece | 0 | 0¼ |
| | cambricks, the whole piece, cont. 13 ells | 0 | 2 |
| | damaſk for tabling of Holland-making, the doz. yds. | 0 | 4 |
| | damaſk for tabling of Sileſia-making, the doz. yards | 0 | 2 |
| | damaſk for towelling and napklning, of Holland-making, the dozen yards | 0 | 2 |
| | damaſk for towelling and napklning, of Sileſia-making, the dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| | diaper for tabling, of Holland-making, the doz. yards | 0 | 2 |
| | diaper for tabling, of Sileſia-making, the dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| | diaper for towelling and napkining, of Holland-making the dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| | diaper for towelling and napkining, of Sileſia-making, the dozen yards | 0 | 0½ |
| | French or Normandy canvas, and line narrow, Vandales or Vintry canvas, Dutch barras and Heſſens canvas, the hundred ells, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| | gutting and ſpruce canvas, drillings, packduck, hinderlins, middle good, headlake, Muſcovia, line narrow, Hamburgh cloth narrow, Iriſh cloth, the hundred ells, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| | Hamburgh and Sileſia cloth, broad, the hundred ells, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| | polodavies, the bolt | 0 | 1 |
| | French canvas, and line, ell and half quarter broad, or upwards, the ſix ſcore ells | 0 | 3 |
| | lawns, the whole piece, containing 13 ells | 0 | 2 |
| | lawns, callico lawns, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| | lawns, French laws, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| | lockrams, the piece, of all ſorts, cont. 106 ells | 0 | 1½ |
| | ſoultwich, the hundred ells, cont. ſix ſcore | 0 | 1½ |
| | Straſborough linen, each 30 ells | 0 | 1 |
| | ſtriped or tuſted canvas with thread, the piece, containing 15 yards | 0 | 1 |
| | ſtriped, tuſted, or quilted canvas with ſilk, the piece, containing 15 yards | 0 | 1 |
| | Litmus, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |

M.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Malt, the quarter | 0 | 0½ |
| | Magnus, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | Maſks of velvet or ſattin, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| | Maſts, great, the maſt | 0 | 2 |
| | Maſts, middle, the maſt | 0 | 1 |
| | Maſts, ſmall, the maſt | 0 | 0½ |
| | Maps, printed, the ream | 0 | 1 |
| | Madder, crop madder and all other bale madder the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | Madder, fat madder, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| | Madder, mull madder, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| | Meal, the laſt, containing 12 barrels | 0 | 4 |
| | Mocado ends, the dozen pound | 0 | 1½ |

O.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Oars, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| | Oats, the quarter | 0 | 0½ |
| | Oils, Sevil oil, Majorca oil, Minorca oil, Province, Portugal oil, and ſallet oil, the ton | 2 | 8 |
| | Oils, rape and linſeed oil, the ton | 2 | 6 |
| | Oils, train oil of Greenland or Newfoundland, the ton | 1 | 4 |
| | Olives, the hogſhead | 0 | 4 |
| | Onions, the hundred bunches | 0 | 1 |
| | Onions, ſeed, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | Oranges, the thouſand | 0 | 1 |
| | Orchal, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |

P.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Packthread, the hundred pounds, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 1½ |
| | Pans, vocat. dripping, or frying-pans, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| | Pans, vocat. warming-pans, the dozen | 0 | 1½ |
| | Paper, brown, the hundred bundles | 0 | 6 |
| | Paper, of all other ſorts, each five ſcore reams | 1 | 8 |
| | Peaſe, the quarter | 0 | 0½ |
| | Pitch or tar, the laſt | 0 | 3 |

| | | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Plates, | single, white or black, the hundred plates | 0 | 1 |
| | double, white or black, the hundred plates | 0 | 2 |
| Pomegranates, the thousand | | 0 | 2 |
| Pork, the barrel | | 0 | 1½ |
| Pots, | of earth or stone covered, the hundred containing five score | 0 | 1 |
| | of earth or stone uncovered, the hundred cast, containing a gallon to every cast, whether in one pot or more | 0 | 2 |
| **Q.** | | | |
| Quails, the dozen | | 0 | 0¼ |
| Quicksilver, the hundred, containing five score | | 0 | 10 |
| Quinces, the hundred, containing five score | | 0 | 0½ |
| **R.** | | | |
| Rapeseed, the quarter | | 0 | 1 |
| Rosin, the ton | | 0 | 8 |
| Rice, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 1 |
| Rye, the quarter | | 0 | 0½ |
| Rims for sieves, the groce, containing 12 dozen | | 0 | 0½ |
| **S.** | | | |
| Saffron, the pound | | 0 | 0½ |
| Safflower, the hundred pound, containing five score | | 0 | 4 |
| Salt, the wey | | 0 | 2 |
| Salt-petre, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 1½ |
| Says, | double says, or Flanders serges, the piece | 0 | 3 |
| | Haunscot, and Mild says, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Shumack, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 1½ |
| Silk, | Bridges, Granadoes, Naples, Orgazine, Pole, and Spanish satin silk, sleeve silk, fine and thrown silk, the pound, cont. 16 ounces | 0 | 1 |
| | raw China silk, the pound, cont. 24 ounces | 0 | 1 |
| | ferret or floret silk, fillozel, sleeve silk, coarse, the pound, containing 16 ounces | 0 | 0½ |
| | raw long silk, the pound, cont. 24 ounces | 0 | 0½ |
| | raw short silk, and raw Morea silk, the pound, containing 24 ounces | 0 | 0¼ |
| Silk stockings, the pair | | 0 | 0½ |
| Silks wrought, | boratoes, of silk, Catalopher, China, damask, silk chamlet, China grograms, tabby grograms, philoselloes, narrow tabbies of silk, Towers teffety, the dozen yards | 0 | 2 |
| | silk grograms narrow, silk say, calimancoes and philoselloes broad, the dozen yards | 0 | 3 |
| | silk grograms broad, caffa or damask, the doz. yards | 0 | 4 |
| | fattins, of Bolonia, lukes, jeans, and others of like making, the dozen yards | 0 | 6 |
| | fattins, Bridges, China, and Turkey fattin, the dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| | farcenets, of Bolonia or Florence, the dozen ells | 0 | 1½ |
| | farcenets, of China, the dozen ells | 0 | 1 |
| | fypers, of silk, broad, the dozen yards | 0 | 0½ |
| | fypers, of silk, narrow, each 24 yards | 0 | 0¼ |
| | taffety, ell broad, each dozen yards | 0 | 2 |
| | taffety, China and Levant, each dozen yards | 0 | 0½ |
| | velvets, China velvets, each dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| | velvets, all other velvets or plushes, each dozen yards | 0 | 6 |
| Skins, | cordivant-skins, the dozen | 0 | 2 |
| | goat-skins, in the hair, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| | kid-skins of all sorts, the hundred, containing five score | 0 | 2 |
| Smelts, the hundred, containing five score | | 0 | 4 |
| Spars, | bomb-spars, the hundred, containing six score | 0 | 3 |
| | cant-spars, the hundred, containing six score | 0 | 2 |
| | small spars, the hundred, containing six score | 0 | 1 |
| Stones, | dog-stones, the last | 0 | 6 |
| | marble-stones, the ton | 0 | 8 |
| | mill-stones, the piece | 0 | 6 |
| | quern-stones, the last | 0 | 3 |
| Sword-blades, the dozen | | 0 | 1 |
| Staves, | pipe or hogshead-staves, the thousand | 0 | 6 |
| | barrel-staves, the thousand | 0 | 3 |
| | firkin staves, the thousand | 0 | 1½ |
| Steel, | long-steel, whisp-steel, and such like, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | gad-steel, the half barrel | 0 | 4 |
| Succad, wet or dry, the hundred, cont. five score | | 0 | 10 |
| Syder, the ton | | 0 | 4 |
| **T.** | | | |
| Tallow, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 1 |
| Tapistry, | with hair, the hundred Flemish ells, containing five scote | 0 | 4 |
| | with wool, the hundred Flemish ells, containing five score | 0 | 6 |
| | with caddas, the hundred Flemish ells, containing five score | 1 | 0 |
| | with silk, the dozen Flemish ells | 0 | 2 |
| Taras, the barrel | | 0 | 0¼ |
| Teazels, the thousand | | 0 | 0½ |
| Tykes of all sorts, the tyke | | 0 | 1½ |
| Thread, | Bridges thread, the dozen pound | 0 | 1 |
| | Outnal thread, the dozen pound | 0 | 1 |
| | whited-brown, or piecing thread, the dozen pound | 0 | 1½ |
| | sisters thread, the pound | 0 | 0½ |
| | Lyons or Paris thread, the bale, cont. an hundred bolts | 0 | 8 |
| Tobacco, | Spanish, Verinus, Brazil tobacco, the hundred, containing five score | 2 | 0 |
| | St. Christopher's tobacco, or the like, the hundred pound, cont. five score | 0 | 6 |
| Tow, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 0½ |
| Tiles, vocat. pan-tiles, or Flanders tiles, the thousand | | 0 | 2 |
| **W.** | | | |
| Wax, the hundered, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 4 |
| Wainscots, the hundred, containing five score | | 0 | 6 |
| Whale-fins, the dozen fins | | 0 | 1 |
| Wheat, the quarter, containing eight bushels | | 0 | 1 |
| Woad, | island woad, the ton | 1 | 0 |
| | Tholose woad, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Wood, | box-wood, the thousand pieces | 0 | 2 |
| | Brazile or Farnambuck wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | Braziletto, or Jamaica wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | sustick, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| | red, or Guinea wood, the hundred wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | sweet wood of West-India, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Wool, | beaver wool, the pound | 0 | 1½ |
| | cotton wool, the hundred pound, containing five score | 0 | 4 |
| | Irish combed, the hund. cont. five score | 0 | 3 |
| | Irish uncombed, the hund. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| | Estridge wool, the hund. wt. cont. 112. lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | Polonia wool, the hund. wt. cont. 112. lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | French wool, the hund. wt. cont. 112. lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | lambs wool, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | Spanish wool, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | red wool, the pound | 0 | 4 |
| | red wool, the pound | 0 | 0¼ |
| Wire, vocat. latten wire, and all other wire, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | | 0 | 4 |
| Wine-eager, the ton | | 0 | 6 |
| Gascoin, French wine, and all other wines of the growth of the French king's dominion, the ton | | 2 | 0 |
| Rhenish wine, the awm | | 0 | 6 |
| Muskadel, and all other wines of the growth of the Levant, the butt | | 1 | 0 |
| Sacks, Canaries, Malagaes, Madeiraes, Romneys, Bastards, Tents, and Alicants, the butt or pipe | | 1 | 0 |
| **Y.** | | | |
| Yarn, | cable yarn, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| | camel, grogram, or mohair yarn, the hund. containing five score | 1 | 6 |
| | cotton yarn, the hund. cont. five score | 0 | 4 |
| | Irish yarn, the pack, cont. four hund. wt. at six score pound to the hundred | 0 | 6 |
| | raw linen yarn, Dutch or French, the hundred, containing five score | 0 | 4 |
| | Spruce or Muscovia yarn, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |

All other goods, not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay for ſcavage duties inwards, after the rate of one penny in the pound, according as they are expreſſed or valued in his majeſty's late Book of Rates; and all other not expreſſed therein, ſhall pay the ſame rates, according to the true values.

*Guil. London.* *H. Manchester.*
*Jo. Bramſton.* *Edw. Littleton.*

*The package table of rates outwards.*

| | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|
| **A.** | | |
| Annotto, the hundred, containing five ſcore pound | 0 | 3 |
| Aqua vitæ the hogſhead | 0 | 4 |
| Argol, white or red, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Aſhes, pot-aſhes, the barrel, cont. two hund. wt. | 0 | 2 |
| Aſhes, ſoap-aſhes, the laſt | 1 | 0 |
| Awl-blades for ſhoemakers, the thouſand | 0 | 0½ |
| **B.** | | |
| Barillia or ſophora, the barrel, cont. two hund. wt. | 0 | 4 |
| Beer, the ton | 0 | 6 |
| Birding ſhot lead, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Books, the maund | 1 | 0 |
| Bottles of glaſs covered with leather, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Brimſtone, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Bruſhes, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| Broken glaſs, the barrel | 0 | 0¼ |
| Buttons, vocat. braſs, ſteel, copper, or latten-buttons, the great groce, cont. 12 ſmall groce | 0 | 1 |
| Buttons, vocat. hair buttons, the great groce | 0 | 1 |
| Buttons, vocat. ſilk buttons, the great groce | 0 | 0½ |
| Buttons, vocat. thread buttons, the great groce | 0 | 0¼ |
| Buckweed, the quarter | 0 | 1 |
| Buckrams of all ſorts, the dozen pieces | 0 | 2 |
| **C.** | | |
| Caps for ſailors, Monmouth and others, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Canary-ſeed, the buſhel | 0 | 0½ |
| Cloaks, old, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| Copperas, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Cochineal, Silveſter, or Campechea, the pound | 0 | 0½ |
| Cochineal, of all other ſorts, the pound | 0 | 1 |
| Cobweb lawns, each 12 yards | 0 | 1 |
| **D.** | | |
| Drugs, vocat. aſſafœtida, gum-armoniac, gum-lac, olibanum, and ſaſſafras-wood, the hund. containing five ſcore pound | 0 | 6 |
| Drugs, vocat. caſſia, fiſtula, the hund. cont. five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Drugs, vocat. caſſia, lignea, the hund. cont. five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Drugs, vocat. cubebs, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Drugs, vocat. rhubarb, the pound | 0 | 1 |
| Drugs, vocat. ſcamony, the pound | 0 | 1 |
| **E.** | | |
| Elephants teeth, the hund. cont. five ſcore pound | 0 | 4 |
| Eſtridge-feathers, undreſſed, the pound | 0 | 0½ |
| **F.** | | |
| Filings of iron, called ſwarf, the barrel | 0 | 2 |
| Fiſh, herrings full or ſhotten, the laſt | 0 | 6 |
| Fiſh, ſtockfiſh of all ſorts, the laſt | 0 | 6 |
| Flaſks of horn, the dozen | 0 | 1 |
| Flax, dreſſed, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Flax, undreſſed, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Frankincenſe, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Fuſtians, Engliſh millain, the piece, cont. two half pieces of 15 yards the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Fuſtians, Venetian, Engliſh-make, each 15 yards | 0 | 1 |
| **G.** | | |
| Galls, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Glew, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Glovers clippings, the maund or baſket | 0 | 1½ |
| Grains, ſcarlet powder, and of Sevil in berries and grains of Portugal, or Rotta, the hundred pound | 2 | 6 |
| Grains, grain, French or Guinea, the hund. pound | 0 | 4 |
| Garble, of cloves, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Garble, of almonds, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Garble, of ginger, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| Garble, of mace, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 9 |
| Garble, of pepper, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Gloves, bucks leather, the dozen pair | 0 | 1 |
| Gloves, gloves with ſilk fringe, and faced with taffety, the dozen pair | 0 | 1 |
| Gloves, gloves lined with coney or lambſkin, or plain, the dozen pair | 0 | 0½ |
| Grocery, vocat. almonds, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Grocery, vocat. aniſeeds, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Grocery, vocat. cloves, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| Grocery, vocat. currants, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| Grocery, vocat. dates, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Grocery, vocat. figs, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| Grocery, vocat. ginger, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 9 |
| Grocery, vocat. liquorice, the hund. wt. containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Grocery, vocat. mace, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| Grocery, vocat. nutmegs, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| Grocery, vocat. pepper, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Grocery, vocat. prunes, the hundred weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| Grocery, vocat. raiſins great, and Malaga, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Grocery, vocat. raiſins of the ſun, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Grocery, vocat. ſugar-candy, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 8 |
| Grocery, vocat. ſugar of St. Thome and Panelles, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| Grocery, vocat. ſugar of all ſorts, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 6 |
| Grocery, vocat. cinnamon, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| **H.** | | |
| Hemp, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Hats, beaver hats, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Hats, demy-caſters, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Hats, felt-hats, plain, the dozen | 0 | 1½ |
| Hats, felt-hats, lined or faced, the dozen | 0 | 2 |
| Hair, coney-hair, the hund. lb. cont. five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Hair, of goats or kids, the hund. cont. five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Hair, ox or cow-tail hair, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | ½ |
| Horns, ink-horns, the ſmall groce, cont. 12 doz. | 0 | 0½ |
| Horns, horns of lanthorns, the thouſand leaves | 0 | 2 |
| Horns, tips of horns, the thouſand | 0 | 1 |
| Hops, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| **I.** | | |
| Indico of all ſorts, the hund. pound, cont. five ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| Indico-duſt, the hundred pound, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| India hides, the hundred, cont. five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| Iriſh rugs, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Iron, the ton, unwrought | 0 | 6 |
| Iron, wrought, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Iron, ſpurs, the dozen pair | 0 | 1 |
| Ivory combs, the dozen pound | 0 | 2 |
| **K.** | | |
| Knives, vocat. London knives, ordinary, the ſmall groce | 0 | 3 |
| Knives, vocat. Sheffield knives, the ſmall groce | 0 | 1½ |
| Knives, vocat. ſhoemakers paring-knives, the ſmall groce | 0 | 0½ |
| **L.** | | |
| Lace, bone-lace of thread, the dozen yards | 0 | 0½ |
| Lace, ſilk-lace, the pound, containing 16 ounces | 0 | 1½ |
| Lamperns, the thouſand | 0 | 1½ |
| Lead, the fother | 0 | 8 |
| Lemons pickled, the pipe | 0 | 3 |
| Lemon juice, the pipe | 0 | 6 |
| Linſeed, the quarter | 0 | 1 |
| Linen, vocat. callico, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| Linen, vocat. cambrics, two half pieces, cnnt. 13 ells | 0 | 1½ |
| Linen, vocat. damaſk for tabling, of all ſorts, the dozen yards | 0 | 2 |
| Linen, vocat. damaſk for towelling and knapkening, of all ſnrts, the dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| Linen, vocat. diaper for tabling, of all ſorts, the dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| Linen, vocat. diaper for towelling and napkening, of all other ſorts the dozen yards | 0 | 0½ |
| Linen, vocat. lawns, the piece, containing 13 ells | 0 | 1½ |
| Linen, vocat. linen cloth, called Brabant, Embden, Flemiſh, Freeze, Gentiſh, Holland, Iſinghams, Overiſſels, and Rouſe cloth, each 30 ells | 0 | 2 |
| Linen, vocat. French and Normandy canvas, the hund. ells, containinng ſix ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Linen, vocat. Dutch barras, Heſſens, vitry canvas, the hundred ells, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Linen, vocat. canvas tufted or quilted with copper, ſilk, or thread, or ſuch like, the piece, cont. 15 yds. | 0 | 1 |
| Linen, vocat. linen ſhreads, the maund | 0 | 2 |

Madder,

| | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|
| **M.** | | |
| Madder, all but mull-madder, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Molaſſes, the hogſhead | 0 | 4 |
| Muſtard-ſeed, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| **N.** | | |
| Nails, chair nails, braſs or copper, the thouſand | 0 | 0½ |
| Nails, copper nails, roſe nails, and ſadlers nails, the ſum, containing ten thouſand | 0 | 0½ |
| **O.** | | |
| Oaker, red or yellow, the hundred weight contain. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Onion-ſeed, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Orchal, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Ox-bones, the thouſand | 0 | 1 |
| Ox-gut, the barrel | 0 | 2 |
| Oil, Sevil, Majorca, Minorca oil, Provence, Portugal, lin-ſeed, or rape oil, the ton | 1 | 4 |
| Oil, train or whale oil, the ton | 0 | 8 |
| **P.** | | |
| Paper, printing and copy paper, the hundred reams, containing five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| Pewter, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| **R.** | | |
| Rape-ſeed, the quarter | 0 | 1 |
| Rape-cakes, the thouſand | 0 | 0½ |
| Red lead, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Red earth, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0¼ |
| Rice, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Roſin, the ton | 0 | 6 |
| **S.** | | |
| Safforn, the pound | 0 | 1 |
| Salt, the wey | 0 | 2 |
| Salt-petre, the hundred weight, containing 122 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Sea-horſe teeth, the hundred pound, containing five ſcore | 0 | 10 |
| Sea-coals, the chalder | 0 | 4 |
| Stockings, childrens ſtockings, the dozen pair | 0 | 0½ |
| Stockings, kerſey or leather, the dozen pair | 0 | 1 |
| Stockings, ſilk ſtockings, the pair | 0 | 0½ |
| Stockings, worſted ſtockings, the dozen pair | 0 | 2 |
| Stockings, woollen-knit ſtockings, the dozen pair | 0 | 1½ |
| Shoemack, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Skins and furs, badger ſkins, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Skins and furs, beaver-ſkins, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 2 | 6 |
| Skins and furs, cat-ſkins, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Skins and furs, calve-ſkins, the hundred weight, containing five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Skins and furs, coney-ſkins, grey-tawed, ſeaſoned, or ſtag, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Skins and furs, coney-ſkins, black, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 2½ |
| Skins and furs, elk-ſkins, the piece | 6 | 0½ |
| Skins and furs, fitches, the timber | 0 | 1 |
| Skins and furs, fox-ſkins, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Skins and furs, jennet-ſkins, black, ſeaſoned, or raw, the ſkin | 0 | 0½ |
| Skins and furs, kid-ſkins, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 2 |
| Skins and furs, lamb-ſkins, tawed, or in oil, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Skins and furs, morkins, tawed or raw, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| Skins and furs, otter-ſkins, the hundred, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Skins and furs, rabbit-ſkins, the hundred, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| Skins and furs, ſheep-ſkins, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Skins and furs, ſheep-pelts, the hundred, cont. five ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| Skins and furs, ſquirrel-ſkins, the thouſand | 0 | 3 |
| Silk, raw, of all ſorts, the pound, containing 16 ounces | 0 | 1 |
| Silk, nubs or huſks of ſilk, the hundred, containing twenty-one ounces to the pound | 0 | 4 |
| Silk, Engliſh thrown, the pound, containing ſixteen ounces | 0 | 1 |
| Silver, vocat. Quickſilver, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Slip, the barrel | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. buffins, the piece, broad, containing 14 yds. | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. buffins, the piece, narrow, cont. 14 yards | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. Bridgewaters, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. carrels, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. camelians, the piece, containing 25 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. chamlets or grograms, the piece, containing about 14 or 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. dammoſelloes, or damaſins, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. durance, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. dimity, each thirty yards | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. floramedoes, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. figurettoes | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. hangings of Briſtol, or ſtriped ſtuff, the piece | 0 | 4 |
| Stuffs, vocat. linſey-woolſey, the piece | 0 | 1½ |
| Stuffs, vocat. liſles, the piece, broad or narrow, not above 15 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. mocadoes, ſingle or tufted, the piece, containing 14 yards | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. mocadoes, double, the piece, cont. 28 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. mohairs, the piece, containing about 15 yards | 0 | 1½ |
| Stuffs, vocat. miſcellauny, the piece, containing 30 yards | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. perpetuana's, yard broad, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. perpetuana's, the piece, ell broad | 0 | 2½ |
| Stuffs, vocat. paragon, or parapus, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. pyramides, or marimuff, the narrow piece | 0 | 1 |
| Stuffs, vocat. pyramides, or marimuff, the broad piece | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. raſhes, of all ſorts, the piece, about 24 yards | 0 | 4 |
| Stuffs, vocat. ſays, called Hounſcot-ſays, or milled, the piece | 0 | 3 |
| Stuffs, vocat. ſays of all other ſorts, the piece | 0 | 2½ |
| Stuffs, vocat. ſerges, the ſingle piece, yard broad, containing 12 yards | 0 | 2 |
| Stuffs, vocat. ſerges, double, the piece, yard broad, containg 24 yards | 0 | 3 |
| Soap, hard Caſtile, the hundred, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Soap, the barrel | 0 | 3 |
| Succad, wet or dry, the hundred pound, containing five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Spectacles without caſes, the 12 dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| **T.** | | |
| Tallow, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Tapiſtry, with hair, the hundred Flemiſh ells, containing five ſcare | 0 | 4 |
| Tapiſtry, with wool, the hundred Flemiſh ells, containing five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Tapiſtry, with caddas, the hundred Flemiſh ells, coning five ſcore | 1 | 0 |
| Tapiſtry, with ſilk, the dozen Flemiſh ells | 0 | 2 |
| Taffety, ell broad, the dozen yards | 0 | 2 |
| Taffety, ſilk tuff-taſety, broad, the dozen yards | 0 | 4 |
| Taffety, ſilk tuff-taffety, narrow, the dozen yards | 0 | 2 |
| Thread, whited brown or coloured, the dozen lb. | 0 | 1 |
| Tiffany, each dozen yards | 0 | 1 |
| Tobacco, Spaniſh, the hundred, cont. five ſcore | 2 | 0 |
| Tobacco, of all other ſorts, the hun. cont. five ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| Tin, wrought, the hundred, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Tin, unwrought, the hun. weight, cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 3½ |
| Thread points, the great groce | 0 | 0½ |
| **V.** | | |
| Velures, Engliſh, the piece ſingle | 0 | 1 |
| Velures, Engliſh, the double piece | 0 | 2 |
| Vinegar of wine, the ton | 0 | 2½ |
| **W.** | | |
| Wax, Engliſh wax, the hund redweight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Wax, Engliſh hard wax, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 8 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. bays, the ſingle piece | 0 | 2 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. bays, the double piece | 0 | 4 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. Minikin bays, the piece | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. broad-cloth, the ſhort piece, cont. 24 yards | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. broad-cloth, the long piece, cont. 32 yards | 0 | 8 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. cottons of all ſorts, the hundred goads | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. Devonſhire dozens, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. Frizadoes, the piece | 0 | 3 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. Kerſeys of all ſorts, the piece | 0 | 2 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. liſts of cloth, the thouſand yards | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. northern dozens, ſingle, the piece | 0 | 3 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. northern dozens, double, the piece | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. Spaniſh cloth, Engliſh-making, each 20 yds. | 0 | 6 |
| Woollen-drapery, vocat. Peniſtones, the piece | 0 | 2 |

| | | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Waiſtcoats, | of kerſey or flannel, the dozen | 0 | 2 |
| | of woollen knit, the dozen | 0 | 4 |
| | of worſted knit, the piece | 0 | 0½ |
| | wrought with cruel, the piece | 0 | 0¼ |
| | wrought with ſilk, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| Wool, | cotton wool, the hundred pound, containing five ſcore | 0 | 3 |
| | Eſtridge wool, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | French wool, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| | Spaniſh wool, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Worm-ſeed, the hundred pound, cont. five ſcore | | 0 | 6 |
| Wood, | box-wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 0½ |
| | Brazil-wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 3 |
| | ebony-wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| | fuſtick-wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 l. | 0 | 0½ |
| | red-wood, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb. | 0 | 1½ |
| Wine, | French wines of all ſorts, the ton | 0 | 8 |
| | Muſcadel, and wines of the Levant, the butt | 0 | 6 |
| | Sacks, Canaries, Madeiraes, Romneys, and Hullocks, the butt or pipe | 0 | 6 |

Y.

| | | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Yarn, vocat. | cotton yarn, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| | grogram, or mohair-yarn, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 1 | 6 |
| | raw linen-yarn of all ſorts, the hundred pound | 0 | 4 |

All other goods, not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay for package duties after the rate of one penny in the pound, according as they are expreſſed or valued in his majeſty's late book of rates; and all others not expreſſed therein, ſhall pay the ſame rate according to their true value.

For every entry in the packer's book for writing bills to each entry outward, as uſually they have done, twelve-pence.

The ſtrangers ſhall pay the labouring porters for making up their goods, at their own charge, as always they have done.

The ſtrangers ſhall pay the water-ſide porters belonging to the package-office ſuch fees and duties, for landing and ſhipping their goods, as they have uſually paid within theſe ten years laſt paſt. *See* BALLIAGE, for the table of BALLIAGE DUTIES outwards.

*Wolſeley.*

*The* PACKERS *Water-ſide Porters* TABLE *of Duties for landing Strangers Goods, and of the like Duties or Rates to be paid unto them for ſhipping out their goods, called Portage.*

| | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|
| For a butt of currants | 1 | 4 |
| For a carateel of currants | 0 | 8 |
| For a quarterole of currants | 0 | 4 |
| For a bag of currants | 0 | 4 |
| For pieces of raiſins, the ton | 1 | 8 |
| For a barrel of raiſins | 0 | 4 |
| For all ſorts of puncheons | 0 | 6 |
| For a barrel of figs | 0 | 2 |
| For topnets and frails of figs, *per* ton | 1 | 8 |
| For Brazil, or other wood for dying, *per* ton | 1 | 8 |
| For iron, the ton | 1 | 2 |
| For copperas, the ton | 1 | 2 |
| For oil, wine, or vinegar, *per* ton | 1 | 2 |
| For hemp and flax, the laſt | 1 | 8 |
| For looſe flax and tow, the hundred weight | 0 | 2 |
| For a great bag of tow | 0 | 8 |
| For a ſmall bag of tow | 0 | 4 |
| For a great bag of hops | 0 | 8 |
| For a packet or little bag of hops | 0 | 4 |
| For packs, truſſes, fats, or maunds, *per* piece | 0 | 8 |
| For a great cheſt | 0 | 8 |
| For a ſmall cheſt | 0 | 4 |
| For all caſes, barrels, or bales, *per* piece | 0 | 4 |
| For a bale of madder | 0 | 8 |
| For a bale of ginger or ſhumack, containing four hundred weight | 0 | 8 |
| For a faggot of ſteel | 0 | 1 |
| For any ſerons, the piece | 0 | 4 |
| For a fat of pot-aſhes | 0 | 8 |
| For a laſt of ſoap-aſhes | 1 | 0 |
| For a laſt of pitch or tar | 1 | 0 |
| For a laſt of fiſh | 1 | 0 |
| For wainſcots, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 5 | 0 |
| For clap-boards, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| For deal-boards, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 1 | 4 |
| For a great maſt | 5 | 0 |
| For a middle maſt | 2 | 6 |
| For a ſmall maſt | 1 | 3 |
| For great balks, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 5 | 0 |
| For middle balks, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 2 | 6 |
| For ſmall balks, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 1 | 3 |
| For a mill-ſtone | 5 | 0 |
| For a dog-ſtone | 2 | 6 |
| For a wool-ſtone | 2 | 0 |
| For a yard-ſtone | 0 | 3 |
| For a grind-ſtone | 1 | 0 |
| For a ſtep-ſtone or grave-ſtone | 0 | 8 |
| For quern-ſtone, the laſt | 1 | 0 |
| For emery-ſtones, the ton | 1 | 2 |
| For ten hundred weight of Holland cheeſe | 1 | 0 |
| For roſin, the ton | 1 | 2 |
| For wood, the ton | 1 | 2 |
| For a cheſt of ſugar | 0 | 6 |
| For half wainſcots, the hund. containing ſix ſcore | 2 | 6 |
| For raw hides, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 5 | 0 |
| For bomſpars, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 6 |
| For ſmall ſpars, the hundred, containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 4 |
| For ends of bomſpars, the hund. containing ſix ſcore | 0 | 9 |
| For a horſe, gelding, or mare | 2 | 6 |
| For alum, the ton | 1 | 8 |
| For heath for bruſhes, the hund. wt. cont. 112 lb. | 0 | 1 |
| For iron-pots, the dozen | 0 | 3 |
| For rings of wire, looſe, the ring | 0 | 0½ |
| For pipe-ſtaves, the thouſand | 2 | 6 |
| For Rheniſh wine, the awn | 0 | 6 |
| For burſtones, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 2 | 6 |
| For half-packs of teazels, the piece | 0 | 4 |
| For wicker-bottles, the dozen | 0 | 0½ |
| For ſtone-pots, the hundred, containing five ſcore | 0 | 1 |
| For looſe fiſh, the hundred, landing | 0 | 3 |
| For a barrel of ſalmon | 0 | 2 |
| For a barrel of ſtub-eels | 0 | 2 |
| For a bundle of baſket-rods | 0 | 0½ |
| For a ton of cork | 1 | 8 |
| For a thouſand of ox-bones | 1 | 0 |
| For a thouſand tips of horns | 0 | 6 |
| For a thouſand ſhank-bones | 1 | 0 |
| For brimſtone, the ton, looſe | 1 | 3 |
| For a fodder of lead | 1 | 2 |
| For rims for ſieves, the load | 1 | 0 |
| For a load of fans | 1 | 0 |
| For a load of bulruſhes | 0 | 8 |
| For a hundred reams of paper, looſe | 1 | 0 |
| For a barrel of tarras | 0 | 2 |
| For a barrel of lings | 0 | 2 |
| For a keg of ſturgeon | 0 | 0½ |
| For iron-backs for chimneys, the piece | 0 | 1 |
| For one hundred weight of elephants teeth | 0 | 1 |
| For copper and iron-plates, *per* piece | 0 | 0½ |
| For a hundred ſmall barrels of blacking | 1 | 0 |
| For a dozen of ſcales | 0 | 1 |
| For a hundred of oars | 2 | 6 |
| For every twenty fugar-flags | 0 | 4 |
| For a barrel of ſhot | 0 | 4 |
| For a bundle of canes | 0 | 1 |
| For a cage of quails | 0 | 4 |
| For a cage of pheaſants | 0 | 4 |
| For a cage of hawks | 0 | 4 |
| For a winch of cable-yarn | 0 | 4 |
| For a firkin of ſhot | 0 | 2 |

All other goods, not mentioned in this table, ſhall pay portage duties, as other goods do of like bulk or condition herein expreſſed. *Wolſeley.*

PACKER. This is eſteemed a very reputable trade, though they are really what their title expreſſes, packers as well as preſſers of all ſorts of bale goods (intended for exportation) for the great trading companies and merchants, for which they are anſwerable, if they ſhould happen to receive any damage through bad package: beſides this, ſeveral of them are conſiderable dealers.

Packers, are alſo thoſe that barrel or pack up herrings. And they are ſworn to do it according to the ſtatute made. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 14.

The boy who is put apprentice to this buſineſs, ought to have ſtrength of body; and no other qualifications are neceſſary, more than a common education; being able to write a good hand, and being well verſed in accounts.

It requires four or five hundred pounds to ſet up in buſineſs; and ſome of them make uſe of ſeveral thouſands. They take with an apprentice from twenty to one hundred pounds. *See the foregoing* Article.

PACKET-BOATS may not import or export any goods, unleſs by the allowance of the officers of the cuſtoms, upon forfeiture of ſuch goods, and one hundred pounds by the maſter, beſides loſs of place. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 22.

PACKTHREAD-SPINNER. This buſineſs requires as little education as any other; and as ſmall abilities as any rational being can be ſuppoſed to poſſeſs. Packthread is ſpun and twiſted together much in the ſame manner as ropes. The packthread-ſpinner faſtens one end of two threads to two ſpindles of a wheel; the hemp, or coarſe flax, which ever he uſes, is turned round his waiſt, and he retires backward from the wheel ſpinning out both his threads as he goes, till he reaches the farther end of the walk; the wheel being turned by another hand: this being done, the threads are twiſted together. Thoſe of this buſineſs take about five pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may get twelve or fourteen ſhillings a week; and it will require about ſixty pounds to furniſh a ſhop, and enable him to manufacture his own goods.

PADAN. *See* COURON,

PADUAN, among medaliſts, a new medal ſtruck with all the characters of antiquity.

One Giovanni Cavino, others ſay Lewis Lee, a native of Padua, in the ſeventeenth century, ſucceeded ſo well in this impoſture, that the beſt judges are at a loſs to diſtinguiſh them. His ſon Octavian, though born at Rome, was alſo called the Paduan.

It is properly applicable to thoſe medals only which are ſtruck on the matrices of the elder Paduan.

We have had a Paduan and Parmeſan, namely, Laurentius Parmeſanus, and one Valerius Bellus Vicentinus, in Italy; and a Cartaron, in Holland, who had the knack of imitating the antique in perfection.

PAENSZAJIE, ſilver money current in Perſia, worth two and a half mamoudis; two paenſzajies make one daezajie; and two daezajies the hazaar denarie.

PAGODE, is a gold coin common in all the coaſts of Coromandel; and almoſt the only one in uſe in the trade carried on there, large payments being always made in theſe gold ones. The Engliſh make of them at Fort. St. George, of the ſame ſtandard and weight with thoſe of the country, and which paſs for the ſame value. The Dutch alſo ſtamp ſome at Paliacata, or rather at Negapatnam, of the ſame weight with the Engliſh, though two to three *per cent.* better in fineneſs, and conſequently more ſought after.

At Narſingua, Biſnagar, and the neighbouring parts, they make ſilver pagodes, of divers ſtandards, and conſequently of various values; the ſmalleſt are worth eight tangas, reckoning the tanga at ninety or a hundred Indian baſarucos. *See* BASARUCO.

PAINTERS. There are four ſorts of painting, which are properly called trades.

1. Houſe painting, which is moſtly plain work within and without.

2. Ship-painting, which is alſo for the moſt part plain, but with a great deal of carved-work, and gilding ſometimes.

3. Sign-painting, which is moſtly rough figure-work: theſe are alſo ſhop-keepers, who are alſo a ſort of carvers and joiners, and make and ſell all ſorts of wooden ſigns; but there are ſome alſo of pewter, which is the pewterer's work to caſt, and the ſign-painter's to draw.

4. Coach-painting, which is partly plain, and partly in figures, and ſome of it very curious: there are alſo arms-painters, as arms are much uſed on coaches, &c. Home and ſhip-painter's work is by far the moſt popular; but the heavieſt and moſt unwholeſome.

Plaiſterers are not to exerciſe the trade of a painter in London, without ſerving an apprenticeſhip. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 4. What wages painter's ſervants or apprentices ſhall take by the day. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 6.

PAIR, *par*, denotes two equal and ſimilar things joined together, either collectively, as a pair of gloves, or two ſimilar parts that compoſe one whole, or a ſet of things joined to make another complete, &c.

PAITA. *See* PANAMA.

PALANQUIN, a kind of chair born by men on their ſhoulders, much uſed in China and the Eaſt.

PALATINATE *of Bavaria*, or the *Upper Palatinate*, in the circle of Bavaria, in Germany, ſometimes called the Nortgow, from its northern ſituation, in reſpect of the elector of Bavaria's other dominions, is bounded by Voigtland in the circle of Upper-Saxony on the north; by Bohemia and Auſtria on the eaſt; by the river Danube, which ſeparates it from the Danube of Bavaria on the ſouth; and by Swabia and part of Franconia on the weſt, being about ſeventy miles long, and forty broad; a mountainous, rocky country; but in ſome places the vallies produce good corn and paſture. They have alſo ſome vineyards; but their wine has a ſharp, unpleaſant taſte. In their hills are rich mines of copper, ſilver, and iron; and the forges and manufactures of iron, are very conſiderable in this country.

PALATINATE *of the Rhine*, ſituated in the circle of the Lower-Rhine, in Germany, is bounded by the archbiſhoprics of Mentz and Triers on the north; by the circles of Franconia and Swabia on the eaſt; and by Alſatia and Lorrain on the ſouth and weſt, being upwards of one hundred miles long, and from fifty to ſeventy broad. The Rhine, the Neckar, and other fine rivers running through it, contribute to render it one of the pleaſanteſt and moſt fruitful provinces of all Germany; only unhappy in lying on the frontiers of France, whoſe princes have burnt and plundered this country; and demoliſhed its fine towns ſeveral times during the wars. It is always obliged to ſubſiſt large armies of friends as well as enemies, whenever there happens a quarrel between France and the German princes. The revenues of the Palatinate ariſe by a toll on all veſſels going along the Rhine, Neckar, and other rivers; and from the duties on corn, wine, and other proviſions; the whole eſtimated at three hundred thouſand pounds *per annum*. That prince keeps up a body of ſix or ſeven thouſand men in time of peace; and in the late wars maintained twelve thouſand regular forces many years. There is a diſpute ſubſiſting between the elector palatine and the elector of Hanover, about the titular office of arch-treaſurer of the empire.

PALATINES. How intitled to naturalization. 1 *Geo.* I. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 29.

PALESTINE, a part of Aſiatic Turkey, is ſituated between thirty-ſix and thirty-eight degrees of eaſt longitude, and between thirty-one and thirty-four degrees of north latitude, bounded by mount Libanus, which divides it from Syria on the north; by mount Hermon, which ſeparates it from Arabia Deſerta on the eaſt; by the mountains of Sier and the Deſerts of Arabia Petræa on the ſouth; and by the Mediterranean ſea on the weſt: ſo that it ſeems to have been extremely well ſecured againſt foreign invaſions. It was called Paleſtine, from the Philiſtines, who inhabited the ſea-coaſts. It was alſo called Judea, from Juda; and the Holy-Land, from our Saviour's reſidence and ſufferings in it: and it is called Canaan, and the Promiſed-Land, in the ſcriptures. It is one hundred and fifty miles in length, and upwards; and eighty in breadth; and in the time of Solomon, it ſeems to have extended from the Mediterranean ſea to the river Euphrates. It is generally a fruitful country, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, where it is cultivated; and would be able to ſupply its neighbours with corn and wine, as it did formerly, if the preſent inhabitants were as induſtrious. The country about Jeruſalem is the moſt mountainous and

rocky; but these mountains feed great herds of cattle, abound in milk and honey, and produce excellent wine and olive-oil, where they are cultivated, as the vallies between the mountains do good crops of corn.

PALLET, among painters, a little oval piece of wood, &c. very thin and smooth, on which they place the colours they have occasion for, ready for the pencil; it has a hole at one end to put the thumb through to hold it.

PALLET, among potters, &c. a wooden instrument for forming, beating, and rounding their works; of these they have a large oval one with a handle; others are round, or hollowed triangularly; others like large knives to pare off what is superfluous in their moulds.

PALLET, in gilding, an instrument made of a squirrel's tail, to take up the gold leaves and extend them on the matter to be gilt.

PALLET, is also a part belonging to the balance of a watch or movement.

PALM, *palmus*, an ancient measure of length, taken from the extent of the hand.

The Roman palm was of two kinds; the great palm answered to our span, and contained twelve fingers breadth, or nine Roman inches, equal to about eight half inches English: the small palm contained four fingers, equal to about two English inches, nine tenths.

The Greek palm or doron was of two kinds; the small contained four fingers, equal to two inches, two thirds. The great contained nine fingers. The double Greek palm, or dichas, contained in proportion.

The modern palm is different in different places. At Rome, it contains seven inches five-tenths; at Naples, eight inches; at Genoa, eight eight-tenths inches; at Morocco and Fez, seven two-tenths inches; in Languedoc and some other parts of France, eight one-third inches; and, in England, it is three inches. At Leghorn, there is a palm for woollens, and another for silks, the latter one third longer than the former.

PALM-OIL is a thick, unctuous substance, of the consistence of an ointment, of an orange colour, and a fragrant smell, obtained from the kernel of the fruit of a kind of palm-tree which grows in Africa, particularly at Senega. Authors differ as to the manner of extracting this oil; some affirm it to be got by simple expression, in the same manner that the oil of almonds, olives, &c. are procured: but others, of greater authority, and with a greater shew of probability, alledge, that it is obtained by infusion in hot water; and that the oily matter rises to the surface, whence it is skimmed off.

The inhabitants are said to make this oil part of their food, and to employ it for the same purposes as we do butter: but with us, it is rarely given inwardly; and is used only in some external application. The common people apply it to the cure of chilblains; and when early made use of, not without success. This oil, by keeping, loses its high colour, and becomes white; when it ought to be rejected as no longer fit for use.

PAMPHLET-SHOP. This business is principally carried on by women, who keep little shops in the most populous parts of the town; as at the Royal-Exchange, Temple-Bar, Charing-Cross, &c. They sell all kinds of news-papers, king's-speeches, Votes of the house of commons, single plays, pamphlets of all sorts, almanacks, memorandum books, or indeed any book, if bespoke; though they keep but few bound ones by them. This employ is abundantly profitable in a good situation, as the return is exceeding quick; but it entirely depends on the place where the shop stands; since no diligence or industry can bring trade of this kind to a street or lane where news-papers or pamphlets have not usually been sold; and the dead stock, if there is not a brisk trade, will more than eat out all the profits. These shop-keepers take no apprentices, but hire boys by the week to run of their errands, neither have they journeymen or journeywomen. If a person is so happy as to get a shop in a proper place, diligence and one hundred pounds will enable him or her to get a good support; for as it is only buying and selling at a fixt price, it is easily learnt, and requires no abilities but writing, accounts, and an obliging behaviour.

PANACEA, an universal medicine for all diseases.

The accurate Boerhaave overturns the notion of panaceas, and shews, from the different causes, natures, effects, &c. of diseases, that several may be cured by one medicine, but all by none. He observes, that the most universal remedies known are water, fire, mercury, and opium; and adds, that by these, cautiously disguised, some have acquired the reputation of universal physicians.

PANAMA. Of all the cities that trade with Lima, none supply it with other commodities than those of their own growth and manufactures except Acapulco; but a quite different commerce is tranfacted from Panama. Before this city was taken, pillaged, and burnt in 1673, by Sir Henry Morgan, it was seated on the shore of the South Sea, at nine degrees of north latitude; but the new one is built at four leagues distant from the ruins; more magnificent, better fortified, and with a greater number of inhabitants. It gives name to a large bay in which it is built, and to the isthmus, that separating the two seas, joins the meridional to the septentrional America, and is equally famous for its land trade with Porto-Bello on the North-Sea, and its maritime negociations with Lima on the South-Sea, collecting in its warehouses all the goods that the galleons bring from Europe, as well as all the riches of Chili and Peru, which come by the plate-fleet; and although it at all times carries on a very considerable commerce, and has its road always filled with a great number of vessels, it is, nevertheless, on the plate fleet's arrival, and with the goods by the galleons, that the greatest concourse of merchants meet here, and the trade is most flourishing, being then that the fair is held, which attracts both the nobility and commonalty of the neighbourhood to assemble, and increase the throng.

As soon as the galleons touch at Carthagena (where they remain some time before they proceed to Porto-Bello) a courier is dispatched to Lima, and on the receipt of this advice, the vice-roy orders the plate fleet above-mentioned to be loaded and dispatched, under convoy of four or five men of war; whilst the president of Panama, on his part, directs the providing mules for the carriage of a part of the treasure by land; and barks for the conveyance of the remainder by the river Chagre to Porto-Bello, that no time may be lost, as the galleons only remain there about a month, during which time, every negociation must be tranfacted. It is computed, that the king's effects loaded on the galleons commonly amount to three millions of pieces of eight in a common year; and that the merchants registered effects are three or four times as much, *extra* of what is shipped clandestinely. All the galleons must be ready to sail the thirtieth day after arrival, otherwise they run a risque of being left behind; however, the admiral commonly grants an addition of eight days, which is of great relief to the merchants, and nothing disadvantageous to himself, as this benefit is always procured by the intervention of a considerable present. All iron instruments, such as hoes, axes, hatchets, anvils, &c. spice, wine, oil, laces, and gold and silver stuffs, are likewise proper objects of this trade.

The maritime towns, where (next to Lima) the merchants of Panama carry on their trade, are Lavillia, which furnishes it with hogs, poultry, salt beef, and syrups; Paita (or rather Piura, to which the other is the port) from whence are exported wine, oil, flour, sugar, soap, and goat-skins, made into cordavans; Realegio, yielding brandy, sugar, oil, flour, and wine; Galio, Tomago, and Chiloe, three islands producing yearly a large quantity of timber and boards; Pisca, fruitful in excellent vineyards; Truxillo, abundant in wheat flour, and sugar; Oicoya, where are plenty of shipwrights and yards, as also a quantity of cattle, hides, wheat, and red wood, or nicaragua. There are also some Panama barks, which go yearly to fish for pearls at the isle of Gorgona; this being the only place where they are found in the South-Sea; those called the Pearl-Islands, within twelve leagues of Panama, now producing none.

PANAROUCAN, in the island of Java, was once the capital of a small kingdom, and is seated on a fine river, containing about five thousand families, with the like trade as PAOSSAROUVAN, which *see*.

PANAX. *See* OPOPONAX.

PAN-

PANTILES, to what duties liable. 4 *Will.* and *Mar.* *c.* 5. *ſ.* 2. *See* BRICKS.

PAOSSAROUVAN is a city fortified by the Javaneſe, with above ten thouſand houſes. It is thirteen leagues from Panaroucan, near a river, one league from the ſea, the Dutch having a ſmall fort, at ſome diſtance from it. The trade in commodities of the countries growth, conſiſts in carthame, (or baſtard ſaffron) cattle, fowls, rice, and bird's neſts, all in abundance.

PAPER. Nature preſents us with a variety of ſubſtances on which we may write, and which have been uſed as paper at different times and by different people: we ſee them have recourſe ſucceſſively to palm-tree leaves, to table-books of wax, ivory, and lead; to linen or cotton cloths; to the inteſtines or ſkins of different animals; and to the inner bark of plants; but the perfection of the art conſiſted in finding materials of ſufficient quantity and eaſy preparation: ſuch is ſurely the paper now in uſe.

Could a more common ſubſtance be conceived than the tattered remnants of our cloths, linen worn-out and otherwiſe incapable of being applied to the leaſt uſe, of which the quantity every day increaſes? Could a more ſimple labour be imagined than a few hours trituration by the means of mills? We are ſurprized in obſerving that the diſpatch is ſo great, that five workmen in a mill may make ſufficient paper for the continued labour of three thouſand tranſcribers. The paper, which had been for a long time uſed by the Romans and Greeks, was made of the bark of an Egyptian aquatic plant. According to the deſcription Pliny after Theophraſtus gives us of it, its ſtalk is triangular, and of a thickneſs that may be graſped in the hand; its root crooked; and it terminates by fibrous bunches compoſed of long and weak pedicles. It has been obſerved in Egypt by Guilandinus, an author of the ſixteenth century, who has given us a learned commentary on the paſſages of Pliny where mention is made of it; and it is alſo deſcribed in Proſper Alpinus, and in Lobel. The Egyptians call it berd, and they eat that part of the plant which is near the roots. A plant named papero, much reſembling the papyrus of Egypt, grows likewiſe in Sicily; it is deſcribed in Lobel's *Adverſaria:* Ray, and ſeveral others after him, believed it was the ſame ſpecies; however, it does not ſeem that the ancients made any uſe of that of Sicily, and M. de Juſſieu thinks they ought not to be confounded, eſpecially by reading, in Strabo, that the papyrus grew only in Egypt, or in the Indies. Pliny, Guilandinus, Montfaucon, and the count de Caylus, are of this opinion.

The internal parts of the bark of this plant were the only that were made into paper; and the manner of the manufacture was as follows:

Strips or leaves of every length that could be obtained, being laid upon a table, other ſtrips were placed acroſs, and paſted to them by means of water and a preſs; ſo that this paper was a texture of ſeveral ſtrips, and it even appears that, in the time of the emperor Claudius, the Romans made paper of three lays.

Pliny alſo informs us, that the leaves of the papyrus were let to dry in the ſun, and afterwards diſtributed according to their different qualities fit for different kinds of paper; ſcarce more than twenty ſtrips could be ſeparated from each ſtalk.

The paper of the Romans never exceeded thirteen fingers-breadth, and this was their fineſt and moſt beautiful, as that of Fannius. In order to be deemed perfect, it was to be thin, compact, white, and ſmooth; which is much the ſame with what we require in our rag-paper. It was ſleeked with a tooth or ſhell; and this kept it from ſoaking the ink, and made it gliſten.

The Roman paper received an agglutination as well as ours; which was prepared with flour of wheat, diluted with boiling water, on which were thrown ſome drops of vinegar; or with crumbs of leavened bread, diluted with boiling water, and paſſed through a bolting-cloth. Being afterwards beaten with a hammer, it was ſized a ſecond time, put to the preſs, and extended with the hammer. This account of Pliny is confirmed by Caſſiodorus, who, ſpeaking of the leaves of papyrus, uſed in his time, ſays, that they were white as ſnow, and compoſed of a great number of ſmall pieces without any junction appearing in them, which ſeems to ſuppoſe neceſſarily the uſe of ſize.

The Egyptian papyrus ſeems even to be known in the time of Homer; but it was not, according to the teſtimony of Varro, till about the time of the conqueſts of Alexander, that it began to be manufactured with the perfections art always adds to nature.

Paper made in this manner, with the bark of this Egyptian plant, was that which was chiefly uſed till the tenth century; when ſome imagined the making of it with pounded cotton, and reduced into a pulp. This method, known in China ſeveral ages before, appeared at laſt in the empire of the Eaſt, yet without any certain knowledge of the author, the time and place of this fine invention.

In the ſixth volume of the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Inſcriptions and Belles-Letters, page 605 and the following, there is a diſſertation of father Montfaucon, which proves that cotton paper, *χάρτης βομβυκινος*, began to be uſed in the empire of the Eaſt about the ninth century. There are ſeveral Greek manuſcripts, both in parchment or vellum and cotton paper, that bear the date of the year they were written in; but the greateſt part are without date. From the dated manuſcripts a ſurer judgment may be formed by comparing the writings of the age of thoſe that are not. The moſt ancient manuſcript in cotton paper, with a date, is that of the king, numbered 2889, which was written in 1050: another of the emperor's library, that bears alſo its date, is of the year 1095. But, as the manuſcripts without a date are incomparably more numerous than thoſe which are dated, father Montfaucon, by comparing the writing, diſcovered ſome of the tenth century; among others, one of the king's library, indorſed with the number 2436. If the ſame ſearch was made in all the libraries both of the Eaſt and Weſt, others perhaps might be found of the ſame time, or more ancient. Hence it may be judged, that this bombycine or cotton paper was invented in the ninth century, or at lateſt in the beginning of the tenth. Towards the end of the eleventh, and the beginning of the twelfth, its uſe was common throughout the empire of the Eaſt, and even in Sicily. Roger, king of Sicily, ſays, in a Diploma written in 1145, and quoted by Rocchus Pyrrhus, that he had renewed on parchment a charter that had been written on cotton paper, in *charta cuttunea*, in the year 1102, and another dated in the year 1112. About the ſame time, the empreſs Irene, conſort of Alexis Comnenes, ſays, in her rules drawn up for the nuns ſhe had founded at Conſtantinople, that ſhe leaves them three copies of the rule, two on parchment, and one on cotton paper (Analec. Gr. p. 278.) Since this time, cotton paper was ſtill more in uſe throughout the whole Conſtantinopolitan empire.

As to the origin of the paper we uſe, nothing can with certainty, ſays father Montfaucon, be affirmed concerning it. Thomas Demſter, in his Gloſſary on the Inſtitutes of Juſtinian, ſays, that it was invented before the time of Accurſius, who lived in the beginning of the thirteenth century: "*Bombyceæ chartæ paulo ante ætatem Accurſii excogitatæ ſunt.*" Though he there ſpeaks of Bombycine paper, I believe he alſo comprehends under that name the linen rag paper, which is pretty like cotton paper. In ſome countries both were equally uſed, as in Sicily, the ſtate of Venice, and perhaps others. Several editions of Aldus Manutius, made at Venice, are on cotton paper: the proximity of Greece, had, no doubt, introduced the uſe of it there; Demſter ſeems therefore to ſpeak of both. But we have a more ancient and expreſs paſſage on linen rag paper in Petrus Mauritius, called *The Venerable*, a cotemporary of St. Bernard, who died in 1153. "The books we read every day, ſays he in his treatiſe againſt the Jews, are made of ſheep, goat, or calf ſkin; or of Oriental plants, that is, the papyrus of Egypt; or of rags:" "*Ex raſuris veterum pannorum.*" Theſe laſt words ſignify undoubtedly the paper, ſuch as is now uſed: there were therefore books of it in the twelfth century; and, as public acts and diplomas were written on the Egyptian paper till the eleventh, it is probable that linen rag paper was invented about the ſame century, and that it occaſioned the diſuſe of the Egyptian paper in the Weſt, as well as that of cotton in the Eaſt. Petrus Mauritius tells us, that there had been already, in his time, ſome books of the linen rag paper; but they muſt have been very ſcarce; for, notwithſtanding the moſt diligent ſearch of the learned antiquary Montfaucon, both in France and Italy, he could never

ver find a book or leaf of paper, ſuch as is now uſed, before the year 1270; ſo that there is no hope of finding an exact date to this diſcovery.

The fineſt and whiteſt linen rags are always the beſt, becauſe, the finer the thread is, the more eaſily it is whitened. Thoſe from hemp or flax are preferred, though cotton rags are not rejected. New cloth does not ſucceed ſo well, as taking up too much time in fining. Woollen and ſilk rags are only uſed for brown paper; but even for this purpoſe they ſhould be mixed up with a large parcel of coarſe linen.

Old paper may alſo ſerve for the ſame uſe, but the waſte would be too conſiderable; whence it is rather reſerved for paſte-board, in the manufacture of which, being worked in leſs time and with leſs force, and with the ſame water, it will alſo loſe much leſs. Beſides, paper that has been once ſized, though paſſed through boiling water, ſtill gives the pulp a vifcidity, which ought to be guarded againſt.

It may, perhaps, in cloſing this account, be very agreeable to our readers to know, that paper may be alſo made nearly as common as it is, though immediately extracted from plants and other materials. When there is a ſcarcity of rags for making white paper, the manufacturers uſe thoſe which at other times ſerve for making coarſe or brown paper, and prepare them with lime-water. By this preparation they deſtroy the ſorcign bodies that may be in thoſe coarſe materials; but, as at the ſame time they diſſolve their ligneous fibres, and partly deſtroy them, they muſt loſe conſiderably of the effective ſubſtance that ſerves for other qualities of the paper. In order to remedy this waſte, ſeveral attempts have been made to ſubſtitute certain plants, from which, though with more difficulty, paper might be extracted.

Albert Seba, in his treatiſe of Natural Hiſtory, invites the curious to try the experiment: it ſeems, ſays he, that our European countries are in no want of proper trees for making paper, if we ſhould give ourſelves the trouble to examine into their nature. The alga marina, which is compoſed of long, ſtrong, and viſcid filaments, and the Ruſſian mats, would be very fit for this purpoſe. Father Du Halde, and other authors inform us, that the Chineſe paper is made with different ſorts of plants, and that of Japan with the ſecond bark or rind of a kind of mulberry-tree. M. De la Loubare ſays, that the Siameſe make their paper of old cotton rags, or with the bark of a tree, called in the country *toncoe*. Flacourt deſcribes how the inhabitants of Madagaſcar make theirs with a ſpecies of mallows they call *avo*. In ſhort, moſt travellers to the Indies and America, relate the advantages of the ſtuffs and cloths made from palm-trees, which, undoubtedly, might be eaſily converted into paper.

The botaniſt perceives a regular order in all ſuch plants as are judged proper for being made into paper. Moſt of them are compoſed of long longitudinal fibres, more or leſs cloſe, and clothed with a ſubſtance that fills up the interſtices; ſuch are the palmiferous, gramineous, liliaceous, ſtamineous, and malvaceous.

The palmiferous claſs is that which is chiefly uſed by the Indians, Aſiatics, and Americans, for their cloaths, cordage, ſails of ſhips, and other utenſils. Almoſt all parts of theſe trees are uſed, according to the different manufactures they may have occaſion for: in ſome of them the ſpatha is made choice of, that incloſes the germen of the fruits before their maturity, or that which ſuſtains the young leaves; in others, the ſort of flocks or tow that ſurrounds the fruit; in others, the young and tender leaves; and in others, laſtly, the bark is preferred to other parts. The fruit, ſpatha, leaves, and bark of the cocoa-tree are all employed, as travellers relate, in different kinds of manufactures. Rumphius, in his Hiſtory of the Plants of Amboyna, ſays as much of the calapa. The pinanga, the wild lontarus, the tecum, the hakum, the wonga, other ſpecies of the palm-tree, furniſh from their leaves a more or leſs fine thread, which the people make ſtuffs of, and alſo paper, particularly from the leaves of the hakum.

According to Ray, in his Hiſtory of Plants, the cocoa-tree contains in its pith upwards of fifty or ſixty ſheets of paper, which may ſerve for writing on. A book of the ſame kind may be found in the middle of a Peruvian fruit, mentioned by M. Frezier, in his voyage to the South Sea: whence it is probable, that the pith of the palm-tree, and the pulp of this fruit, may be eaſily reduced into leaves.

It is from an elder-tree that thoſe beautiful artificial flowers are made, which are brought us from China; and books have been ſeen of the roots of a kind of mallows, which require no other labour than to be dried with art, and ſeparated into leaves.

The muſa has been employed for much the ſame purpoſes: it is alſo called Adam's fig-tree, upon account of the prodigious bigneſs of its leaves, each of which is ſufficient to wrap a man up in; and they are therefore uſed for the burying of the dead.

The liliaceous claſs comprehends the aloes and the yucca, both very filamentous and fibrous plants, and fit for making paper. A thread is drawn from the aloes, well known for its property of not extending, and for the uſe that is made of it in experiments of phyſics. Father Tertre, in his Natural Hiſtory of the Antilles, deſcribes the manner of drawing thread from this plant. Sir Hans Sloane in his Catalogue of the Plants of Jamaica, ſpeaks alſo of the aloes: his ſecond ſpecies is that which Bauhin, in his Pinax, page 20, calls the eleventh ſpecies of paper. Cluſius, in his treatiſe of Exotic Plants, page 6, ſpeaks of a ball of thread, made of the bark of a tree, which, according to Sir Hans Sloane, is the ſame aloes. Bauhin copies Cluſius, and ſays, that this thread is very fine and white. The third ſpecies of Sir Hans Sloane's aloes, which is a true ſpecies of yucca, is known, in Laet, page 645, by the name of the excellent ſpecies of hemp or flax, which comes very near ſilk. Seba has given, in his firſt volume, the figure of two leaves of a plant, which he calls the aquatic ruſh of Surinam, compoſed of innumerable threads; and he obſerves, that this ruſh deſerves to be examined, in regard to the utility that may accrue from it.

The firſt paper that deſerves that name, was manufactured from the gramineous claſs: the Chineſe bamboo is a plant of the ſame claſs.

The birch is one of the firſt trees, of which the bark had been uſed for writing upon. By the name of bark we ſhould always, it ſeems, underſtand the inner lay, placed under the thick bark, which will become ligneous: it was therefore always called *liber* by the Latins. Hemp, the blackberry-buſh, and nettles, belong to the ſame claſs of plants, and have been all uſed for making paper. Kæmpfer and Seba ſay, that the tree the Japaneſe make paper of is a ſort of mulberry-tree, or papyrus, its fruit being like that of our mulberry-trees. Father Du Halde ſays, that the ſame mulberry-tree, whoſe leaves are uſed by the Chineſe for feeding ſilk-worms, furniſhes branches, the bark of which ſerves to make paper, and ſtrong enough to cover the common umbrellas.

Hemp may ſerve for making paper, without having paſſed through the rag ſtate. M. Guetard, having tried the experiment with ſucceſs, concludes, that when, in rope-walks and arſenals, there is a great conſumption of hemp, and no other uſe is commonly made of the tow, than to let it rot for dunging gardens, this ſame tow, and other refuſe of the hemp, may be very well reſerved for the purpoſe of paper. Other experiments, made by him on the bullen of hemp, on mallows and nettles, being previouſly left to rot in water, were likewiſe attended with ſucceſs.

Mention has been made, in the Oeconomic Journal for April, 1751, of a manufacture of nettle-thread, that was then eſtabliſhed at Leipſic. The plant, called *urtica urens maxima*, the great ſtinging-nettle, very common in England, being gathered when its ſtalks ſeem to be about half faded, is left to dry, and then beaten ſo as to facilitate the drawing off the rind from the ligneous parts. This rind may be prepared as flax; and, being ſpun, yields a thread of a greeniſh brown, very even and clear, and nearly reſembling a woollen thread. Being boiled, it emits a greeniſh juice, but afterwards becomes whiter, more even, and ſtrong. Theſe experiments, which were carried on ſucceſsfully for the making of cloths, would no doubt ſucceed equally, in regard to paper.

The malvaceous claſs affords, in like manner, plants which are very fit for being manufactured into paper; and, beſides all thoſe already mentioned, flax, the linden-tree, the yoke-elm, and even thiſtles, are poſſeſſed of the like properties.

M. De Reaumur was of opinion, that wood, in a ſtate of putrefaction, might be alſo formed into paper. The diſſolution hemp has undergone in its ſeveral preparations, bears

ſome relation to wood diſſolving by putrefaction. It is not, therefore, the laſt degree of putrefaction that is here neceſſary; for paper requires only a degree of diſſolution, which has not deprived the plant of its intire adheſion. Waſps ſeem very intelligent in making choice of wood that is of a degree capable of being formed into their ſort of paſteboard: and, indeed, the out-works of a waſp's neſt ſeem to be of paper or paſteboard; and it is with rotten wood, prepared after their manner, that they at laſt give it the form we ſee it in.

Even nature prepares ſufficiently, without the help of any art, a very fine paper of plants that have rotted at the bottom of water. M. Guetard has obſerved, in pools of water, which were dried up in woods and foreſts, ſome conſiderable maſſes of a matter quite like paper. This was an aſſemblage of leaves which were eaſy to be ſeparated, and could be torn as paper; and, though he could not exactly determine, whether this paper was formed only of rotten leaves, or of a kind of byſſus, it notwithſtanding appeared to him, that leaves and rotten plants were the principal ingredients in its compoſition.

The aſſertion would be, perhaps, too bold and general, if it ſhould be ſaid, that all plants indiſcriminately might ſerve for the making of paper; ſo that, to make it eaſily and of a good ſort, ſeveral qualities are required in the plants that are choſen for this purpoſe. The fibres ought to be ſuſceptible of acquiring whiteneſs; they ought alſo to be ſpungy, and capable of being penetrated by the liquids which are uſed for reducing them into paper. Thoſe fibres muſt be ſeparated without being deſtroyed; they muſt be in a condition of being reduced into a pap almoſt without conſiſtence, whereof the molecules are ſoft, fine, and like cotton. After deſiccation, they muſt reſume a new conſiſtence; and, having been diluted in water, they muſt reſume a new texture, and ſtill reſerve, after the laſt incorporation, their ſoftneſs, poroſity, and whiteneſs.

So many neceſſary qualities for the formation of paper muſt, of courſe, greatly limit the number of plants fit for this uſe.

*Method of making linen-paper.* The linen rags, being carried to the mill, are firſt ſorted, then waſhed very clean in puncheons, whoſe ſides are grated with ſtrong wires, and the bottoms bored full of holes. After this they are fermented, that is, laid in ſquare heaps, cloſe covered with ſacking till they ſweat and rot, which is commonly done in four or five days. When duly fermented, they are twiſted into handfuls, cut ſmall, and thrown into oval mortars, made of well ſeaſoned oak, about half a yard deep, with an iron plate at bottom, an inch thick, eight inches broad, and thirty long. In the middle is a waſhing-block, with five holes in it, and a piece of hair-ſieve faſtened on the inſide, ſo that nothing can paſs out except dirty water. Theſe mortars are continually ſupplied with water by little troughs from a ciſtern filled by buckets faſtened to the floats of the great wheel, which raiſes the wooden hammers for pounding the rags in the mortars. When the rags are beaten to a certain degree, called the firſt ſtuff, the pulp is removed into boxes, where it is left to mellow about a week; then it is put into a clean mortar, pounded afreſh, and then removed into preſſes or boxes as before, in which ſtate it is called the ſecond ſtuff. The maſs being beat a third time, till it reſembles flour and water, without any lumps, it is thereby fitted by the pit-mortar, where it is perfectly diſſolved, and is then carried to the vat to be formed into paper.

But lately, inſtead of pounding the rags to a pulp with large hammers, as above, they make uſe of engines, which perform the work in much leſs time. Theſe engines conſiſt of a round ſolid piece of wood, into which are faſtened ſeveral long pieces of ſteel ground very ſharp. This is placed in a large trough with the rags, and a ſufficient quantity of water. At the bottom of the trough is a plate with ſteel bars, ground ſharp like the former. The engine, being carried round with a prodigious velocity, reduces the rags to a pulp in a very ſhort time. It muſt be obſerved that the motion of the engine cauſes the water in the trough to circulate, and by that means conſtantly returns the ſtuff to the engine. The trough is conſtantly fed with clean water at one end, while the dirty water from the rags is carried off at the other, through a hole defended with urine gratings, in order to hinder any of the pulp from going off with the dirty water.

When the ſtuff is ſufficiently prepared as above, it is carried to the vat, and mixed with a proper quantity of water, which they call priming the vat. The vat is rightly primed, when the liquor has ſuch a proportion of the pulp, as that the mould dipped into it will juſt take up enough to make a ſheet of paper of the thickneſs required. The mould is a ſquare ſieve, about one inch deep, having a braſs wire bottom, reſting on ſticks to prevent its bagging, and to keep it exactly horizontal. This mould the maker dips into the liquor, and gives it a ſhake, as he takes it out, to clear the water from the pulp. He then ſlides it along a groove to the coucher, who turns the ſheet, lays it on a felt, and returns the mould to the maker, who by this time has prepared a ſecond ſheet in another mould; and thus they proceed, laying alternately a ſheet and a felt till they have made ſix quires of paper, which is called a poſt. This quantity is then put under a preſs, and by the ſtrength of five or ſix men all the water is preſſed from it; after which it is ſeparated from the felts, laid regularly one ſheet upon another, and, having undergone a ſecond preſſing, is hung up to dry. When ſufficiently dried, it is taken off the lines, rubbed ſmooth with the hands, and laid by till ſized, which is the next operation. For this they chuſe a fine temperate day, and, having boiled a proper quantity of clean parchment, or vellum ſhavings, till they come to a ſize, they prepare a fine cloth, on which they ſtrew a due proportion of white vitriol and roch allum finely powdered, and ſtrain the ſize through it into a large tub, wherein they dip as much paper at once as they can conveniently hold, and with a quick motion give every ſheet its ſhare of the ſize, which muſt be as hot as the hand can well bear it. After this it is preſſed, hung up ſheet by ſheet to dry, and then, being ſorted, is told into quires, which are folded, preſſed very hard, and ſo tied up in reams, or bundles, for ſale.

*Papers are of various kinds:* with regard to colours, they may be divided into white, brown, blue, &c. With regard to quality, into fine, ſecond, baſtard, ſuperfine, &c. With regard to uſe, into writing, printing, preſſing, cap, cartridge, copy, chancery, poſt, &c. With regard to dimenſions, into demy, medium, crown, fools-cap, pot, royal, ſuper-royal, imperial, elephant, atlas, &c. With regard to country, into Germany, Lombardy, Rochelle, Genoa, Holland, England, &c.

We have alſo printed paper to hang rooms with, ſtamped paper to write obligations, deeds, and contracts upon; ruled paper for books of accounts, &c. To which may be added, cut and gilt paper for letters, &c.

*Blue paper* is uſed for ſugar-loaves, and wrapping up linen, &c.

*Blotting paper* is paper not ſized, and in which ink readily ſinks: it is uſed in books of accounts, &c. in lieu of ſand, to prevent blotting. It is alſo uſed by apothecaries for filtring.

*Teint or demi-teint paper*, a paper for deſigning on, which is either brown, blue, or biſterd.

*Biſterd paper*, is white paper waſhed over with a ſponge dipped in ſoot-water. Its uſe is to ſave the labour of the crayon, in places which are to be ſhadowed the ſame depth with the teint of this paper: for light places they are made with chalk.

*Marbled paper*, a ſort of paper painted with divers colours, which is made by applying a ſheet on the ſurface of a liquor, wherein colours, diluted with oil, or ox's gall, are ſuſpended.

*The manner of making marbled paper.* They firſt provide a trough, either of lead or wood, well joined and pitched, of the ſhape and dimenſions of the paper to be marbled, and about four fingers deep, which is to contain the liquor uſed in the operation. This liquor is made by macerating a quantity of gum tragacanth, four or five days, in fair water, which is to be ſtirred from time to time, and freſh water daily added, till it be of a conſiſtence ſomewhat thinner than oil, and then it is ſtrained into the trough for uſe. The colours to be applied on the ſurface of the liquor (which are uſually blue, red, green, and yellow) being prepared of proper ingredients, there is added to them a little ox or fiſh gall; and, if the colours, when ſprinkled

ſprinkled on the liquor, do not dilate themſelves ſufficiently, more gall muſt be added; but, if they ſpread too much, the fault muſt be corrected by adding more of the colour.

The colours being ranged in gallipots on the table, where the trough is placed, they begin by dipping a bruſh of hog's hair into the colour, commonly the blue firſt, and ſprinkling it on the ſurface of the liquor; then the red is applied in the ſame manner, but with another bruſh; afterwards the yellow, and afterwards the green.

When all the colours are thus floating on the liquor, they uſe a pointed ſtick, which being drawn with addreſs, from one ſide of the trough to the other, ſtirs up the liquor and fluctuating colours; after which they draw a comb over the ſurface of the liquor permitting only the teeth to enter; and this being performed with a gentle and uniform motion, makes thoſe clouds and undulations on which the beauty of the paper very much depends.

The colours lying in this poſture, the operator applies on them a ſheet of white paper, previouſly moiſtened, which requires a dexterity only attainable by practice, the ſurface of the liquor and paper being to meet equally in all its parts; which done, before the colours have time to ſoak through, he lifts it up nimbly, and ſpreads it on a board, where having lain a while, it is hung upon a line to dry, and is then poliſhed with a marble ſtone or knob of ivory.

It muſt be obſerved, that the ſprinkling of the colours is to be renewed, and the other operations to be performed with the ſtick and comb, at every application of a freſh ſheet of paper, becauſe each ſheet takes off all the colours from the liquor.

Duties upon paper, paſte-board, &c. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *cap.* 4. *ſect.* 42. 10 *Ann. cap.* 19. *ſect.* 32. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9.

Penalty on removing painted paper before ſurveyed. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 17.

Rags may be imported free. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 10.

The drawback on exportation of foreign paper taken away. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 4.

For the drawback and regulatiuns of Britiſh paper on exportation. *See* DRAWBACK.

PAPER-CREDIT ſignifies, in general, whatever property is circulated in a ſtate, or transferred from one perſon to another by the means of any written paper obligation, inſtead of hard money, or merchandizes, or lands; ſuch as exchequer bills, bank notes, bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, bonds, mortgages; and ſome include herein all transfers made by ſtocks, &c. The term conſidered in this acceptation, including the conveyance of property of any kind whatever, from perſon to perſon, and from nation to nation, by the means of paper authority only, comprehends a wonderful circulation of property over the whole traffic-able world; without which, the concerns of commerce could not poſſibly be carried on with that extent and facility they are at preſent.

In order to render what we ſhall obſerve of uſe chiefly to our own country, we ſhall reſtrain our conſideration to the circulation of property of this ſort within ourſelves.

Eraſmus Philips, Eſq; computes in the year 1725, the whole money-tranſactions of this nation at 126,199,328 l. which he does in the following manner, viz.

| | |
|---|---|
| It is a ſtupendous thought, ſays this gentleman, to conſider the money-tranſactions of this kingdom; perhaps it may not be unacceptable to give ſome account of it. I believe I ſhall be allowed to compute the rents of this kingdom at | 20,000,000 l. |
| And upon the ſuppoſition that the lands of England are not taxed at half the value, this account may be near the truth. | |
| The duties on the cuſtoms produces *per annum* about | 1,600,000 |
| Which, upon an average of 30 l. *per cent. ad valorem*, ſhews our imports to be for about | 5,300,000 |
| Beſides, our re-exports, which may be about | 1,500,000 |
| The reſt of our duties and funds | 2,199,328 |
| If it is allowed me, that there are eight millions of people in this nation, I believe I ſhall not exceed, if I reckon the manufactures conſumed at home to amount to *per annum* | 16,000,000 l. |
| I ſhall not mention the intereſt ariſing from mortgaged land, that being computed before in the rental; but I muſt take notice of the mortgages themſelves, becauſe they are often transferred, and may be reckoned money in circulation; and theſe have been computed at a fifteenth part of the land, which will come to about | 26,000,000 |
| The next thing I ſhall mention is, the great national debt, | *prin. money.* |
| And this is about | 53,000,000 |
| The malt produces more, about | 609,000 |
| So that the whole money-tranſactions of this nation, ſeems to be for about | 126,199,328 |
| And all this is carried on with no more of ſpecie than | 15,000,000 |

And perhaps I may be particular in ſaying, the reaſon of this prodigious circulation is the debt itſelf; for the large and regular intereſt that has been paid on thoſe ſtate actions, have exhauſted all private hoards, and made theſe ſecurities become like a new ſpecies of money, current in every body's hands.

Since Mr. Phillips wrote, not only the national debts, but the public revenue has greatly augmented, and conſequently our paper-circulation has increaſed in the like proportion; and yet it is to be feared that the quantity of ſpecie, at preſent, is much below 15,000,000, at which, when that gentleman wrote, he computed it.

And how detrimental to the kingdom, in other reſpects, this great increaſe of paper-credit is likely one day to prove, may be inferred from what follows, according to the ingenious Mr. Hume *.

* See Hume's Political Diſcourſes.

Firſt, It is certain, ſays that gentleman, that our national debts cauſe a mighty confluence of people and riches to the capital, by the great ſums which are levied in the counties to pay the intereſt of thoſe debts; and perhaps too, by the advantages in trade, which they give the merchants in the capital above the reſt of the kingdom.

Secondly, Public ſtocks, being a ſpecies of pader-credit, have all the diſadvantages attending that ſpecies of money. They baniſh gold and ſilver, from the moſt conſiderable commerce of the ſtate, reduce them to common circulation, and by that means render all proviſions and labour dearer, than otherwiſe they would be.

Thirdly, The taxes which are levied to pay the intereſt of theſe debts, are a check upon induſtry, heighten the price of labour, and are an oppreſſion on the poorer ſort.

Fourthly, As foreigners poſſeſs a ſhare of our national funds, they render the public, in a manner tributary to them, and may, in time, occaſion the tranſport of our people and our induſtry.

Fifthly, The greateſt part of public ſtock being always in the hands of idle people, who live on their revenue, our funds give great encouragement to an uſeleſs and inactive life.

But though the injury that ariſes to commerce and induſtry from our public funds, will appear, upon ballancing the whole, very conſiderable, it is trivial in compariſon of the prejudice that reſults to the ſtate, conſidered as a body politic; which muſt ſupport itſelf in the ſociety of nations, and have various tranſactions with other ſtates, in wars and negociations. The ill there is pure and unmixed, without any favourable circumſtance to attone for it; and it is an ill too, of a nature the higheſt and moſt important.

We have, indeed, been told, that the public is no weaker upon account of its debts, ſince they are moſtly due amongſt ourſelves, and bring as much property to one, as they take from another. It is like transferring money from the right hand to the left, which leaves the perſon neither richer nor poorer than before. Such looſe reaſonings and ſpecious compariſons will always paſs, where we judge not upon principles. We aſk, is it poſſible, in the nature of things, to overburden a nation with axes, even where the ſovereign reſides among them? The very doubt ſeems extravagant; ſince it is requiſite in every commonwealth,

wealth, that there be a certain proportion obſerved betwixt the laborious and the idle part of it. But if all our preſent taxes be mortgaged, muſt we not invent new ones? And may not this matter be carried to a length, that is ruinous and deſtructive? In every nation there are always ſome methods of levying money more eaſy than others, ſuitable to the way of living of the people, and the commodities they make uſe of. In Britain, the exciſes upon malt and beer afford a very large revenue, becauſe the operations of malting and brewing are tedious and impoſſible to be concealed; and, at the ſame time, theſe commodities are not ſo abſolutely neceſſary to life, as that their price would very much affect the poorer ſort.

Duties upon conſumptions are more equal and eaſy, than thoſe upon poſſeſſions. What a loſs is it to the public, that the former are all exhauſted, and that we muſt have recourſe to the moſt grievous method of levying taxes!

Were all the proprietors of land only ſtewards to the public, muſt not neceſſity force them to practiſe all the arts of oppreſſion uſed by ſtewards, where the abſence and negligence of the proprietor render them ſecure againſt enquiry?

It will ſcarce be aſſerted, that no bounds ought ever to be ſet to national debts, and that the public would be no weaker, were twelve or fifteen ſhillings in the pound land-tax mortgaged, along with all the preſent cuſtoms and exciſes. There is ſomething therefore in the caſe, beſides the mere transferring of property from one hand to another. In five hundred years, the poſterity of thoſe now in the coaches, and of thoſe upon the boxes, will probably have changed places, without affecting the public by theſe revolutions.

It muſt be confeſſed, that there is a ſtrange ſupineneſs, from long cuſtom, crept into all ranks of men, with regard to public debts, not unlike what divines ſo vehemently complain of with regard to their religious doctrines. We all own, that the moſt ſanguine imagination cannot hope, either that this, or any future miniſtry, will be poſſeſſed of ſuch rigid and ſteady frugality, as to make any conſiderable progreſs in the payment of our debts; or that the ſituation of foreign affairs will, for any long time, allow them leiſure and tranquility, ſufficient for ſuch an undertaking *. What then is to become of us? The events here will depend little upon the contingencies of battles, negociations, intrigues, and factions. There ſeems to be a natural progreſs of things, which may guide our reaſoning.

* In times of peace and ſecurity, when alone it is poſſible to pay debts, the monied intereſt are averſe to receive partial payments, which they know not how to diſpoſe of to advantage, and the landed intereſt are averſe to continue the taxes requiſite for that purpoſe. Why therefore ſhould a miniſter perſevere in a meaſure ſo diſagreeable to all parties? For the ſake, we ſuppoſe, of a poſterity, which he will never ſee; or of a few reaſonable reflecting people, whoſe united intereſt, perhaps, will not be able to ſecure him the ſmalleſt borough in England. It is not likely we ſhall ever find a miniſter ſo bad a politician. With regard to theſe narrow deſtructive maxims of politics, all miniſters are expert enough.

As it would have required but a moderate ſhare of prudence, when we firſt began this practice of mortgaging, to have foretold, from the nature of men and of miniſters, that things would neceſſarily be carried to the length we ſee; ſo now, that they have at laſt ſo happily reached it, it may not be difficult to gueſs at the conſequence. It muſt, indeed, be one of theſe events; either the nation muſt deſtroy public credit, or public credit will deſtroy the nation. It is impoſſible they can both ſubſiſt, after the manner they have been hitherto managed, in this as well as in ſome other ſtates. *See* the article MONIED INTEREST.

There was, indeed, a ſcheme for the payment of our debts, which was propoſed by an excellent citizen, Mr. Hutchinſon, above thirty years ago, and which was much approved of by ſome men of ſenſe, but never likely to take effect: he aſſerted, that there was a fallacy in imagining, that the public owed this debt; for that really every individual owed a proportional ſhare of it, and paid, in his taxes, a proportional ſhare of the intereſt, beſides the expences of levying theſe taxes. Had we not better then, ſays he, make a proportional diſtribution of the debt among us, and each of us contribute a ſum ſuitable to his property, and by that means, diſcharge at once, all our funds and public mortgages? He ſeems not to have conſidered, that the laborious poor pay a conſiderable part of the taxes by their annual conſumptions, though they could not advance at once, a proportional part of the ſum required. Not to mention, that property in money, and ſtock in trade, might eaſily be concealed or diſguiſed; and that viſible property in lands and houſes would really at laſt anſwer for the whole; an inequality and oppreſſion, which would never be ſubmitted to. But though this project is never likely to take place, it is not altogether improbable, that when the nation becomes heartily ſick of the debts, and cruelly oppreſſed by them, ſome daring projector may ariſe, with viſionary ſchemes for their diſcharge. And, as public credit will begin, by that time, to be a little frail, the leaſt touch will deſtroy it, as happened in France, and in this manner it will die of the doctor *.

* Some neighbouring ſtates practiſe an eaſy expedient, by which they lighten their public debts. The French have a cuſtom (as the Romans formerly had) of augmenting their money; and this the nation has been ſo much familiarized to, that it hurts not public credit, though it be really cutting off at once, by an edict, ſo much of their debts. The Dutch diminiſh the intereſt without the conſent of their creditors. Could we practiſe either of theſe methods, we need never be oppreſſed by the national debt, and it is not impoſſible but one of theſe, or ſome other method, may, at all adventures, be tried on the augmentation of our incumbrances and difficulties. But people in this country are ſo good reaſoners upon whatever regards their intereſt, that ſuch a practice will deceive no body; and public credit will probably tumble at once, by ſo dangerous a trial.

But it is more probable, that the breach of national faith will be the neceſſary effect of wars, defeats, misfortunes, and public calamities, or even, perhaps, of victories and conqueſts. It muſt be confeſſed, when we ſee princes and ſtates fighting and quarrelling amidſt their funds, debts, and public mortgages, it always brings to our mind, a match of cudgel-playing fought in a china-ſhop. How can it be expected that ſovereigns will ſpare a ſpecies of property, which is ſo pernicious to themſelves and to the public, when they have ſo little compaſſion on lives and properties, which are uſeful to both?

Let the time come (and ſurely it will come, if we continue to increaſe our national debt) when the new funds, created for the exigencies of the year, are not ſubſcribed to, and raiſe not the money projected. Suppoſe either that the caſh of the nation is exhauſted, or that our faith, which hath hitherto been ſo ample, begins to fail us. Suppoſe that, in this diſtreſs, the nation is threatened with an invaſion, a rebellion is ſuſpected, or broke out at home, a ſquadron cannot be equipped for want of pay, victuals, or repairs, or even a foreign ſubſidy cannot be advanced. What muſt a prince or miniſter do in ſuch an emergency? The right of ſelf-preſervation is unalienable in every individual, much more in every community. And the folly of our ſtateſmen muſt then be greater, than the folly of thoſe who at firſt contracted debts, or what is more, than that of thoſe who truſted, or continue to truſt this ſecurity, if theſe ſtateſmen have the means of ſafety in their hands, and do not employ it.

The funds created and mortgaged, will, by that time, bring in a large yearly revenue, ſufficient for the defence and ſecurity of the nation, and money is perhaps lying in the Exchequer, ready for the diſcharge of the quarterly intereſt: neceſſity calls, fear urges, reaſon exhorts, compaſſion alone exclaims: the money will immediately be ſeized for the current ſervice, under the moſt ſolemn proteſtations, perhaps, of being immediately replaced. But no more is requiſite. The whole fabric, already tottering, falls to the ground, and buries thouſands in its ruin. And this may be called the natural death of public credit. For to this period it tends as naturally, as an animal body to its diſſolution and deſtruction *.

* So great dupes are the generality of mankind, that notwithſtanding ſuch a violent ſhock to public credit, as a voluntary bankruptcy in England would occaſion, it would not probably be long, ere credit would again revive in as flouriſhing a condition as before. The preſent king of France, during the late war, borrowed money at lower

lower intereſt than ever his great-grand-father did; and as low as the Britiſh parliament, comparing the natural rate of intereſt in both kindoms. And though men are commonly more governed by what they have ſeen than what they foreſee, with whatever certainty; yet promiſes, proteſtations, fair appearances, with the allurements of preſent intereſt, have ſuch powerful influence as few are able to reſiſt. Mankind are, in all ages, caught by the ſame baits: the ſame tricks played over and over again, ſtill trepan them.

The heights of popularity and patriotiſm, are ſtill the beaten road to power and tyranny, flattery to treachery, ſtanding armies to arbitrary government, and the glory of God to the temporal intereſt of the clergy. The fear of an everlaſting deſtruction of credit, allowing it to be an evil, is a needleſs bugbear. A prudent man, in reality, would rather lend to the public immediately after they had taken a ſpunge to their debts than at preſent, as much as an opulent knave, who even though you could not force him to pay, is a preferable debtor to an honeſt bankrupt. For the former, in order to carry on buſineſs, may find it his intereſt to diſcharge his debts, where they are not exorbitant. The latter has it not in his power. The reaſoning of Tacitus, *Hiſt. lib.* 3. as it is eternally true, is very applicable to our preſent caſe. *Sed vulgus ad magnitudinem beneficiorum aderat: ſtultiſſimus pecuniis mercabatur: apud ſapientes caſſa habebantur, quæ neque accepi, ſalva rpublica poterant.* The public is a debtor whom no man can oblige to pay. The only check which the creditors have on it, is the intereſt of preſerving credit; an intereſt which may eaſily be over-balanced, by a very great debt, and by a difficult and extraordinary emergence, even ſuppoſing that credit irrecoverable. Not to mention, that a preſent neceſſity often forces ſtates into meaſures, which are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, againſt their intereſt.

Theſe two events, ſuppoſed above, are calamitous, but not the moſt calamitous.

Thouſands are thereby ſacrificed to the ſafety of millions. But we are not without danger, that the contrary event may take place, and that millions may be ſacrificed for ever, to the temporary ſafety of thouſands *. Our popular government, perhaps, will render it difficult or dangerous for a miniſter to venture on ſo deſperate an expedient, as that of a voluntary bankruptcy. And though the houſe of lords be altogether compoſed of the proprietors of lands, and the houſe of commons chiefly, and conſequently neither of them can be ſuppoſed to have great property in the funds; yet the connections of the members may be ſo great with the proprietors, as to render them more tenacious of public faith, than prudence, policy, or even juſtice, ſtrictly ſpeaking, requires.

* We have heard it has been computed, that the whole creditors of the public, natives and foreigners, amount only to ſeventeen thouſand. Theſe make a figure at preſent on their income, but in caſe of a public bankruptcy, would, in an inſtant, become the loweſt, as well as the moſt wretched of the people. The dignity and authority of the landed gentry and nobility, is much better rooted, and would render the contention very unequal, if ever we come to that extremity. One would incline to aſſign to this event a very near period, ſuch as half a century, had not our fathers prophecies of this kind been already found falacious, by the duration of our public credit, ſo much beyond all reaſonable expectation. When the aſtrologers in France were every year foretolling the death of Henry IV. theſe fellows, ſays he, muſt be right at laſt. We ſhall, therefore, be more cautious, than to aſſign any preciſe date, and ſhall content ourſelves with pointing out the event in general.

And, perhaps, too, our foreign enemies, or rather enemy, (for we have but one to dread) may be ſo politic as to diſcover, that our ſafety lies in deſpair, and may not therefore ſhew the danger, open and barefaced, till it be inevitable. The balance of power in Europe, our grandfathers, our fathers, and we, have all juſtly eſteemed too unequal to be preſerved without our attention and aſſiſtance. But our children, weary with the ſtruggle, and fettered with incumbrances, may ſit down ſecure, and ſee their neighbours oppreſſed and conquered; till, at laſt, they themſelves and their creditors lie both at the mercy of the conqueror. And this may properly enough be denominated, the violent death of our public credit. *See* the articles CREDIT [*Public* CREDIT,] DEBTS [*National* DEBTS,] FUNDS.

Theſe ſeem to be the events, which are not very remote, and which reaſon foreſees as clearly almoſt as ſhe can do any thing, that lies in the womb of time.

And though the ancients maintained, that, in order to reach the gift of prophecy, a certain divine fury or madneſs was requiſite, one may ſafely affirm, that, in order to deliver ſuch prophecies as theſe, no more is neceſſary, than merely to be in one's ſenſes, free from the influence of popular madneſs and deluſion.

PAPERS, denote writings, eſpecially thoſe relating to an eſtate, as alſo books of accounts, invoices, orders, deeds, bonds, charters, &c.

PAPER, among bankers, &c. denotes bills of exchange, bank and promiſſory notes, &c.

PAPER HANGINGS-MAKER. This being a very extenſive buſineſs that has been lately much improved, and may be ſtill carried to a higher degree of perfection, it requires a boy of genius, who has learnt to draw, and has a taſte for painting; and as they now make landſcapes, ruins, and ſea-pieces, as the ornaments of chimney-pieces, ſome knowledge of perſpective is alſo neceſſary. Hanging paper is made in ſeveral different manners. Some is printed upon wooden blocks, and coloured by placing paper over it, cut out in holes in the form of the figures or parts of the figures where they are to be laid on; over theſe holes the artiſt moves a large bruſh dipped in any colour, and removes the paper as he proceeds, till the whole piece is finiſhed; and then begins again with other papers cut ſo as to admit other colours, proceeding in the ſame manner till the whole piece is completed.

Other kinds of paper hangings are made without their being firſt printed on blocks, ſolely by means of papers cut into ſprigs and flowers, &c. which are laid on as in the other caſe, and the figures repreſented on the paper by bruſhing over theſe patterns; which are removed as before, till all the different colours and ſhades are given, and the work completed: after which, if the work is deſired to be curious, it is touched up by mending the defects, and giving it proper hightenings, &c. with the pencil.

Flock paper hangings are made in much the ſame manner. They take flocks, which are the cuttings of the rough nap taken off by the cloth-dreſſer; this they chuſe of the proper colours, and cut with an engine as fine as poſſible; the figure is then repreſented on the paper with a ſtrong varniſh; and while it is yet wet and ſticky, the flocks are ſcattered upon it; when that which falls upon the varniſhed part ſticks, and repreſents the figure deſigned, and the reſt that falls upon the dry paper is ſhaken off. If the paper is to be of ſeveral different colours, as reds, greens, blues, and yellows, the pattern for one of theſe is drawn with the varniſh, and the flocks ſpread over the whole piece; which being afterwards thoroughly dried, the ſhades of the ſame colour are afterwards ſeparately added, and then the other colours with their ſhades. In this manner paper of this kind may receive as many colours as you pleaſe. Thoſe of this buſineſs now keep very handſome ſhops. They take twenty pounds and upwards with an apprentice; who, with about two hundred pounds, may, in their turn, ſet up maſter of a ſhop; or receive, if a good hand, about twenty ſhillings a week by being a journeyman.

PAPER-MAKER. Though ſeveral of the principal ſtationers of London have mills with which they make their own paper; yet as this buſineſs requires much water, and a great deal of room, it is always carried on in the country. This art, which has been lately ſo greatly improved, as almoſt intirely to exclude the importation of foreign paper, requires both ingenuity and ſtrength: in particular the boy ought not to be of a tender conſtitution, nor be apt to get cold by dabbling in water; but no extraordinary education is neceſſary to prepare a boy to excel in it. Paper is made of linen rags, ſeparated into parcels. Theſe uſed to be formerly beat into a pulp, by means of large heavy hammers, whoſe heads were raiſed up by cogs fixed in the axis of a water wheel: but they are now more expeditiouſly ground to pieces, by means of an iron barrel covered with teeth, fixed on the inſide of an iron cylindar, and turned by the ſame wheel, which alſo

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upplies the mill with water. When the rags are thus reduced to a proper conſiſtence, the pulp is poured into a large veſſel, and the artificer takes the mould of a ſheet of paper of the ſize of that to be made. This mould is an oblong ſquare of wood, the bottom of which is compoſed of fine braſs wires, faſtened parallel to each other, and ſome of them are diſpoſed in the form of the figure diſcovered in the paper when it is held up to the light. This frame the artiſt holds in both his hands, and plunging it into the tub, ſuddenly takes it up again with an even motion; the water running through the ſpaces between the wires, nothing remains in the mould but the beaten pulp, in a thin coat, which, being placed on a cloth, is removed under a large ſtanding preſs; as faſt as the ſheets can be removed, the artiſt prepares freſh ones, till at length a great heap of this new made paper, with a cloth between each, being in the preſs, it is worked down upon it, and ſqueezed with great force, by turning the ſcrew by means of a long round iron bar. After ſome time the paper is taken out of the preſs, and hung upon poles to dry; which being completed, it is told out in quires, doubled in the middle, preſſed again, and packed up into reams or bundles for ſale. The paper-maker takes with an apprentice from five to ten pounds, and allows a journeyman fifteen or eighteen ſhillings a week; who requires four or five hundred pounds to enable him to ſet up maſter. *See* PAPER.

PAR *of monies.* Moſt of what has hitherto been wrote concerning the par of coins is obſcure and confuſed: the greateſt part of the authors who have publiſhed any thing about it give the par of monies no longer current; however it is a thing not over difficult, as it only conſiſts in making the compariſon between the intrinſick value of the gold and ſilver coins of each country, and the price they paſs current at; it is therefore neceſſary that the exact weight and ſtandard of ſuch monies be firſt known. The celebrated Sir Iſaac Newton publiſhed a tract of the ſtandard of foreign coins, which was printed at the end of Mr. Arbuthnot's work; but ſo many alterations have ſince been made in the monies of France, Spain, and ſome other countries, that it is neceſſary to examine the laſt arrets that have been publiſhed about them to clear up this particular. As for example: the king of Spain, by a decree, raiſed the piſtole from thirty-two to thirty-ſix rials of plate; and, by a ſubſequent decree, it was ordained, that the dollars ſhould be current in his eſtates at nine and one half rials inſtead of eight, which they paſſed at before, and theſe have ſince been raiſed to ten, and the piſtole to forty rials: which obſervation might be enlarged on that of ſeveral other ſpecies; but neither room nor time permits our doing it; we muſt therefore content ourſelves with giving ſome few examples; but theſe ſhall be ſuch as will ſufficiently and clearly demonſtrate the method by which all others may be found out.

*The par of gold coin between London and Amſterdam.*

Of one and a half mark of gold of the ſtandard of twenty-two carats are made in England forty-four and a half guineas, as Sir Iſaac Newton demonſtrated to the lords of the Treaſury on the 21ſt of September, 1717, each guinea being then current at twenty-one ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling, but ſince it has been lowered to twenty-one ſhillings. At preſent one thouſand new Holland ducats weigh fourteen marks one ounce and eleven three eight engels; each mark is of the ſtandard of twenty-three carats, and a trifle more than ſeven grains, from whence it follows, that there is as much pure gold in a thouſand ducats as in $451\frac{6}{91}$ guineas. Commonly in the payments that are made among the citizens, a ducat paſſes in Holland for five guilders and five ſtivers current money, and according to this proportion, an Engliſh guinea, or twenty-one ſhillings ſterling, is worth eleven Guilders and twelve ſtivers current money of Holland; or 9480 nine thirteenth ſhillings ſterling are equal in value to 5250 guilders; or one pound ſterling to about thirty-ſix ſhillings and eleven-pence de gros, current money; or if the agio be reckoned at four and three fourths *per cent.* it will be found very near thirty-five ſhillings and three-pence de gros bank money.

*The par between London and Amſterdam of ſilver money.*

According to the aforementioned report made by the ſaid Sir Iſaac Newton in the year 1717, eleven one tenth ounces of pure ſilver, and nine tenths of an ounce of alloy made ſixty-two ſhillings ſterling. In Holland two hundred pieces of three guilders weigh twenty-five marks, five ounces eleven five eighths engels, and are of the ſtandard of eleven penny-weights; or in $1052\frac{200}{333}$ ſhillings ſterling, there is as much fine ſilver as there is in the ſaid two hundred pieces of three guilders, and the value of twenty ſhillings ſterling in 1717 was near to thirty-eight ſch. current money of Holland.

If the compariſon be made by ducatons, or by Holland rixdales, inſtead of three guilder pieces, it will be found very near the ſame value; for if it be true (as we are informed) that two hundred ducatons weigh twenty-ſix marks three ounces fifteen engels, and their ſtandard is eleven one fourth penny-weight; and if two hundred rixdales weigh twenty-two marks ſix and one half ounces of the ſtandard of ten and one half penny-weight; when the three guilder pieces are fixed at ſixty ſtivers, the intrinſick value of the ducaton will be ſixty-three ſtivers three two ſeventeenths deniers, and the rixdales fifty ſtivers and almoſt two deniers.

*The par between France and Holland for the gold coin.*

A mark of gold money, worth at preſent in France 720 livres, is exactly thirty louidors, and the ſtandard twenty-one carats ſeven or ſeven and one half grains, we will take the medium when at twenty-one carats ſeven and one half grains, each louidor ought to weigh five and one third engels; thoſe coined in the year 1731 weigh five engels and ten azen, which we may deem the true weight. In one thouſand Holland ducats there is then as much pure gold as in $466\frac{29}{40}$ louidors. If the ducat is counted at five guilders five ſtivers current money, a louidor, or twenty-four livres French, is worth of Dutch money eleven guilders five ſtivers, and the three livre crown almoſt fifty-ſix one fourth de gros current money, or ſixty-four French livres were (in 1731) of an equal value with thirty Dutch current guilders, and ſixteen French crowns of ſix livres are at a par with fifteen three guilder pieces; or thirty ducats of Holland are worth fourteen louidors. The proportions we here give are ſufficiently exact; for if one thouſand current guilders are reduced into French money, there will be found by the ſaid proportion only one ninetieth of a louidor, or four fifteenths of a French livre, leſs than by the intrinſick value; four fifteenths of a French livre are one eighth of a guilder.

If the agio of one forty-ſecond *per cent.* upon the bank money be taken, the value of three French livres will be a ſmall matter leſs than fifty-three ſeven eighths de gros bank money.

The weight of one thouſand louidors of the ſun is thirty-three marks, one ounce of the ſtandard of twenty-one carats, ſeven grains (Koophandel van Amſterdam 2de Deel. page 111. ed. A. 1727) by which it is ſeen, that they are near of equal value with the new louidor.

*The par between France and Holland of the ſilver money.*

The king of France, by an arret of the 25th of May 1726, fixed the mark of ſilver money at forty-nine livres ſixteen ſtivers, and ſince that time we believe no alteration has been made; the ſtandard is almoſt eleven pennyweights, and that of the ancient crown of nine to the mark was of ten pennyweights and twenty-two grains (*Traite des Changes Etrangers, par Mr.* Dernis, Paris 1726.) At preſent in France there are ſix livre crowns of $8\frac{3}{10}$ to the mark, and it is ſaid that the ſtandard is eleven pennyweights. In making the calculation it will be found, that in 200 three guilder pieces there is as much pure ſilver as in $213\frac{93}{320}$ French crowns of ſix livres, or each of theſe crowns worth pretty near $56\frac{1}{4}$ ſtivers current money of Holland; this is very near the ſame value which we have found in the gold.

The ſilver pieces of twenty-four ſols, coined in France, in 1726 and 1727, only weigh $3\frac{3}{4}$ engels, and the value in Dutch money is $10\frac{15}{16}$ current ſtivers.

Almoſt

Almoſt all authors who have treated of a par, have taken for a foundation that the ancient crown of three livres or of nine in a mark (by the arret of the 16th of September 1666, Mr. Dernis, page 4.) was worth 100 d. de gros of Holland, or that the mark of eleven pennyweights French money was worth twenty-two guilders ten ſtivers; but at preſent by the pieces of three guilders the value of the ſaid mark is found to be twenty-three guilders ſeven ſtivers, or that of a crown of three livres $103\frac{7}{9}$ d. de gros current money; upon which footing the calculation may be made in the preſent time; for it ſhould be ſtated by the rule of three inverted; if when the mark of money is fixed at twenty-ſeven livres, the par is $103\frac{7}{9}$ d. de gros, how much will the par be if the mark is worth $49\frac{4}{5}$. But it is eaſier to make the calculation by the crowns, becauſe it is found at preſent that there are $16\frac{3}{5}$ crowns of three livres in a mark; ſo it is ſaid if $16\frac{3}{5}$ crowns are worth twenty-three guilders and ſeven ſtivers current Dutch money, how much ſhall one crown be worth; and it will be found as aforeſaid, a little more than $56\frac{1}{4}$ d. de gros. In the beginning of the year 1726 the par was at $67\frac{1}{2}$ d. de gros; it may be ſeen then, that it is very eaſy to find the par, whether the king of France riſes or falls the price of the coin. In caſe that it changes not only the weight, but the ſtandard, the direct rule of three ought to be ſtated by ſaying, the ancient ſtandard is to the par that is found, as the new ſtandard is to the par ſought for.

*The par between Liſbon and Amſterdam for the gold coin.*

By an ordinance of Monſ. the count de Daun, it is ſeen, that the old louidor of France weighed at Milan five pennyweights and twelve grains, and the cruzado of Liſbon eight pennyweights and eighteen grains; 1000 of the ſaid louidors weighed in Holland twenty-one marks one ounce and fifteen engels, or each louidor four engels $11\frac{1}{3}$ azen; according to this proportion, the cruzado ought to weigh ſix engels $29\frac{1}{3}$ azen; if the ſtandard is reckoned (with Sir Iſaac Newton) at twenty-one carats ſeven grains, as the ancient piſtoles of Spain and France were; (Koophandel van Amſterdam 2de Deel, page 111 and 831) there will be found as much pure gold in $358\frac{206}{729}$ cruzados as in 1000 ducats of Holland; and putting the ducat at five guilders and five ſtivers, the value of a cruzado will be fourteen guilders thirteen ſtivers and one denier current money; and becauſe the cruzado paſſes at Liſbon for 4800 reis, 400 reis are worth $48\frac{7}{12}$ d. de gros current money, or a little more than $46\frac{1}{2}$ d. de gros bank-money, if the agio be taken at five *per cent.* or forty-ſeven pence de gros if the cruzado weigh ſeven engels, as it is commonly reckoned. This may be done by a yet ſhorter method; for by the ducat it is found, that a mark of the ſaid cruzados is worth in Holland 338 guilders nine ſtivers; and it is ſaid, if 160 engels are worth 338 guilders nine ſtivers, how much ſhall ſeven engels and $29\frac{1}{3}$ azen be worth? In a book printed at Amſterdam 1730, intitled, Sleutel des Koopmans, page 318, it is ſaid that the par is $63\frac{1}{16}$ d. de gros.

*A new method to avoid the great fractions.*

In calculating the par, or in making the compariſon between coins, great fractions frequently intervene. As for example: we have found in $210\frac{866}{1663}$ Engliſh crowns of five ſhillings ſterling, as much pure ſilver as in $213\frac{93}{320}$ French crowns of ſix livres; or one crown of ſix livres has as much fine ſilver as $\frac{224320}{227282}$ of an Engliſh one of five ſhillings, but the working of this with ſo great a fraction being very troubleſome, it may be changed for a leſs fraction that ſhall be almoſt of the ſame value, which may be expreſſed as in the following problem.

PROBLEM.

A great fraction being given to find another, whereof the denominator is leſs than a certain number given, ſo that the value of the fraction that has been found, is the neareſt that can be to that given.

We change the fraction given into another whoſe numerator is unity, and we do all the ſame with the fraction which is found in the denominator, and ſo on. We neglect for a moment the fractions of fractions that are found at the end, and by that will be had all ſimilar fractions, which are alternatively the one too big and the other too little, as may be ſeen in the ſubſequent example.

The fraction given being $\frac{3147}{7793}$, it is demanded which is the fraction moſt like it whoſe denominator is leſs than one hundred.

But as we think our author's ſolution of his problem is neither ſo correct nor clear as it ſhould be, we have attempted to make it plainer and more exact, though before we proceed to the operation, it will be neceſſary to premiſe the following lemma.

To find a denominator to a given numerator which ſhall make it the neareſt fraction to a larger fraction before given, let the firſt given fraction be denoted by $\frac{n}{d}$, and the numerator to the new fraction be $a$, and its denominator $x$, then we have $\frac{a}{x} = \frac{n}{d}$ therefore $nx = ad$ and $x = \frac{ad}{n}$ which put into words gives this.

RULE.

Multiply the numerator of the new fraction into the denominator of the larger one, which then divide by the numerator of the great fraction, and you will have the denominator you ſought for your new numerator; now in regard to the problem, firſt find a fraction whoſe numerator is unity, that ſhall be equal to $\frac{3147}{7793}$, which by the foregoing lemma will be expreſſed $\frac{1}{1\times\frac{7793}{3147}} = \frac{1}{2\frac{1499}{3147}}$, if now you reject from the denominator, the fraction of fractions, there is one-half the neareſt (though too great) to $\frac{3147}{7793}$ when the denominator muſt not exceed four. But as the problem admits an higher one, we repeat the operation, thus $\frac{1}{2\frac{1}{2\frac{149}{1499}}}$ where you only ſubſtitute for $\frac{1499}{3147}$ its value altered by the ſaid lemma to $\frac{1}{2\frac{1}{2\frac{149}{1499}}}$ and rejecting $\frac{149}{1499}$ we have $\frac{1}{2\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{2}{5}$ which is too great, but the neareſt of any whoſe denominator does not exceed fifty, to the given fraction; but the work may be by the condition of the problem repeated again $\frac{2}{5\frac{1}{1\frac{149}{1499}}}$ and for $\frac{149}{1499}$ writing $\frac{1}{10}$ found as before, we have $\frac{2}{5\frac{1}{10-\frac{9}{149}}}$ from which leaving out $\frac{9}{149}$ there is $\frac{2}{5\frac{1}{10}}$ $= \frac{2}{\frac{51}{10}} = \frac{20}{51}$ which is too big, though it is the fraction ſought; for if the work be again repeated, you will have a denominator which ſhall be 817.

*N. B.* It appears by inſpection that the higher the denominator is, the nigher you approach to the truth (for there is leſs omitted in the denominator) ſo at laſt the work would converge into the given fraction.

*Note* alſo, that by the ſaid lemma, you may find a fraction of a given denominator, which ſhall be neareſt equal to a higher given fraction; and as this is of peculiar uſe in fractional works, we ſhall give the rule it may be performed by.

Multiply the new denominator into the numerator of the firſt given fraction, then divide by the great denominator, and rejecting the remainder as inconſiderable, your quotient ſhall be your new numerator. By this you may prove the foregoing work, for if you chuſe a denominator fifty-one, and would find a numerator to make it neareſt to $\frac{3147}{7793}$, then $\frac{51\times3147}{7793}$ gives 20, as before found.

## *A comparison of some* COINS.

### *Of* SILVER.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| London. | Amsterdam. | If reduced | will be found | If reduced | will be found |
| 20 crowns of 5 shillings ster. | worth 19 pieces of 3 guild. | 1001. str. | less $\frac{2}{3}$ stiv. | 1000 guild. | more $\frac{1}{19}$ shill. str. |
| Paris. | Amsterdam. | Crowns. | Dutch mon. | | French mon. |
| 16 crowns of 6 livres | worth 15 pieces of 3 guilders. | 1000 of 3 liv. | less $5\frac{5}{8}$ sti. | 1000 guild. | more $8\frac{1}{2}$ sols. |
| Or 337 crowns of 6 liv. | worth 316 pieces of 3 guilders. | 1000 of 3 liv. | less $1\frac{1}{12}$ den. | 1000 guild. | more $\frac{1}{9}$ sols. |
| Paris. | London. | Crowns. | English mon. | | French mon. |
| 76 crowns of 6 livres | worth 75 crowns of five shill. str. | 1000 of 3 liv. | more $3\frac{1}{4}$ d. str. | 1001. str. | less $5\frac{4}{7}$ sols |

### *Of* GOLD.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| London. | Amsterdam. | If reduced | will be found | If reduced | will be found |
| 93 guineas, | worth 206 ducats. | 1001. str. | more 4 den. | 1000 guild. | less $\frac{1}{4}$ d. str. |
| Paris. | Amsterdam. | Crowns. | Dutch mon. | | French mon. |
| 14 louidors, | worth 30 ducats. | 1000 of 3 liv. | more $3\frac{1}{2}$ sti. | 1000 guild. | less $5\frac{1}{3}$ sols. |
| London. | Paris. | | French mon. | Crowns. | English mon. |
| 30 guineas, | worth 31 louidors. | 1001. str. | less $21\frac{2}{3}$ sols. | 1000 of 3 liv. | more $1\frac{1}{6}$ str. |

Though Mr. Richard has not explained the foregoing tables, we have judged it necessary to do it, that they may thereby be rendered useful.

In the first line, the twenty English crowns are not worth quite fifty-seven guilders, therefore at that rate one hundred pounds sterling must produce less than it would have done had the hundred shillings and fifty-seven guilders been exactly equal, and for the same reason must make something more sterling money; and to calculate the deficiency of the guilders, first find what part of a guilder two-thirds of a stiver is, which is easily discovered to be two-thirds of one-twentieth, or two-sixtieths, or one-thirtieth, and then the stating will be,

As 1001.——$\frac{1}{30}$——5l.
Or as 20l.——$\frac{1}{30}$——1l. to $\frac{1}{600}$.

Therefore the guilders are only $56\frac{599}{600}$. And by the same reasoning, the true differences of the second line in the *first*, and of the third line in the *second* table may be discovered; but the others being of a different nature, the method for them may be demonstrated by the third line in the *first* table, where seventy-six French crowns of six livres are worth a little more than three hundred and seventy-five shillings sterling; therefore one hundred pounds sterling must accordingly make the French money less, and to find the real value of four hundred and fifty-six livres in shillings sterling, say,

Fr. cro. d. Fr. cro.
As 1000 of 3 liv.—$3\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{13}{48}$ of a shil.—76 of 6 liv. to the sum (sought.

| | |
|---|---|
| 3 | 6 |
| 3)3000 | 3)456 |
| 8)1000 | 8)152 |
| 125 | 19 |

Then $\frac{13 \times 19}{125 \times 48} = \frac{247}{6000}$ which must be added to 375 shillings to make the true value of 456 livres.

*A comparison between fine gold and silver.*

We shall not treat here of the comparison made between gold and silver by the ancient Greeks and Romans, but commence our account of it much nearer our own times. *Agricola says, that a hundred years before he wrote, or about 1440, one part of pure gold was given in Germany for thirteen similar parts of pure silver †. In the year 1457, it was regarded as a settled price, that had (notwithstanding the several alterations in the coins) subsisted for some time; the giving eighty-four pennings of Landsberg money for a guilder of the Rhine, one hundred of these pennings ‡ weighing a mark of Erfurt, the standard was two one-fourth pennyweights §; if the mark of Nurenberg weighed at that time one hundred and fifty-two engels ‖, the mark of Erfurt would be about one hundred and forty-nine engels that weight **, or the guilder of the Rhine twenty-three one thirty-seventh of fine silver. In the year 1461, the mark of silver at Erfurt contained seven one thirty-seventh Rhenish guilders ††, or the value of the said guilder a little less than twenty-one one-fourth engels pure silver. In the year 1528, a mark of fine gold of Nuremberg was worth ninety-three guilders of the Rhine, and a mark of fine silver a little more than eight one-half guilders of the Rhine, called golden ones, not coined; ‡‡ so that eleven marks of pure silver were worth one mark of pure gold. In the golden guilder of the Rhine, there was two one-sixteenth engels that weight, of fine gold §§, or the guilder of the Rhine at that time was esteemed as one one-eighth ounce of pure silver; from that time to the present, the price of gold in regard to that of silver is augmented in these parts, about one-third: an author asserts, that in 1390, gold, in respect to silver, had four times less value than in 1687 ‖‖; but the error proceeded from this, that he made no difference between the present Holland guilder and the ancient one of the Rhine.

In 1717, the coined silver in England was on such a footing, that $15\frac{1}{21}\frac{83}{20}$ marks of pure silver was of the same value with a mark of pure gold; in France, fifteen marks of fine silver was reckoned as a mark of fine gold; in Holland, fourteen seven-ninth marks; in the East-Indies (in some places,) twelve marks; as in the kingdom of Siam in 1688. *(Description du dit Royaume par M. de la Loubere, p. 221. Amst. 1700.)* And in China and Japan, about ten marks. Supposing the value of silver to be settled, that of gold it is seen was greater in England than elsewhere; strangers made their payments in that metal; but because silver was more valuable abroad, the English sent theirs to foreigners; and for this reason the silver coin became so scarce at home, as to occasion the diminishing the value of the guinea, by lowering it to twenty-one shillings, as has been before observed; for by trade gold and silver would naturally pass from those countries where their value was less, to them where it was higher.

* *Dan. Angelocra. doctri. de ponder. Monet. cap.* 2. *p.* 28 and 29. *Francf. Ann.* 1628. † *Id. de pretio Metallorum, p.* 29.

‡ *Hartungi Kamermeisteri Annales Erfurtenses, col.* 1223. *Vide Menkenii Scriptor. Rerum German. tome* iii. *Leipsc. Ann.* 1730. § *Id. col.* 1186. ‖ *Angelocra. de pretio Metallorum, p.* 47. ** *Id. p.* 26. *ex Agricol.* †† *Annal. Erfurt. col.* 1231. ‡‡ *Angelocrat. p* 65. *ex Bilib. Pirckheim. Æstimatio priscorum Numorum.* §§ *Angelocra. ex Agricol. & Pirckheim. p.* 34 and 65. ‖‖ *Simon de Uries Groot Historisch Magazyn, p.* 580. *Amst. Ann.* 1688.

In one thouſand Dutch ducats there are three hundred thirty-four carats nine one-half grains of pure gold, and if theſe are worth five thouſand two hundred and fifty guilders, how much ſhall twenty-four carats be worth? and the anſwer will be three hundred ſeventy-ſix guilders and ſeven ſtivers, the value of a mark of pure gold in coin. We have before found by the Dutch three guilder pieces that a mark of eleven pennyweights pure is worth twenty-three guilders and ſeven ſtivers current money; and the mark of fine ſilver has been found worth a little leſs than twenty-five guilders and nine one-half ſtivers. In the ſame manner, it is ſaid, if twenty-one five-eighths carats of pure gold are eſteemed in France at ſeven hundred and twenty livres, how much ſhall twenty-four carats be worth? and, if eleven pennyweights of fine ſilver are worth forty-nine four-fifths livres, how much ſhall twelve pennyweights be worth? By diviſion it will be found as follows; ſuppoſing that in the Engliſh ſilver coin there had been no alteration made ſince 1717:

In { England 15 marks 1 ounce 13½ engels, / France 14 marks 5 ounces 13⅜ engels, / Holland 14 marks 6 ounces 4 engels, } fine ſilver for one mark of fine gold.

From whence it is ſeen, that Mr. Dernis, p. 2. and Mr. Wiertz are not exact, becauſe they ſay that the proportion between pure gold and ſilver in Holland is fixed at fourteen one-fifth; and it is alſo found in this laſt-mentioned author, p. 491. that the mark of fine gold is fixed in Holland at three hundred and fifty-five guilders current money, which is very true; but if the value of a ducat is taken to be five guilders five ſtivers, as it commonly paſſes, there is an agio of ſix *per cent.* in the ſpecie of ducats; we know very well that theſe riſe and fall a trifle; but the agio on gold muſt not be neglected, otherwiſe the ducat is never worth above four guilders nineteen ſtivers.

This we think ſufficient to give an idea of the par of monies, and we ſhall finiſh it with an inſtance of an arithmetical queſtion abbreviated, concerning Spaniſh wool; as it is ſomething curious, and may be inſtructive.

It is known to all concerned in that trade, that the wools of Germany and Poland are ſold at Amſterdam with an allowance of fifteen months diſcount, and one *per cent.* for prompt payment; for which the merchants deduct exactly a tenth; and for thoſe of Spain twenty-four pounds are always allowed for tare on one hundred and ſeventy-five pounds, beſides a deduction of twenty-one months diſcount, and one *per cent.* for prompt payment; and in order to inveſtigate a ſhorter method for calculating theſe abatements on the Spaniſh wools than has hitherto been practiſed, without neglecting the fraction which is often found in the tare, our author (Mr. Samuel Ricard) invented the following rule.

### Rule.

1ſt. Multiply the pounds by the price, and from the product ſubtract a quarter part, and the remainder will be expreſſed by A.

2d. Take one *per mil.* from A, and the tenth muſt be deducted; the remainder will be B. The difference of A. B. will be the ſum ſought for, which will ſurpaſs the true anſwer upon eleven thouſand guilders about half a ſtiver.

3d. To correct this, there muſt be taken away from the guilders of B one-fifth, and ſubtract as many deniers as there are of guilders for the remainder, and it will come to about one one-third denier too little on a million guilders worth of wool.

### Example.

It is demanded how much ought to be paid for ſome bales of wool, which weigh (after the tare marked on the bales is deducted) 9975 lb. tare 24 lb. on 175 lb. and each lb. at 31½ ſtivers, with twenty-one months diſcount, and one *per cent.* for prompt payment? The anſwer is 11772 guilders, 6 ſtivers, and 12 deniers.

### Solution.

9975 guil. 11:15:10 A guil. 11782:19:6
29925 1/10 1:3:9 B guil. 10:12:1
4987:8
B guil. 10:12:1 guil. 11772:7:5
2|0)31421|2:8 correction :5:9
guil. 15710:12:8 anſw. guil. 11772:6:12
¼ 3927:13:2
A guil. 11782:19:6
20
151659
16
10|550

PARA, a meaſure that the Portugueſe uſe in India for pulſe, weighing twenty-two pounds Spaniſh, and is one twenty-fifth of the mourais.

PARAGUAY, or *La Plata*, is bounded by the country of the Amazons on the north, by Brazil on the eaſt, by Patagonia on the ſouth, and by Peru and Chili on the weſt. It is fifteen hundred miles in length, from north to ſouth, and almoſt as much in breadth. The country produces rice and Indian corn, and the Spaniards have introduced European corn and fruits, as well as cattle, of which laſt there are vaſt herds. To the weſt of the great river Paraguay, are vaſt plains, extending ſome hundred miles, with very little wood upon them, and ſcarce a hill to be ſeen; but on the eaſt of the river Paraguay, which is divided from Brazil by a chain of mountains, there is a variety of hills and vallies, woods and champaign; and this being the property of the Jeſuits, is very well cultivated by the natives, who are their proſelytes and ſubjects. This country is called Paraguay from the river that runs through it from north to ſouth; and La Plata, from the river which riſes in Peru, and running ſouth-weſt through it, joins its waters with the Paraguay, near Buenos Ayres; after which the united ſtream is called La Plata, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between the Spaniſh territories of La Plata, and the Portugueze territories of Brazil. The Spaniards bring part of the treaſures of Peru from thence to Buenos Ayres, down the river La Plata; and, at Buenos Ayres, put them on board of ſhips for Spain, with vaſt quantities of ſkins, and other merchandize of thoſe countries. But all articles of commerce are far leſs advantageous to the inhabitants than the herb called paraguay, which alone would be ſufficient to form a flouriſhing trade in this province, it being the only place which produces it, and from hence it is ſent all over Peru and Chili, where its uſe is univerſal.

The climate of Paraguay is very little different from that of Spain; and the diſtinctions between the ſeaſons are the ſame. In winter, indeed, violent tempeſts of winds and rains are here very frequent, accompanied with ſuch dreadful thunders and lightnings, as fill the inhabitants, though uſed to them, with terror and conſternation. In ſummer, the exceſſive heats are mitigated by gentle breezes, which conſtantly begin at eight or nine in the morning. In ſhort, for the enjoyment of life, eſpecially with regard to the ſalubrity of the air, a finer country cannot be imagined.

PARAGUAY, *paragoue*, in natural hiſtory, a ſhrub, as hinted in the foregoing article, growing in ſome parts of South America, particularly Paraguay, and hence its name; it is called among us *South-Sea tea*.

It may be looked on as a kind of Occidental tea, which, like the Oriental, is taken infuſed in hot water.

There are two kinds of paraguay, the one ſimply called paraguay, the other *camini*, by the Spaniards *yerva camini*; which laſt is the moſt eſteemed, and is the drink of the richeſt; the other is chiefly uſed by domeſtics and ſlaves. Both theſe kinds are eſteemed of ſuch abſolute neceſſity, that no body in that part of America will live without them.

The mines of Potoſi would ſoon be abandoned, did not the maſters take care to ſupply the ſlaves that work therein

with paraguay; which is the conſtant remedy againſt thoſe mineral ſteams, with which they would otherwiſe be ſuffocated.

Paraguay makes one of the moſt conſiderable articles of the South American commerce, there being about two millions worth ſold *per annum* at Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres.

Beſides the virtues aſcribed by the Eaſtern people to their tea, as being good in diſeaſes of the head, breaſt, ſtomach, &c. the Americans attribute this further to theirs, its purifying all kinds of water, how foul or corrupt ſoever, by only infuſing it therein, either hot or cold: and it is held ſovereign againſt the ſcurvy and putrid fevers.

PARAPHARNALIA, *or* PARAPHERNALIA, are thoſe goods which a wife, beſides her dower or jointure, is after her huſband's death allowed to have, as furniture for her chamber, wearing apparel and jewels, if ſhe be of quality; which are not to be put into her huſband's inventory, eſpecially in the province of York.

A wife, after the death of her huſband, may claim her parapharnalia or neceſſary apparel for her body, and cloth given her to make a garment, &c. beſides her dower; ſo that the huſband cannot give them away by will: but ſhe ſhall not have exceſſive apparel, beyond her rank. Pearl necklaces, chains of diamonds, gold watches, &c. may be included under parapharnalia, if they were uſually worn by the wife, and were ſuitable to her quality and the faſhion of the times; and they are aſſets to pay debts and legacies, provided the huſband does not give theſe away by will. 1 *Roll. Abr.* 911. 3 *Cro.* 343. *Kitch.* 369. *Noy's Max.* 168.

It was adjudged in the viſcounteſs Bindon's caſe, that a parapharnalia ought to be allowed to a widow, having regard to her quality and degree; and that her huſband being a viſcount, ſhe ſhall be allowed her jewels to the value of five hundred marks, &c. 2 *Leon.* 166.

A widow retained a chain of diamonds and pearls, againſt the deviſe of her huſband; and two judges held, that ſhe might detain them, becauſe they were convenient for a woman of her quality; but two other judges were of a contrary opinion, that parapharnalia ſhould be not only convenient but neceſſary; otherwiſe the widow ſhall not detain them againſt the expreſs deviſe of the huſband: though it is ſaid it was adjudged that the widow might detain neceſſary apparel, and likewiſe ornaments, againſt the deviſe of her huſband; and that he cannot diſpoſe of them by will, though he might have ſold them in his life-time; for immediately upon his death, the property is veſted in the widow. *Cro. Car.* 347. 2 *Nelſ. Abr.* 1225.

All the wife's wearing apparel, more than that which is neceſſary and convenient, is a chattel in the huſband; and after the huſband's death ſhall go to his executors: but what is neceſſary for her condition and ſtate, and comes under parapharnalia, ſhe ſhall have as her own goods, and may diſpoſe of at her death; or take after the death of her huſband. *Bro.* 9. *Doct. & Stud.* 17.

Though by our law, the wife may not make a will of and deviſe them, without the aſſent of the huſband whilſt he lives; becauſe the property and poſſeſſion is in him. 2 *Shep. Abr.* 423. *Mich.* 27 *Eliz.*

PARCHMENT, in commerce, ſheep and goats ſkins prepared in ſuch a manner as to be fit for ſeveral uſes, as writing and covering of books, &c.

Parchment is begun by the ſkinner, and finiſhed by the parchment-maker. That called virgin parchment is only a thinner ſort than the reſt, proper for fans, &c. and made of the ſkins of abortive lambs or kids.

*Manufacture of parchment.* The ſkin having been ſtripped of its wool, and placed in the lime-pit, the ſkinner ſtretches it on a kind of frame, conſiſting of four pieces of wood, mortiſed into each other at the four angles, and perforated lengthways from diſtance to diſtance, with holes, furniſhed with wooden pins that may be turned at pleaſure, like thoſe of a violin. *See* SHAMMY.

To ſtretch the ſkin on this frame, they make little holes all around it, and through every two holes draw a little ſkewer; to this ſkewer they tie a piece of ſmall packthread, and tie that over the pins; ſo that, coming to turn the pins equally, the ſkin is ſtrained tight every way, like that of a drum.

The ſkins being thus ſufficiently ſtretched on the frame, the fleſh is pared off with a ſharp inſtrument for that purpoſe; this done, it is moiſtened with a rag, and a kind of white ſtone or chalk reduced to a fine duſt, ſtrewed over it; then with a large pumice-ſtone, flat at bottom, much after the manner of a mullet for grinding colours, they rub over the ſkin, as if about to grind the chalk: and thus ſcower off the remains of the fleſh. Then they go over it again with the iron inſtrument; again moiſten it as before, and again rub it with the pumice-ſtone without any chalk underneath; this ſmoothens and ſoftens the fleſh ſide very conſiderably. They drain it again by paſſing over it the iron inſtrument as before.

The fleſh ſide thus drained, they paſs the iron on the wool or hair ſide, then ſtretch it tight on the frame by means of the pins, and go over the fleſh ſide again with the iron: this finiſhes its draining; and the more the ſkin is drained, the whiter it becomes.

They now throw on more chalk, ſweeping it over with a piece of lamb-ſkin that has the wool on; this ſmooths it ſtill further, and gives it a fine down or nap. It is now left to dry, and, when dried, taken off the frame, by cutting it all round. The ſkin, thus far prepared by the ſkinner, is taken out of his hands by the parchment-maker, who firſt ſcrapes or pares it dry on the ſummer, with an iron inſtrument like that above-mentioned, only finer and ſharper; with this, worked with the arm from top to bottom of the ſkin, he takes away about one-half of its thickneſs. The ſkin thus equally pared on both ſides, they paſs the pumice-ſtone over both ſides, to ſmooth it. This laſt preparation is performed on a kind of form or bench covered with a ſack ſtuffed with flocks, and leaves the parchment in a condition for writing on.

The paring the ſkin dry on the ſummer is the moſt difficult preparation in the whole proceſs of parchment-making; for which reaſon the ſkinners ſeldom dare meddle with it, but uſually leave it to thoſe more experienced in it: the ſummer whereon it is performed, is a calf-ſkin well ſtretched on a frame, ſerving as a ſupport to the ſkin, which is faſtened at top of it with a wooden inſtrument, that has a notch cut in it. Laſtly, that the iron knife may paſs the eaſier between the ſummer and the ſkin to be pared, they put another ſkin, which they call the counter-ſummer. The parings, thus taken off the leather, are uſed in making glue, ſize, &c. *See* GLUE, &c. What we call vellum is only parchment made of the ſkins of abortive calves, or at leaſt of ſucking calves; it is finer, whiter, and ſmoother than the common parchment; but it is prepared in the ſame manner as that, abating that it is not paſſed through the lime-pit.

PARDAO, or *pardo xerafin*, a ſilver money of a baſe alloy, which the Portugueze ſtamp in India, current at Goa, and on the coaſt of Malabar; they are worth near three hundred reas, or twenty fanons: there are alſo one-half and one-fourth pardoes, and ſome ſay there are likewiſe double ones. And as no money is more eaſily counterfeited than this, the Indians make many falſe ones up in the country, and bring them down to paſs in trade, which they would readily do, were it not for ſome of the Chriſtian natives, who are employed to examine them, and are ſo expert in their office, that they will readily and certainly detect the falſity only by feeling.

PARDAOS *de* REALES, is a name given to the Spaniſh dollars, the only ſpecie of that nation current in India, which have a certain value fixed on them, from which they are never lower, but often riſe as they are wanted.

PARDOS, a ſpecie of ſilver money current at Moſambique, and along the coaſt of Afric, worth 200 reas.

PAREIRA BRAVA, is a hard, woody, crooked root, of a dark colour on the outſide, and worked with various wrinkles, which run as well longitudinally as circularly. Its internal ſubſtance is of a dull yellowiſh colour, and interwoven with woody fibres; ſo that upon a tranſverſe ſection a number of concentric circles appear, croſſed with fibres, which run from the center to the circumference. This root has no ſmell, but a little bitteriſh taſte, blended with a ſweetneſs, like that of liquorice. Some of the roots are no bigger than one's finger, others as big as a child's arm.

The Portugueſe and Braſilians extravagantly cry up the medicinal virtues of this root. Mr. Geoffroy, from whom we have taken the above deſcription, ſays, that in nephri-

tic complaints, where the urine was ſtopt by viſcid mucus, he had oftentimes exhibited this root with great advantage, and in ſuch caſes always found it a powerful diuretic. His doſe of the root in ſubſtance is from twelve grains to half a dram, and in decoction two or three drams.

PARERE, in commerce, a corruption of an Italian word *mi pare*, as it ſeems. It denotes the advice of a merchant, when conſulted on any point; theſe *pareres* obtain in moſt trading cities, and ſerve as acts before notaries, when given by the authority of a judge conſervator, or at a particular conſultation for maintaining the right of the conſulter.

PARGETING, in building, the plaiſtering of walls, and ſometimes the plaiſter itſelf.

It is done various ways: 1. With lime, hair, and mortar laid upon bare walls. 2. Upon bare laths, as in partitioning, and plain cielings. 3. Rendering the inſides of walls, or doubling partition walls. 4. Rough-caſting upon hearth-laths. 5. Plaiſtering upon brick-work with finiſhing mortar, in imitation of ſtone-work. And 6. The like upon heart-laths.

PARISH, ſignifies the precinct of a pariſh church, and the particular charge of a ſecular prieſt; for every church is either cathedral, conventual, or parochial. Cathedral is where there is a biſhop ſeated, ſo called. Conventual conſiſteth of regular clerks, profeſſing ſome order of religion, or of dean and chapter, or other college of ſpiritual perſons. Parochial is that which is inſtituted for the ſaying of divine ſervice, and miniſtering the holy ſacraments to the people dwelling within a certain compaſs of ground near it. Our kingdom was firſt divided into pariſhes by Honorius, archbiſhop of Canterbury, in the year of our Lord 636. *Camb. Brit. page* 104. whoſe number at preſent is eſteemed to be 9284, though many authors differ much herein.

Originally the kingdom, in reference to civil matters, was divided into vills only, and pariſhes were diviſions only in reference to eccleſiaſtical affairs, and the common law took notice of them, inſomuch as a fine was not admitted of lands in a pariſh; but in proceſs of time pariſhes became diviſions taken notice of in reference to civil matters, and are now uſed in fines.

Where a pariſh is alledged generally, this ſhall be intended to be a vill, and to be the ſame with the vill, and not to contain more vills, unleſs it be ſpecially alledged; but a vill and a pariſh is all one, and it is ſufficient to alledge a pariſh where a vill is required, as appears by divers caſes, upon an act of parliament called the ſtatute of additions, which requires that the vill be named, yet it being alledged that he was of ſuch a pariſh ſuffices. *See* POOR.

PARISHIONER, is an inhabitant of or belonging to any pariſh, lawfully ſettled therein.

Pariſhioners have right to view the pariſh books. 11 *Mod.* 134. *Trin.* 6 *Ann.* B. B. *Love* v. *Dr. Bently.*

Pariſhioners are a body politic to many purpoſes; as to vote at a veſtry if they pay ſcot and lot; and they have a ſole right to raiſe taxes for their own relief, without the interpoſition of any ſuperior court, may make bye-laws to mend the highways, and to make banks to keep out the ſea, and for repairing the church, and making a bridge, &c. or any ſuch thing for the public good, and by 3 and 4 *W.* III. and 7 *Ann*, to tax and levy poor rates, and to make and maintain fire-engines; and by 9 *Geo.* for purchaſing workhouſes for the poor. *See* SHIPS, *for the regulation of putting pariſh boys to ſea.*

PARISIS, a French money of account, formerly a real coin ſtruck at Paris, at the ſame time with the tournois at Tours. The pariſis was a fourth larger than the tournois.

PARLIAMENT, is deduced from the French, viz. *parler*, to ſpeak, and *ment*, *mens*, the mind; and the writ which ſummons it, ſays, *Ad conſulendum*, &c. *de arduis regni negotiis.* It is indeed a ſolemn conference of all the ſtates of the kingdom ſummoned together by the king's only authority, to treat of the weighty affairs of the realm. That the Saxons had ſomething like it, will appear from king Ina's laws, who flouriſhed *anno* 712. But to come a little nearer, William the Conqueror divided this land among his followers in ſuch manner, that every one of them ſhould hold their lands of him *in capite*; and they again diſtributed part thereof among their friends and ſervants, who for the ſame were bound to do them ſuit and ſervice in the courts. The chief of theſe were called barons, who thrice every year aſſembled at the king's court, viz. at Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide; amongſt whom the king was wont to come in his royal robes, and his crown on his head, to conſult about the public affairs of the kingdom. But this ancient cuſtom (ſay ſome) was changed by Henry the Firſt, who in the ſixteenth year of his reign ſummoned the commons to the great council at Saliſbury. At this day it is the greateſt aſſembly of the kingdom, conſiſting of the king and the three eſtates of the realm, viz. the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal, and the commons, for the debating of matters touching the commonwealth, eſpecially the making and altering of laws.

PARMA, a principality in Italy, tranſacts buſineſs by way of Venice, which principally conſiſts in raw ſilk, and cheeſe made at Lodi.

PARSLY root; *radix petroſelini*, in natural hiſtory, the root of the *apium*, or common garden parſly.

It is one of the five greater opening roots: it is an attenuant, aperient, detergent, and diuretic: it is given in diet-drinks in chronic caſes, ariſing from obſtructions of the viſcera, and is in any form a powerful diuretic.

PARTNERS, are where two or more perſons agree in ſhare and ſhare alike to any trade or bargain. If there are two partners in trade, and judgment is recovered againſt one of them, his moiety of the goods in partnerſhip only ſhall be taken in execution. *Show. Rep.* 174. *See* 16, *Vin. Abr. tit. partners.*

PART-OWNERS, are thoſe that are concerned in ſhip matters, and who have joint ſhares therein. And when there are part-owners of a ſhip, the majority may fit her out, without the conſent of the reſt; and if they do, ſuch majority run all the hazard, and are to partake of the profits. *Show.* 13, 30. Action lies as well againſt the part-owners of a ſhip, for the loſs or ſpoiling of goods delivered to the maſter, as againſt the maſter; for as the maſter of a ſhip is chargeable in reſpect of his wages, ſo are the part-owners in reſpect of the freight; but the action againſt the part-owners muſt be brought againſt all of them, or the defendants may take advantage of it by pleading in abatement, &c. *Show. Rep.* 30, 105. 3 *Lev.* 259.

PARTON. By 4 *Ann. c.* 18. *ſect.* 1, 4. During the term of eleven years, there ſhall be paid into the truſtees named in the act for the enlarging and repairing the pier and harbour of Parton in Cumberland, by every coal owner that ſhall put coals on board any veſſel there, two-pence, for every 192 gallons of coals, within ten days after ſuch coals are ſhipped; and by every maſter of every ſhip that ſhall land coals there, two-pence for every 192 gallons of coals, within ten days after ſuch coals are ſhipped: and by every maſter of every ſhip that ſhall load coals there, 2 d. for every 192 gallons; and, after the expiration of the ſaid eleven years, one farthing for every 192 gallons, to be paid by the maſter of the ſhip, before each ſhip goes out of the harbour.

All ſuch money ſhall be employed for the enlarging, repairing, and cleanſing the harbour, &c.

The duties upon coals granted by 4 *Ann*, *cap.* 18. for enlarging the pier and harbour of Parton, in the county of Cumberland, ſhall be continued from the firſt of May, 1725, for fifteen years. 11 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 16. *ſect.* 1, 2, 4, 5, 6.

The perpetual duty of one farthing, granted by the ſaid act, ſhall ceaſe; and, in lieu thereof, every maſter of a ſhip ſhall, for fifteen years, pay one penny for every 192 gallons of coals, which ſhall be laden on board ſuch ſhip within the ſaid harbour.

There ſhall be paid for all goods herein after-mentioned, which ſhall be diſcharged out of any ſhip in the harbour, coming coaſtwiſe, from the firſt of May, 1725, for fifteen years, the duties following, viz. for every hogſhead of tobacco, 3 d. for every hogſhead of ſugar, 6 d. for every ton of wine, or exciſable liquors, 2 s. for every ton of hemp or flax, 1 s. 6 d. for every hundred of deals, 8 d. for every laſt of pitch or tar, 6 d. for every ton of raft or timber, 4 d. for every barrel of herrings, 1 d. for every pack of linnen, containing two hundred weight, 1 s. which duties ſhall be paid by the merchant into whoſe cuſtody the goods ſhall be delivered.

Every

Every maſter of any ſhip ſhall pay for ſuch ſhip, upon her arrival in the harbour from any port of her laſt diſcharge in Europe, other than the kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the Iſle of Man, four pence *per* ton; and for every ſhip, upon her arrival from the port of her laſt diſcharge in Aſia, Africa, or America, eight pence *per* ton, to be admeaſured or deſcribed as in 5 *Will.* and *Mar. cap.* 20. and 8 *Ann. cap.* 12. *ſ.* 4. Provided, that for every ſhip which ſhall come in for ſecurity, and not for their diſcharge, there ſhall be paid one fourth of the tonage, and no more.

After the termination of the ſaid fifteen years, one third part of the duties ſhall for ever continue for the perpetual repairing of the harbour.

The duties granted by the act of 2 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 16. ſhall be continued for the farther term of twenty-one years, for enlarging the harbour of Parton in Cumberland, 5 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 13. *ſ.* 1, 2.

If the purpoſes are fully anſwered, &c. before the expiration of the ſaid term, the duties ſhall ceaſe; and the duty of a half-penny for every 192 gallons of coals exported from the ſaid harbour, and one third part of the duty on tonage of ſhips (which, by the act of 2 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 16. are made perpetual) ſhall commence.

PASSAGE, is a French word, ſignifying *traſitium*. By the ſtatutes of 4. *Edw.* III. *cap.* 7. and *Weſtm.* 2. *cap.* 25. it denotes the hire that a man pays for being tranſported over ſea, or over any river. *Cowell, edit.* 1727.

The prices of paſſage at Dover, &c. limited 4 *Edw.* III. *cap.* 8. None to paſs out of the realm without the king's licence, 5 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *cap.* 2. Reſtrained to Dover and Plymouth, 13 *Rich.* II. *Stat.* 1. *cap.* 20. Paſſage from Kent to Calais reſtrained to Dover, 4 *Edw.* IV. *cap.* 10. *See* RIVERS.

PASS-PORTS, are commonly granted to friends, and ſafe-conduct to enemies, though cuſtom has made the meaning of theſe terms to be much the ſame in this place: but in a military treatiſe it would be differently conſtrued; and they only ſignify here, that ſhelter a prince affords to either ſhips or men againſt embargoes, or his granting to ſome particulars a leave to trade, denied to others, or his permiſſion for them to come into his kingdom while a general prohibition ſubſiſts, and ſometimes during a war with the ſtate whoſe ſubjects they are.

This has often happened in our diſputes with Spain, where our ſhips went currently at the beginning of the war commenced in 1718, and on many other occaſions, under the protection of a paſs, which his Catholic majeſty granted to ſeveral, and which ſerved for one voyage; theſe paſſes had blanks left for the names of ſhips, captains, &c. and at firſt coſt about twenty dollars; though when a ſtop was put to granting any more, their price roſe in proportion to the demand; and the few who had any remaining, made a very conſiderable advantage of them. The ſame has been practiſed by many of our former kings, and confirmed by ſeveral acts, expreſſed in the article of LETTERS OF SAFE-CONDUCT. *Which ſee.*

PASTE, denotes a ſoft compoſition of flour and water, for caſes to bake meat, &c. in; or a preparation of ſome fruit, by beating the pulp, with ſome fluid, into a pappy conſiſtence, and drying it with ſugar, till as pliable as common paſte: it alſo ſignifies a compoſition of flour and water boiled together, which ſeveral artificers make uſe of inſtead of glue or ſize.

PASTE-BOARD, a kind of thick paper, formed of ſeveral ſheets paſted together. There is alſo a coarſer kind of paſte-board, made of old paper, &c. reduced to a pulp in a trough, in the ſame manner as paper, to which a little paſte is added, to give the maſs ſome conſiſtence; after which it is formed in a mould, and reduced to its proper thickneſs by preſſing.

PASTRY COOK. This is a profitable buſineſs, and requires a boy of activity and induſtry. The paſtry-cooks of London have many of their ſhops elegantly fitted up with carved work, guilding, buſts, and looking-glaſſes. They daily make all kinds of paſtry, and ſometimes alſo deal in confections and jellies. They take ten or twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have about twenty pounds a year, and his board, by ſerving as journeyman; or if he ſets up maſter, it will require three hundred pounds at leaſt to fit up a genteel ſhop, and build ovens, &c. But he may ſet up in a leſs ſplendid manner with about one hundred pounds.

PASTIL, PASTEL, among painters, &c. a paſte made of ſeveral colours, ground up with gum-water, either together or ſeparately, in order to make crayons.

*Paſtil* is likeways a kind of dry compoſition, of a fragrant ſmell, when burnt, to ſcent the air. It alſo denotes troches or lozenges.

PATENTS. The form of patents of confirmation of grants and liberties, *St. Form. Conceſs.* 13 *Edw.* I. *ſ.* 6.

Letters patent ſhall not bear date before the day of the delivery of the warrant, 18 *Hen.* VI. *cap.* 1. Patents, before the king's title, found void, 18 *Hen.* VI. *cap.* 6. The fees of the clerk of the ſignet, 27 *Hen.* VIII. *cap.* 11. Confirmation of patents, 1 *Edw.* VI. *cap.* 8. Inrolment of part of letters patent may be given in evidence, 3 and 4 *Edw.* VI. *cap.* 4. Exemplification of part of letters patent may be pleaded and ſhewed forth, 13. *Eliz. cap.* 6. *See* LETTERS PATENT.

PATTEN-MAKERS. Theſe keep ſhops, and make wooden clogs as well as pattens. It is an eaſy light buſineſs, requires few talents, and very little learning is neceſſary. It is enough if the boy deſigned for it can write a plain hand, and underſtands the firſt rules of arithmetic. The maſters take five or ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn twelve ſhillings a-week, or ſet up with leſs than one hundred pounds.

*Patten-makers* ſhall not make pattens of aſp, 4 *Hen.* 5. *cap.* 3. May uſe ſuch aſp as is not fit for ſhafts, 4 *Edw.* IV. *cap.* 9.

PATTERN-DRAWER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs will have much better ſucceſs if he has a taſte for drawing and painting, which he may improve before he is put apprentice: and this is all the education neceſſary, except reading, writing, and common arithmetic. Thoſe of this buſineſs are employed in drawing patterns for the weavers of brocades, damaſks, &c. for callico printers, embroiderers, lace-workers, quilters, and ſeveral little branches belonging to women's apparel. They draw patterns upon paper, which they ſell to thoſe workmen who have occaſion for them. They alſo draw upon men's waiſtcoats, upon women's petticoats, and other wearing apparel, for the embroiderers. This buſineſs is divided into ſeveral branches, who draw for particular artiſts. They take from ten to fifty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get three or four ſhillings a day, and have pretty conſtant buſineſs: nothing more is neceſſary in order to ſet up maſter, but an acquaintance with thoſe who employ the pattern-drawers.

PAU, a long meaſure uſed at Loango de Boaire, and in ſome other places on the coaſt of Angola in Afric. There are three ſorts of paus at Loango. That of the king and his favourite prime miniſters, that of his princes and captains, and that of particulars. The king's pau is twenty-eight inches long, that of the great men twenty-four inches, and that of particulars only ſixteen one-half.

PAVIOUR. This buſineſs requires great ſtrength, and but little ingenuity. It is dirty and laborious, but profitable to the maſter, who takes about five pounds with an apprentice. The journeymen earn fifteen ſhillings a week, and with one hundred pounds may ſet up maſters.

PAWNBROKER. The boy deſigned for this trade ought to write a plain quick hand, and to be well verſed in the common rules of arithmetic: beſides which, he ſhould have an incorruptible integrity, and a good deal of judgment and acuteneſs, to enable him to learn the value of the great variety of goods that will be offered him as pledges. He takes twenty pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may have twenty pounds a year, and his board; but it will require one thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

PAYERNE, a town of the country of Vaud, ſeated on the Broie, between Avenches and Moudon, is a very great paſs. Its territory is very fertile in grain and fruits, and here are fine plantations of tobacco, out of which the inhabitants prepare the rappee, after the ſecret of Clerac, which is in eſteem both at home and abroad.

PAYMENT, is the diſcharge of a debt or promiſe. *Johnſon.*

A paid B one hundred pounds in redemption of a mortgage; B bids C put it into his closet, which C did: then A demanded his writings, which B refused to deliver; whereupon A required his money again; B bid C fetch it, to deliver it back to A, which C did, and turned it out on the table for A, to take it in presence of B, this was a good payment of the mortgage; but A retaking the money is accountable to B for the money, as B's own money. *Cro.* E. 614. *Trin.* 40. *Eliz.* B. *Hewer.* v. *Bartholomew.*

A brought one hundred pounds to pay to B, C who was B's daughter, snatched twenty pounds out of the hundred, and went away with it. A shall not be chargeable with the twenty pounds till he shall recover the same of the daughter; and an injunction was granted accordingly. *Chan. R.* 68. 9 *Car.* I. *Plomer* v. *Plomer.*

Giving security for purchase money is payment; admitted. *Chan. Caves*, 99. *Hill.* 19 and 20 *Car.* II. *Sir Joseph Douglas* v. *Wade.*

Nine hundred and fifty pounds is to be paid by vendee to vendor; vendee by vendor's order pays five hundred pounds, part to a bond creditor, and takes an assignment to himself of the bond, and likewise pays other money to other creditors by vendor's order, but took security for repayment, on certain conditions. Decreed to be no payment to the vendor, so long as the assignment of the bond, and the security of re-payment were kept on foot, and not delivered up to be cancelled. *Trin. R.* 84. *Hill.* 25 *Car.* II. *Magson and Sitwell* v. *Fune, Clayton and al.*

A note drawn on A to pay money for value received, is a good discharge of a debt, though the note be not paid, unless the creditor return the bill in convenient time. *Per Holt. Ch. J. Show.* 155. *Pasch.* 2 *Will. and Mar. Darfach* v. *Savage.*

A gives B a bill of exchange on C in payment of a former debt; this is not allowable as evidence on *non assumpsit*, unless paid; for a bill shall never go in discharge of a precedent debt, except it should be part of the contract that it should be so. 1 *Salk.* 124. 3 *Will. and Mar. Coram Holt Ch. J.* at Guildhall, *Clark* v. *Mundall.*

The plaintiff was indebted to the defendant upon two notes; and the defendant obtained judgment at law against him for the money; and then desiring the defendant's forbearance, he told him that if he would procure one Defoy to give him his note for the money, he would accept of it, and acknowledge satisfaction on the judgment, and deliver up the plaintiff's notes; and being to go forthwith out of England, he left the plaintiff's notes with his agent here, to be exchanged at Defoy's, in case the plaintiff procured them; and the plaintiff accordingly procured two notes, payable to the defendant, which he delivered to the defendant's agent, and took up his own notes, and the attorney at law staid all further proceedings, but would not acknowledge satisfaction on the judgment, having no orders for it from his client; and before Defoy paid any of the money he failed, and then the defendant at law proceeded at law on the judgment; whereupon the plaintiff brought this bill to be relieved, and suggested that he had discounted this money with Defoy, and made him satisfaction, but he made no proof of any such thing, and therefore at the hearing, his bill was dismissed by the master of the Rolls, and this decree was affirmed by my lord keeper on appeal. *Ab. Equ. Cases* 146. *Hill.* 1700. *Grubarr* v. *Gairand.*

When a merchant draws a bill upon a correspondent, who accepts it, this is payment; for it makes him debtor to another person, who may bring his action. 10 *Mod.* 37. *Trin.* 10 *Ann.* B. R. *Per Parker Ch. J.* in case of *Louviere* v. *Laubray.*

In debt upon a single bill, the defendant pleads payment without acquittance, upon which issue was taken and found for the plaintiff. It was held, that payment without acquittance is no plea, and so issue was joined upon a thing not material; for if the defendant had paid the sum without an acquittance, yet the single bill remained in force. But there having been an issue joined upon an affirmative and negative, and found for the plaintiff, it was found to be aided by the statutes of jeofails; and plaintiff had judgment, which was affirmed on a writ of error. 5 *Rep.* 43. *Mich.* 37 and 38 *Eliz.* B. R. *Nichol's case.*

In debt upon an obligation the condition was, that the defendant should pay from time to time the moiety of all such money as he shall receive, and give account; and *per cur.* payment pleaded is good without shewing the particular sums; but they agreed, that if the condition had been to pay the moiety of, &c. without saying from time to time, it ought to be pleaded specially. *Quære the diversity. Sid.* 334. *Pasch.* 19 *Car.* II. *Church* v. *Brownewick.*

*Stat.* 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 16. *s.* 12. that in debt on single bill, debt, or *scire facias* on judgment, defendant may plead payment in bar. In debt on bond, if the defendant before action brought, hath paid the principal and interest due by the defeasance or condition, though such payment was not made strictly according to the condition or defeasance, yet it may be pleaded in bar, and shall be as effectual as if the money had been paid at the day and place, according to the condition, and had been so pleaded.

*Prompt* PAYMENT, in commerce, is when a person acquits what he owes before the expiration of the term granted by the creditor, in which case the ordinary discount on most merchandizes is *one per cent.*

PEARL, *perla*, *margarita*, in natural history, a hard, white, shining body, usually of a roundish figure.

Pearls, though esteemed of the number of gems by our jewellers, and highly valued, not only at this time, but in all ages, are but a distemper in the creature that produces them, analogous to the bezoars, and other strong concretions in the several animals of other kinds.

The fish in which pearls are usually produced, is the East Indian pearl oyster, as it is commonly, though not very properly called: it is a very large and broad shell, of the bivalve kind, sometimes measuring twelve or fourteen inches over, but those of two inches are more frequent; it is not very deep; its colour on the outside is a dusky brown, with some faint admixture of greenish within; it is of a beautiful white, with shades of several other colours, as exposed in different directions to the light. It is described by authors under the name, of *concha margaritifera*, and *concha mater unionum.* Lister has figured it under the name of *concha margaritifera plerisque, berberis antiquis Indis.* Besides this shell, however, there are many others that are found to produce pearls; the common oyster often has them, and the muscle, the *pinna marina*, and several others of the bivalves, as well as the *nautilus Græcorum*, and several others of the shells of other genera. The pearls of all these shells are often very good, but those of the true Indian berberi, or pearl oyster, are in general superior to all.

We have Scotch pearls frequently as big as a tare, some as big as a large pea, and some few of the size of a horse bean; but these are usually of a bad shape, and of little value in proportion to their weight.

Philip the Second of Spain had a pearl perfect in its shape and colour, and of the size of a pigeon's egg. De Boot tells us of one, in the emperor Rudolph's possession, of thirty carats weight; and Tavernier mentions one in Persia, for which that crown paid to the amount of more than one hundred thousand pounds sterling.

Pearls of such vast sizes as these, are as rare as the great diamonds, but there are, as among diamonds, a considerable number, which, though very short of this, are of great value. The finest, and what is called the true shape of the pearl, is a perfect round; but, if pearls of a considerable size are of the shape of a pear, as is not unfrequently the case, they are not less valued, as they serve very luckily for ear-rings, and other ornaments. Their colour ought to be a pure white, and this not a dead and lifeless, but a clear and brilliant one; they must be perfectly free from any foulness, spot, or stain, and their surfaces must be naturally smooth and glossy, for they bring their natural polish with them, art being unable to do any thing like it.

Pearls of whatever size, when they are rough on the surface, and of irregular figures, as hollow, flat, or undulated, are of little value; and they are liable also to be greatly debased by a tinge of yellow or blue; sometimes they are found greenish, reddish, or brownish; the two last stains wholly destroy their value: as to those that are a little yellowish, the Orientals who value pearls full as much as we do, and will pay as dear for them, do not like them the worse for a slight tinge of that colour, provided they are perfectly bright, and of a fine natural polish.

All pearls are formed of the matter of the shell, and consist of a number of crusts, or coats, laid with perfect regularity

larity one over another, in the manner of the ſeveral coats of an onion, or like the ſeveral ſtrata of the ſtones found in the bladders or ſtomachs of animals, only that theſe cruſts in the pearls are much thinner. They are ſoluble in acid and menſtruums, and, if thrown into the fire, they readily calcine, and in the calcining emit an urinous ſmell.

Nothing can be a greater proof that the pearl is truly formed of the matter of the ſhell, than what has been obſerved, by Reaumur, of the pearl-ſhells of the coaſts of Provence: theſe are in part pearl-coloured, and in part reddiſh, and this regularly and unalterably. Pearls are frequently found in theſe ſhells, and it is conſtantly obſerved, that the pearls found in ſuch parts as correſpond to a red portion of the ſhell, are of the ſame reddiſh colour, whereas thoſe in the parts correſponding to the white portion are white: nor is this all, for on a ſtrict inquiry it is found that the two portions of the ſhell differ, not only in their colour but in ſtructure alſo. The white part of the ſhell is formed of plain and uniform plates, or thin ſtrata; the red part of faſciæ, or bundles of fibres of a cylindric figure, arranged cloſely and regularly together; and the ſame difference of ſtructure is found in the pearls formed in the different parts, as they correſpond to them; thoſe of the white part being formed of a ſtrata as uniform, diſtinct, and regular, as the Oriental pearl, but theſe correſponding to the red part of the ſhell having their ſtrata much leſs diſtinct, and plainly ſhewing faſciæ or fibres running every way from the center to their circumference. Nothing is more certain than that the ſhell of this and every other ſhell-fiſh, is formed of a firm and hard matter, or of a matter diſpoſed to harden, as ſoon as properly depoſited, till which time it circulates in veſſels in the animal body. Is it not wonderful that a redundance, a ſtagnation, or a burſting out of this matter from the veſſels deſtined to carry it to the parts of the ſhell it ſhould have formed, ſhould cauſe theſe little concretions, or that, when once formed, they ſhould be increaſed in bulk, by the ſame ſort of matter being added in ſmall quantities to them? The little protuberances like warts, which we ſee riſing in hemiſpherical figures from the ſurfaces of pearl-ſhells, and of thoſe of other kinds, are evidently of the pearl kind, only not detached. Our workmen, when theſe are of a good colour and tolerable ſize, cut them out, and make ſomething of them under the name of wens of pearls. This is ſomewhat different indeed from the opinion of Valentini, who, on the credit of one Kregger, pretends that pearls are the eggs of the fiſh which produce them. The tranſlator of Geoffroy's Lectures, who has preſerved the memory of this wild ſyſtem, ſays it deſerves confirmation; we ſuppoſe he means it wants it. People have been led to believe from the name *unio*, given to the pearls, that there was only one found in each ſhell; this is indeed uſually the caſe in oyſters and muſcles, though thoſe ſometimes vary from it, but in the Oriental pearl-ſhells ſix or eight are frequent in each; ſome have been found with twenty or more in them, but, where they are numerous, the greater part are generally ſmall.

This valuable article of commerce is not the commodity of any particular part of the world. The Eaſt-Indies and America produce the pearl ſhell-fiſh abundantly, and it is found with good pearls in it in many parts of Europe.

The coaſts of the iſland Ceylon afford pearls ſuperior to all thoſe of the Eaſt in the beauty of their colour, but there are no very large ones found there. The Perſian Gulph abounds with the pearl-fiſh, and fiſheries are eſtabliſhed on the coaſts of the ſeveral iſlands in it, and particularly on thoſe of the iſland of Baharem, or, as it is uſually ſpoke, Bahren. In America there are fiſheries in the Gulph of Mexico, and along the coaſt of the Terra Firma, all which yield very conſiderable advantage. The European pearls are principally found on the coaſts of Scotland, and the neighbouring parts; but there is little proſpect of any thing conſiderable being ever gained by them.

The ancients were all acquainted with pearls, and held them in great eſteem. We are told of Cleopatra's poſſeſſing one worth eighty thouſand pounds of our money; and, in general, they held the pearl next in value to the diamond. They had a thouſand fanciful ſtories on foot, as to the origin of this precious ſubſtance; but the moſt prevalent was, that it was a concreted drop of dew. They imagined that at a certain time of the year the pearl-fiſh roſe from the bottom to the ſurface of the water, and there took in a drop of dew, which concreted into a pearl in its body. The more fanciful of them were not content that this ſhould be a drop of common dew, but made it a peculiar kind ſhed from the ſtars in calm nights:

*Humor, ille quem ſerenis aſtra fudant noctibus.*

It is eaſy to ſee how much reſpect ought to be paid to ſo wretched an hypotheſis; it being about as philoſophical to ſuppoſe a ſtar ſhedding down to the earth a drop of dew, as a fiſh, fixed by its ſhell to the rocks, leaving that ſituation and advancing its heavy ſhell up to the ſurface of the water, juſt when it ſhould chance to fall, in order to receive it. It is ſomething odd that the very authors who tell us of the pearl-ſhells lying ſo deep in the ſea, that the divers were forced to deſcend twenty fathom for them, and growing ſo faſt to the rocks, they were obliged to take inſtruments down with them to get them looſe, ſhould perſuade themſelves that they got looſe and came up at pleaſure. They alſo imagined that great rains, and particularly thunder ſtorms, were very inſtrumental in producing pearls.

The Greeks ranked them among the ſtones, and called them *lapis margarita*. Great praiſe has been given to pearls, as cordials and ſudorifics, but without any great foundation; they ſeem indeed very alcaline abſorbents, and as good as crab's eyes, or oyſter-ſhells, but not better.

*Falſe* PEARLS are factitious pearls, reſembling the true ones in water or colour, commonly called beads.

Theſe were anciently made of glaſs, with a kind of tincture of quickſilver in the inſide; afterwards they uſed wax, covered over with a fine brilliant fiſh blue.

*Method of making falſe pearls.* This is now much uſed in France, and is the curious invention of the Sieur Janin; that ingenious artiſt having obſerved, that the ſcales of the bleak, a fiſh found plentifully in the river Marne, had not only all the luſtre of the real pearl, but, that after beating them to powder in water, or iſing-glaſs, they returned to their former brilliancy upon drying, he bethought himſelf of ſetting a little maſs thereof, in the cavity of a bead or grain of girſol, which is a kind of opal or glaſs, bordering much on the colour of pearl. With a little glaſs tube ſix or ſeven inches long, and a line and a half in diameter, but very ſharp at one end, and a little crooked, he introduced the matter, by blowing it, after having taken up a drop with the pointed extremity; and, to ſpread it throughout the inner circumference, he contented himſelf to ſhake it gently a long time, in a little ozier baſket, lined with paper.

The pulverized ſcales reſume their luſtre, as they dry: and, to increaſe this luſtre in winter, they lay the beads in a hair ſieve or bolting-cloth, which they ſuſpend to their ceiling, and underneath, at ſix feet diſtance, lay heaps of hot aſhes. In ſummer they are ſuſpended in the ſame manner, but without any fire.

And now nothing remains but to ſtop up the aperture, which is done with melted wax, conveyed into it with a tube like that uſed in introducing the diſſolved ſcales.

After cleaning off the ſuperfluous wax, the pearls are perforated with a needle, and then ſtrung; and thus they become necklaces, which the ladies now generally wear in defect of true pearl.

*Mother of* PEARL, *auris marina*, in natural hiſtory, is the ſhell of a little ſea fiſh of the oyſter kind, not of the pearl-oyſters.

It is very ſmooth within ſide, and of the whiteneſs and water of itſelf, and it has the ſame luſtre on the outſide, after the firſt laminæ have been cleared off with aqua fortis and the lapidaries drill. It is uſed in inlaid works, and in ſeveral toys, as ſnuff-boxes, &c.

*Wens of* PEARLS, certain excreſcences, in form of half pearls, ſometimes found in the bottom of pearl-ſhells.

The lapidaries ſaw off theſe protuberances to join them together, and uſe them in ſeveral works of jewellery.

Pearls may be imported or exported duty free. 6 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 7.

PEARL-ASHES. To what duties liable. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 30.

PEARL-BARLEY. To what duties liable. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 3.

PECK, a kind of dry meaſure for grain, pulſe, and the like. The ſtandard, or Wincheſter peck, contains two gallons, each gallon weighing eight pounds troy; four pecks make a buſhel, four buſhels a coomb or carnock.

There are alſo local pecks, containing ſome more, ſome leſs; for inſtance, the Lancaſter peck contains ſix gallons, &c.

PECKA, or, as it is wrote by ſome, *peſſa*, and by others *peyſes*, is a ſmall copper money current in many places of India, eſpecially in the maritime provinces of the Grand Mogul, and more particularly in the kingdom of Guzarate, whoſe principal cities are Surate, Baroche, Cambaya, Bondra, and Amadabad; twenty-ſix make one mamoudi, and fifty-four a rupee; ſo that the pecha is worth eight deniers. In thoſe parts of India, where the cowrie ſhells are current, fifty or ſixty of them are given for the pecha, and where the Caramania almonds paſs for ſmall money, forty or forty-four of them.

PEDLAR, a travelling foot-trader. *See* HAWKER.

Almoſt all the commodities of Europe are diſtributed through Spaniſh America, by a ſort of pedlars, or merchants on foot, who come from Panama to Paita by ſea, and in their road from the laſt-mentioned port, make Piura their firſt ſtage to Lima, diſpoſing of their goods, and leſſening their burdens as they go along. Some take the road through Caxamarca, others through Truxillo, along ſhore from Lima: they take their paſſage back to Panama by ſea, and perhaps carry a large cargo of brandy with them: at Panama they again ſtock themſelves with European goods, returning by ſea to Paita, where they are put on ſhore; there they hire mules, and load them, the Indians going with them, in order to bring them back; and ſo theſe traders keep in a continual round, till they have got enough to live on.

Their travelling expences are next to nothing; for the Indians are brought under ſuch ſubjection, that they find lodging for them, and provender for their mules: this every white face may command, being an homage the poor Indians are long accuſtomed to pay; and ſome think they have an honour done into the bargain, except, out of generoſity, they now and then meet with a ſmall recompence. In the Britiſh and French nations, a pedlar is deſpiſed, and his employment looked upon as a mean ſhift to get a living; but it is otherwiſe here, where the quick return of money is a ſufficient excuſe for the manner of getting it; and there are many gentlemen in Old Spain, who, when their circumſtances in life are declining, ſend their ſons to the Indies to retrieve their fortune this way.

PEEBLES, *or* TWEEDALE, enjoys a temperate climate, and a clear air; its mountains are clothed in a beautiful verdure that affords paſture for large flocks of ſheep, bearing an excellent wool, of which the greateſt part is ſold in England; the rivers abound with ſalmon, and the vallies near them are fruitful in corn and graſs. Here are ſome coal mines, with plenty of turf for fuel; and the lake called Weſt-water, produces ſuch quantities of eels and other fiſh, about Auguſt, that, during a weſt wind, they ſhoot in ſuch ſhoals into a ſmall river running from the lake, as ſometimes to overthrow the people who go in to catch them.

PEER, *or* PIER, is a fortreſs made againſt the force of the ſea, or great rivers, for the better ſecurity of ſhips that lie at the harbour in any haven. So is the peer of Dover deſcribed in *Cam. Brit. p.* 259. *anno* 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 27. The haven and peer of Great Yarmouth, mentioned 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 2.

PEERAGE, a duty or impoſition for maintenance of a ſea-peer.

PEDU. *See* ARACAN.

PEMBROKESHIRE, though a very pleaſant county, and abounding with all neceſſaries of life, brings nothing to trade, except ſome of the largeſt ſalmon in Britain, taken near Cardigan, in the river Tyvy.

PEN-MAKER. Simple as the art of making a pen is, yet it is a diſtinct trade of itſelf; and though it requires very little genius or learning, yet there have been, and ſtill are, very ingenious men of this buſineſs, who have known how to uſe the pen for the inſtruction of mankind, as well as to make it for ſale. The pen-maker takes five or ten pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may ſet up for himſelf; but it affords only a narrow ſupport: the maſter pen-maker ſells his pens by the hundred to the ſtationer.

PENAL-LAWS, are of three kinds, viz. *pœna pecuniaria*, *pœna corporalis*, and *pœna exilii*. *Cro. Jac.* 415. And penal ſtatutes have been made upon many and various occaſions, to puniſh and deter offenders; and they ought to be conſtrued ſtrictly, and not to be extended by equity, but the words of them may be interpreted beneficially, according to the intent of the legiſlators. 1 *Inſt.* 54, 268. where a thing is prohibited by ſtatute under a penalty, if the penalty, or part of it, be not given to him who will ſue for the ſame, it goes and belongs to the king. *Raſt. Entr.* 433. 2 *Hawk.* 265. But the king cannot grant to any perſon, any penalty or forfeiture, &c. due by any ſtatute, before judgment thereupon had; though after plea pleaded, juſtices of aſſize, &c. having power to hear and determine offences done againſt any penal ſtatute, may compound the penalties with the defendant, by virtue of the king's warrant or privy ſeal. *Stat.* 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 3. There are penalties ordained by ſeveral penal acts of parliament, to be recovered in any court of record; but this is to be underſtood only of the courts at Weſtminſter, and not of the courts of record of inferior corporations. *Jenk. Cent.* 228.

PENALTY *of bonds*, &c. If a man brings an action of debt upon a bond for performance of covenants, the plaintiff ſhall recover the whole penalty of his bond; becauſe in debt the judgment muſt be according to the demand, and the demand is to be for the whole penalty; but upon the defendant's bringing a bill in equity, and praying an injunction to the ſuit at common law, the court of equity uſually grants it till the hearing of the cauſe; and upon hearing of the cauſe, they will continue the injunction farther, and order a trial at law on a *quantum damnificatus*, for the jury to find what damages the plaintiff received by reaſon of the breach of covenants, &c. And they farther order, that after ſuch verdict given at the common law, both parties ſhall reſort back for the decree of that court: ſo that here muſt be ſeveral actions and ſuits at law and in equity, whereas a bare action of covenant, without ſuing for the penalty of the bond, will make an end of the buſineſs in leſs time, and for a much leſs charge. 2 *Lill. Abr.* 288, 289. A perſon being intitled to the penalty by law, a court of equity will not relieve againſt it, without having principal, intereſt, and coſts; and where a penalty is recovered at law and paid, Chancery may decree the party to refund all, except the principal and intereſt, &c. *Chan. Rep.* 437. This court will not generally carry the debt, beyond this penalty of a bond: yet where a plaintiff came to be relieved againſt ſuch penalty, though it was decreed, it was on the payment of the principal money, intereſt, and coſts; and notwithſtanding they exceeded the penalty, this was affirmed. 1 *Vern.* 350. *Abr. Caſ. Equ.* 92. *See* 16 *Vin. Abr. tit. Penalty.*

PENCIL-MAKER. This buſineſs requires very little ingenuity or learning. They make pencils of different ſizes, of black lead, and of red chalk, and ſell them to the ſtationers, print-ſhops, and hardwaremen, who ſell by retail. They take five or ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn twelve or fourteen ſhillings a week, as a journeyman, or with leſs than fifty pounds may ſet up maſter.

PENDANTS of a ſhip, thoſe long ſtreamers cut pointing towards the end, and there divided into two parts, hung out at the heads of maſts, &c. They are uſed ſometimes for ſhew, and for diſtinction of ſquadrons, &c.

PENDANTS *pennant*, is a ſhort rope, which at one end is faſtened to the head of the maſt, yard, or clue of the ſail, and at the other end hath a block and ſhiver, to receive ſome running rope into.

PENIDIUM *Saccharum*, in pharmacy, barley-ſugar, a preparation of ſugar made by boiling it up with a decoction of barley, till it becomes brittle, then turned out upon a marble, anointed with oil of ſweet almonds, kneaded with the hands like paſte, and, while hot, drawn out into twiſted ſticks. It is good againſt colds, moderates the acrimonies of the breaſt, promotes expectoration, &c.

It alſo denotes a kind of clarified ſugar, with a mixture of ſtarch made up into boluſes.

PENINSULA, or *Cherſoneſus*, in geography, a portion of land joining to the continent by a narrow neck, and encompaſſed with water every other way.

PENNY, *peny*, in commerce, an ancient Engliſh coin, which is now generally a money of account.

It was equal in weight to our three-pence; five of which made a Saxon ſcilling, and thirty a mark, or mancuſe, equal to our ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence.

Till the time of Edward I. the penny was ſtruck with a croſs, ſo deeply indented, that it might be eaſily broke into two, thence called half-pennies, or into four, called fourthings, or farthings: but that prince coined it without indenture, and ſtruck round half-pence and farthings. He alſo ordered that the penny ſhould weigh thirty-two grains of wheat, and called it the penny ſterling, twenty of which were to weigh an ounce.

At preſent a penny, hating a few ſilver pence current among us, is only a money of account, containing the twelfth part of our ſhilling, or the two hundred and fortieth part of a pound.

The French penny, or denier, is of two kinds, the denier Pariſis, and the denier Tournois.

The Dutch penny, called pennick, is a real piece of coin, worth about one-fifth more than the penny Tournois. It is alſo a money of account, twelve pennicks making the patard, and twenty patards the florin.

At Hamburgh, Nuremburg, &c. the pfening of account is equal to the penny Tournois; eight of them make the krieux, and ſixty the florin of thoſe cities; and ninety the French crown, or four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling.

PENNY-WEIGHT, a troy weight, containing twenty-four grains, each grain weighing a grain of wheat, gathered out of the middle of the ear, well dried.

It is ſo called, as this was actually the weight of one of our ancient ſilver pennies.

Twenty of theſe penny-weights make an ounce Troy. A penny-weight of gold bullion, ſtandard, is worth four ſhillings, and of ſilver bullion, three-pence.

PENSYLVANIA. Admiral Penn, (afterwards Sir William) rendered himſelf famous, by the conqueſt (with colonel Venables) of Jamaica; and endeared himſelf to every one ſerving under him, by his unaffected modeſty, and other engaging qualifications and virtues; theſe, and his great abilities in maritime affairs likewiſe, placed him in a very high degree of eſteem and credit, both with king Charles II. and his royal brother, which drew from the former a promiſed grant of this American territory, in reward of his paſt ſervices to the crown; but he dying before its confirmation, and his ſon not applying for it till ſome year after, the patent bears date only from the fourth of March, 1680, containing all that tract of land in America, with all the iſlands belonging to it, from the beginning of the fortieth degree of north latitude to the forty-third degree, &c. This was the contents of the firſt grant; but Mr. Penn having afterwards obtained an addition from New-York, the whole territory of Penſylvania now runs three hundred and thirty miles in length, and about two hundred in breadth, being diſtinguiſhed by this denomination in both the patents.

There were but few Engliſh when Mr. Penn ſent over the firſt adventurers, who had accompanying them a governor of his appointing, to whom the Swedes and Dutch that remained very readily ſubmitted; but he afterwards went in perſon to ſettle the conſtitution he had procured to be drawn up by that great lawyer, Sir William Jones, and to make agreements with the Indian princes. The air is ſerene and pleaſant, the ſoil generally fertile, and every thing grows here in great abundance and plenty. The towns are large and numerous, well ſituated for trade, and populous; inſomuch that the capital, Philadelphia, is now ſuppoſed to contain fifteen thouſand inhabitants, by which the number of people in this flouriſhing colony may be gueſſed at, though it would be difficult to aſcertain them.

The merchandize which Penſylvania furniſhes for its commerce with Europe and America, conſiſts in horſes, pipe-ſtaves, pork, beef, and fiſh ſalted and barrelled up, ſkins and furs; all ſorts of grain, viz. wheat, rye, peas, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian peas and beans, pot-aſhes, wax, &c. And in return for theſe they import from the Caribbee iſlands, &c. rum, ſugar, molaſſes, ſilver, negroes, ſalt, and wine; and from Great-Britain, houſhold goods, clothing of all ſorts, hardware, tools, and toys. They alſo grow ſome rice, and a little tobacco of the worſt ſort; and their trade with the Indians is confined to a few articles, they receiving from them only furs and ſkins, and giving them in return, ſome clothing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other ſpirits.

PEPPER, *piper*, in natural hiſtory, an aromatic fruit or berry, of a hot dry quality, chiefly uſed in ſeaſoning.

We have three kinds of pepper at this time in uſe in the ſhops; the black, the white, and the long pepper.

White pepper is univerſally allowed to be only the black pepper decorticated by maceration in water, and then gently dried; but it is extremely probable, that the black pepper is cured before it is quite ripe, and the white not till it is fully ſo; and hence may ariſe the difference uſually perceived between the two.

There is likewiſe another ſort of pepper, which is naturally white, and grows upon much the ſame kind of plant as the former. But this is rarely to be met with in the ſhops.

Long pepper is the unripe fruit of a tree, brought to us from the Eaſt-Indies, about an inch or an inch and a half in length, of a cylindrical figure, reſembling the catkins of the birch-tree; its external ſurface appears compoſed of numerous minute grains, diſpoſed in a very particular manner, which Geoffroy has deſcribed with great exactneſs; its internal part is divided into ſeveral ſmall cells, each of which contains a roundiſh ſeed, outwardly of a blackiſh colour, inwardly whitiſh: the whole is of a hot, biting, bitteriſh taſte. Long pepper ſhould be choſen freſh, intire, weighty, hard to break, ſound, and free from duſt and other impurities.

Black pepper is a round, yellow grain, about the ſize of a ſmall pea, covered over with a black or dark coloured, wrinkled bark; which being taken off, a ſomewhat hard, compact ſubſtance appears, the external ſurface whereof is of a greeniſh yellow colour; the internal (which bounds the hollow part of the fruit) of a whitiſh colour; of a hot, acrid taſte, burning the mouth and fauces. It ſhould be choſen large, weighty, as little wrinkled as poſſible, and free from duſt. This is the only ſpice we import directly from the Eaſt-Indies, all the others come through the hands of the Dutch.

Geoffroy relates, that thirty-ſix ounces of well choſen black pepper, being macerated in water for ſix days, and afterwards diſtilled, yielded one drachm of a thin, limpid, aromatic oil, which ſmelt ſtrongly of pepper, was of a hot biting taſte, but not ſo acrimonious as might have been expected: this oil floated on the water which came over with it: the water ſmelt very ſtrong of pepper, and taſted remarkably hot. Spirit of wine ſeems intirely to extract all the pungency and heat of this ſpice; ſo that a few drops of a tincture made with it (which is of a dark brown colour,) ſets the mouth as it were in a flame.

Pepper may be imported into the port of London only; and upon entry thereof, and payment of half the ſubſidy, muſt be forthwith put into warehouſes, provided at the charge of the importer, and approved of by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, upon forfeiture, and one hundred pounds.

When in ſuch warehouſes, may be garbled or ſifted from ſtones, dirt, or other traſh, which the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms may cauſe to be deſtroyed. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 20, 21. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 45.

The proprietor of the pepper may affix one lock to each warehouſe, and keep the key; and may, in the preſence of the warehouſe-keeper, who muſt attend at all ſeaſonable times, view, ſort, and deliver the ſame. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 23.

Upon delivery out of ſuch warehouſes, if for home conſumption, the buyer muſt pay the duties; but if for exportation, ſufficient ſecurity muſt be firſt given, that it ſhall be really exported, and not relanded in Great-Britain.

Which ſecurity may be diſcharged upon certificate, under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants, teſtifying the landing, or upon proof that it was taken by enemies, or periſhed at ſea. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 20, 23, 24. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 15.

Warehouſe-

# An Accurate Map of Persia: By George Rollos, Geog.r

Degrees E. from London.

Scale of British Miles. 50 100 200 300

BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
L. Aral
KARASM
USBECKS
GREAT BUKARIA
GEORGIA
CIRCASSIA
DAGHESTAN
SHIRVAN
ERIVAN
TURKEY IN ASIA
CURDES
ARMENIA
ARABIA
PERSIAN GULF
ZAWEH
KORCAN
MAZANDERAN
KORASAN
BALCK
CANDAHAR
SEGESTAN
SABLESTAN
FARSISTAN
KERMAN
MECRAN
Nation of warlike Savages called Balluches
COUHESTAN
Salt Marshes
Sand Hills
Grt. Salt Desart
Desarts infested with Robbers
EASTERN OCEAN
GULF OF GUZURAT
INDIA
Tropic of Cancer

Circassia, Bodrugah, Biasanta, Tegaour, Konu, Gounia, Trebizund, Erzerum, Bayazid, Diadin, Elija, Euphrates R., Palli, Diarbeker, Van, L. Van, Mosul, Tecrit, Euphrates R., Bagdad, Tigris R., Basora, Soura, Kathema, Mascalat, Oman, Voldana, Muscat, Curiat, Tsur, C. Rasalgat, Mecca, Jidda, Mocha, Abyssinia, Nubia, Egypt, Red Sea, Mt Cau casus, Szadrin, Tartaria, Tarku, Mt Caucasus, Mechabeli, Guri, Tiflis, Usker, Damasia, Lore, Chorsour, Teflerique, Ileidan, Kriyan, Berdua, Ballucan, Tschernat, Baku, Derbend, Karaboga, Ruins of Sellizura, Alexanders Bay, Korgan, Eris, Chistran, Shamaki, Swinoi Ost, Nisse, Agourgina, Sedsaree, Karasbag, Ngasiran, Ordavar, Aras, Makou, Tchors, Avogli, Astara, Lisvol, Tabris, Tasoor, Kowai, Schahi, Miana, Zuschambou, Borna, Awchai, Hadran, Van, Zergan, Caswin, Ferabad, Astrabad, Jorjan, Zaweh, Kermini, Achor, Bagisjab, Esferain, Tedjen R., Hariverd, Nesa, Amu, Amu R., Bokara, Buelo, Delune, Tcharkeu, Farsi, Lenger, Surcheh, Marou al rud, Susa, Lacsur, Tcheknekdan, Gourgian, Samarcand, Eujinch, Agau R., Nasuh, Tachkund, Tiour koustan, Silon R., Tuk, Glazarost, Saganian, Washgerd, Catlan, Gihon R., Farial, Ux, Balck, Ambar, Enderab, Ketver, Perjan, Kouri, Maru ul Chadgcha, Tarom, Nahiam R., Giroft, Jarom, Giovar, Tadivan, Congen, May, Lar, Siraf, Gulre, Lamuna, Daree, Bam, Bennasir, Giovain, Sirgian, Barsir, Schiras, Karachron, Bender Rik, Bouscher, Dakan R., Tuan, Palsa, Farsistan, Tuberan, Chabis, Salem of Segestan, Masiik, Rebat Almasek, Medra, Rasec, Halick, Human, Hubasan, Araba, Tahalsahara R., Kidge, Candail, Kazdar, Asfaca, Aruba, Guadel, Astola I., Camelo I., Dobil, Tata, Cacha, Pulitar R., C. Moanza, C. Messada, C. Jaquet, Mangarol, Indus R., Cabul R., Mooltan, Cabul, Maubal, Candahar, Meiment, Giarurd, Pesingan, Bost, Griche, Sarvan, Derghas, Jesar d echeb, Tidhend, Bengevat, Aun, Gebel el Abad, Segestan, Dorec, L. Jafa, Rebat Maabad, Abar, Mashed, Nisabad, Tous, Bagia, Bend, Zobaide, Delli Gherdou, Dorac, Mnethel, Gor, Ahovas, Mosercan, Alwa, Kamalava, Coronda, Agea, Arinxa, Biben, Dottem, Samagi, Karla, Albours Volc., Malaverd, Aran, Obigarmi, Conga, Korbeth, Nazzereth, Bilitan, Saraut, Dizabad, Kom, Kishgiever, Amadan, Sneirna, Darghesin, Ruins of Rey, Chamar, Beyad, Rebat Sheheristan, Terischica, Thoun, Castian, Astarabad, Auca, Zare, Zeta, Parra, Siaba, Murra, Kuidrun, Sunday, Segestan, Sarvan, Rebat Maabad, Derghas, Griche, Giarurd, Candahar, Meiment, Maubal, Cabul, Pesingan, Bost, Tidhend, Mooltan, Indus R., Cabul R., Dehat R., Tadus R., Zuf, Nasab, Halick, Human, Hubasan, Araba, Tahalsahara R., Kidge, Candail, Kazdar, Asfaca, Aruba, Guadel, Astola I., Camelo I., Dobil, Tata, Cacha, Pulitar R., C. Moanza, C. Messada, C. Jaquet, Mangarol, Virun, Carl R., Indus R., Gulf of Ormus, Str. of Ormus, Julphar, Mekeran, Ras Ollim-a, Gathema, Brahmi, Lar, Siraf, Gulre, Congo, Jarom, Giovar, Tadivan, Congen, May, Tarom, Nahiam R., Giroft, Jarom, Lamuna, Daree, Bam, Bennasir, Giovain, Sirgian, Barsir, Schiras, Karachron, Bender Rik, Bouscher, Dakan R., Tuan, Palsa, Farsistan, Tuberan, Chabis, Salem of Segestan, Masiik, Rebat Almasek, Medra, Rasec

Warehouſe-keepers are to enter all pepper brought in and carried out, diſtinguiſhing that for home conſumption from that for exportation, and, at the end of every ſix months, muſt tranſmit an exact account thereof, and of what is remaining in their cuſtody, upon oath, to the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms; who are within one month to cauſe the books and warehouſes to be inſpected, and the accounts examined.

If upon ſuch examination it ſhall appear, that any pepper has been delivered out without payment of duty, or ſecurity for exportation, the warehouſe-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and one hundred pounds, and to be rendered incapable of any public employment. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 22.

PERCH, is uſed with us for a rod or pole of ſixteen feet and a half in length; whereof forty in length, and four in breadth make an acre of ground: yet by cuſtom of the country, it may be longer; and ſeveral counties differ herein, for in Staffordſhire it is twenty-four feet; in the foreſt of Sherwood twenty-five. In Herefordſhire, a perch of walling is ſixteen feet and a half: a perch of ditching twenty-one feet: in the foreſt of Cank twenty-five: in the foreſt of Clarendon twenty, &c.

PERCHE. *See* ANJOU.

PERFUMER. This is a pretty genteel trade, that requires a boy of a polite behaviour; but he has no occaſion for much genius or learning. The perfumer ſells all ſorts of perfumes, fragrant oils, powders, eſſences, waſhes, ſoap, and pomatums; they employ labourers in the moſt laborious part of their work; but though they keep handſome ſhops, they ſeldom take apprentices, or employ journeymen regularly bred to the buſineſs. A maſter may ſet up handſomely with about two hundred pounds.

PERMIT, is a permiſſion or licence for perſons to paſs with and ſell goods, on their having paid the cuſtom duties for the ſame. It is mentioned in *ſtat.* 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *See* CUSTOMS.

PERNAW. *See* LIVONIA.

PERRY, a drink made of pears, after the ſame manner as cyder from apples, only the pears muſt be perfectly ripe. The beſt fruit for this purpoſe are ſuch as are leaſt fit for eating, and the redder they are, ſtill the better. *See* CYDER.

PERSIA. Trade is regarded as an honourable profeſſion in Perſia, where the name of a merchant is eſteemed a ſort of a title of diſtinction, and ſomething reſpectable; the noblemen, and even the ſovereign himſelf, do not diſdain to exerciſe the function, and to have warehouſes, &c. for carrying it on.

The empire of Perſia is of ſo great an extent, and its provinces are generally ſo rich and abundant, that the aſſertion of its trade being one of the moſt conſiderable in Aſia, has nothing ſurprizing or incredible in it. We have given an account of the trade of this country under the article of its capital, ISPAHAN, which *ſee*.

*Gulph of* PERSIA. This gulph, called alſo the gulph of Ormus (from the iſle of Ormus, a very little diſtance from its entrance) gulph of Baſſora (from a city of this name in Arabia Deſerta, at its other extremity) and the gulph of El-latif, (from a kindom in Arabia Felix, extending along the coaſt, oppoſite to that of Perſia) is equally celebrated for its pearl-fiſhery, near the iſle of Baharen, as for its great commerce with all the Oriental and European nations, who ſend their ſhips either to Bender-Abaſſi, or Baſſora. *See* BAHAREM, BASSORA, GAMERON, and ORMUS, for a more ample account of the trade of this gulph.

PERSONAL, being joined with the ſubſtantives, things, goods, or chattels, as things perſonal, goods perſonal, chattels perſonal, ſignifies any moveable thing belonging to a man, be it quick or dead.

PERTH, is very fruitful in grain, more eſpecially in that part of it called Gowry, which is very remarkable for its noble corn fields, as the river Keith is for its fine ſalmon fiſhery. Culroſs is noted for its trade in coals, ſalt, and girdles. The Ochil hills are ſaid to abound with metals and minerals, particularly with good copper, and *lapis calaminaris*, and at Glen Lion with lead. At Perth (the ſecond town in Scotland for dignity) is ſo conſiderable a manufacture for linen, as to ſupply all the neighbouring territory in ſome branch of it; and as the Tay is navigable up to the town for ſhips of good burden, they here embark vaſt quantities of it for England; this river alſo furniſhes the town with fine ſalmon in prodigious quantities, which is carried to Edinburgh, and other parts where this fiſh is wanting, beſides barrelling up large parcels for exportation; as the merchants of this place carry on a very conſiderable foreign trade.

PERU, formerly a powerful empire, is ſituated between ſixty and eighty-one degrees of weſt longitude, and between the equator and twenty-five degrees of ſouth latitude, being near two thouſand miles in length from north to ſouth, and from two hundred to five hundred broad, bounded by Popayan on the north, by the mountains of Andes, or Cordilleras, which ſeparate it from the country of the Amazons and Paraguay, on the eaſt; by Chili and La Plata on the ſouth; and by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, on the weſt. It is divided into three parts, the north, middle, and ſouth: the north diviſion comprehends the province of Quito, the chief towns Quito and Payta; the middle diviſion, that of Lima, or Los Reyes; the chief towns Lima, Cuſco, and Callao; and the ſouth diviſion that of Los Charcos; the chief towns Potoſi and Porco.

The coaſt of Peru, which extends upwards of one thouſand five hundred miles along the Pacific Ocean, is a high bold ſhore. About thirty miles within land is a chain of mountains, called the Sierras, and beyond theſe, about eighty miles, are prodigious high mountains, called the Cordilleras des Andes, which, with the Sierras, run the whole length of South America, upwards of three thouſand miles. They are always covered with ſnow, and the air on them is too pure and ſubtile for animals to breathe in; nor are there any beaſts upon them, wild or tame. It never rains in that part of the country which lies near the ſea coaſt, unleſs within three or four degrees of the equator; but the country is watered by the rivers which fall from the Andes into the South Sea: theſe they turn into the fields and gardens, and have their vintage and harveſt at what time of the year they pleaſe, this being the only country between the tropics that affords wine. The wind blows continually from the ſouth, or ſouth-weſt at ſea, near the coaſt. The weather is bright, when the ſun is in the northern ſigns; and hazy when ſouth of the equator, though no rain falls. The ſandy plains near the ſea ſhore are perfectly barren, except ſome few vallies. The Sierras are alſo barren hills, but the vallies beneath are fruitful, and produce almoſt all manner of grain and fruit. This part of the country is beſt inhabited, being the moſt temperate, for the ſandy plains near the ſea are exceſſive hot.

The Peruvian ſheep, called pacos, or huancu, are of the bigneſs of a ſtag, and reſemble a camel. The body is covered with a coarſe kind of wool; they are very tractable, and were formerly the only beaſts of burden among the Peruvians: the fleſh is very good meat, and eſteemed as innocent as chicken. The vicuna, to which the Spaniards give the name of the Indian goat, ſomething reſembles that animal. The bezoar-ſtone is found in it, and is famed for expelling poiſons, and performing many cures. Their deer are much ſmaller than ours; their wild beaſts not many; and thoſe not ſo fierce and dangerous as in this continent. The cattle imported from Europe are vaſtly encreaſed, and many of them run wild and are hunted like other game. They had no tame fowl but the nuana, moſtly reſembling the duck, but much larger. Among their foreſt-trees, the moſt valuable is the quinquina, or jeſuits bark, which grows in the province of Quito: it is about the ſize of a cherry-tree, the leaves round and indented, and bears a long reddiſh flower, from whence ariſes a pod with a kernel like an almond. The tree that yields this bark grows alſo on the mountains of Potoſi: neither the flower nor fruit have the ſame virtue. They have now plenty of European corn and wine; bread is likewiſe made of the caſſivi root, as in other parts of America. Balſam of Peru proceeds from the trunk and branches of a little tree; and the country beſides yields ſtorax, guaiacum, and ſeveral other gums and drugs.

Gold is found in every province of Peru, waſhed down from the mountains; and there are plenty of ſilver mines, of which the richeſt are thoſe of Potoſi, diſcovered in 1545: it is a ſolid rock, and the oar ſo hard, that they break it with hammers, and it ſplits as if it were flint.

commodities, which the Europeans make a part of their ſhips cargoes.

PETTY AVERAGE. *See* AVERAGE.

PETTY CUSTOMS, or *aliens duty*. This duty is payable by merchant-ſtrangers, that is, aliens born, or denizens, on all goods imported liable to the ſubſidy of poundage (unleſs where the original old ſubſidy has been intirely taken away) but not on thoſe liable to the ſubſidy of tonnage, becauſe an equivalent is included in the old ſubſidy.

And it is alſo payable by Britiſh, upon the following goods, though of Britiſh property, when imported in foreign ſhips, viz. 12 *Car.* II. *cap.* 18. *ſect.* 9. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 6.

Aqua vitæ, Boards, Brandy, Corn, or grain of all ſorts, when the old ſubſidy is taken at the original rate, Figs, Flax †, Hemp, Maſts, Olive oil, Pitch, Pot-aſhes, Prunes, Raiſins, Roſin, Salt, Sugar, Tar, Timber, All goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muſcovy or Ruſſia, } imported in ſhips not belonging to the people of Great-Britain or Ireland, and whereof the maſter and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners are not Britiſh; or in foreign-built ſhips, although owned or manned by Britiſh, unleſs ſuch as are taken as prize.

† By 4 *Car.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 1. rough or undreſſed flax may be imported free.

Currants, Turkey commodities, } imported in ſhips not Britiſh-built, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners are not Britiſh.

It is to be levied according to the reſpective rates or values of the goods, as affixed or aſcertained for the old ſubſidy, after the following rates, viz.

| | | l. s. d. |
|---|---|---|
| § Fiſh, dried or ſalted and cod fiſh or herring (unleſs prohibited) not caught in Britiſh or Iriſh veſſels, and cured by Britiſh or Iriſh | 2½ *per cent.* of the rate, or double petty cuſtoms, being ½ part of ſuch rate, or for every 20s. thereof | 0 0 6 |
| All other goods chargeable with ſubſidy of poundage | 1¼ *per cent.* of the rate or value, being ¼ part thereof, or for every 20s. | 0 0 3 |

§ 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

To be paid in ready money, without diſcount, upon due exportation, as directed for the old ſubſidy, &c. drawback, or repayment of this duty, muſt be allowed as follows, viz.

| | Drawback. |
|---|---|
| Currants, the hundred weight, all but | £0 0 4½ |

All other goods, nothing.

PEWTER, a factitious metal uſed in domeſtic utenſils, being a mixture of ſix pounds of braſs and fifteen pounds of lead, to a hundred weight of tin. *See* TIN.

Pewter has occaſionally ſerved for money, particularly in Ireland, where the late king James II. turned all the pewter veſſels, &c. of the proteſtants, he could ſeize, into crowns, half-crowns, and ſhillings, which he ordered to be current in all payments.

PEWTERER. This is an ingenious buſineſs, that requires ſtrength; but is very unhealthy from the fumes of the metal, which are apt to render the workmen paralytic. Pewter is a mixed metal, made of lead and tin. The pewterers caſt their work in moulds, and afterwards turn them with a lathe peculiar to themſelves; after which the plate, diſh, or other veſſel, is planiſhed with a hammer, the face whereof is of caſe-hardened ſteel, nicely poliſhed. They keep large ſhops, and take from twenty to fifty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn from fifteen ſhillings to a guinea a week, or with five hundred pounds may ſet up for himſelf.

Their weights, and the ſtandard of their metal, limited. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 6. 4 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7.

Their goods ſhall be ſearched and ſold in open places, &c. 25 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9. 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4.

No ſtranger born ſhall work pewter, &c. 25 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 3.

Duties on tin imported. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 52.

And pewter and tin exported, 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 34. *ſect.* 1.

Saving of the charges granted to the tinners of Devon and Cornwall. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 6. *ſ.* 4.

PHAGEDÆNIC *water*, in chemiſtry, denotes a water drawn from quick-lime, ſo called from its efficacy in curing phagedænic ulcers.

To two pounds of quick-lime, in an earthen pan, are put ten pounds of rain-water, which, after two days ſtanding, and frequent ſtirring, the water is at laſt, when well ſettled, poured off by inclination, filtred, and put into a glaſs bottle, with an ounce of corroſive ſublimate in powder. Then it is fit for uſe, in cleanſing wounds and ulcers, and to eat off ſuperfluous fleſh, particularly gangrenes, in which caſe a third or fourth part of ſpirit of wine may be added.

PHAROS, a watch tower. No man may build or erect any light-houſes, pharos, ſea-marks, or beacons, without lawful warrant and authority. 3 *Inſt. fol.* 204. *See* LIGHT-HOUSE.

PHILIPPINES. *See* MANILLAS.

PHILOSOPHER'S STONE, in alchemy, a long fought for preparation, which is to tranſmute or exalt impurer metals, ſuch as tin, lead, and copper, into gold and ſilver.

There are three ways whereby the alchemiſts have attempted to arrive at the making of gold; the firſt by ſeparation, the ſecond by maturation, and the third by tranſmuting or turning of all metals readily into pure gold, by melting them in the fire, and caſting a little quantity of a certain preparation into the infuſed matter, upon which the fæces are volatized and burnt, and the reſt of the maſs turned into pure gold. Whether this third method be poſſible, is very hard to ſay. One natural argument will ſuffice to ſhew the vain pretences of making gold by art. Very plain receipts have been laid down on this ſubject; but, after ten thouſand experiments according to theſe directions, they have always failed of ſucceſs; or, if there was any little gold found, the quantity was ſo ſmall, that it did not near anſwer the trouble and expence, nor give any encouragement to repeat the operation.

PHOSPHORUS, a kind of matter prepared by chemiſtry, which ſhines, or even burns in the dark.

Chemiſtry hath ſcarce afforded any thing more ſurprizing than the common phoſphorus. To ſee letters traced with this matter become luminous in the dark, images and the bodies of men to blaze with light, and abundance of the like experiments, performed by means of phoſphorus, muſt awaken the curioſity of thoſe who have ſeen theſe experiments, and render them deſirous of being acquainted with the method of preparing it. The preparation, even to this day, is kept as a ſecret in few hands, and the matter ſold at a very great price. Whence we apprehend it would be no unacceptable preſent to the world, to render this commodity cheaper, and diſcover its farther uſes.

The hiſtory of phoſphorus, called Kunckell's phoſphorus, or the phoſphorus of urine, is as follows: one Brand, an obſcure chemiſt of Hamburgh, ſtumbled upon it, as he was ſearching after the philoſopher's ſtone, which he firmly believed lay concealed in urine. This ſubject, therefore, he tortured a thouſand ways; and at length, after a violent diſtillation, diſcovered a ſhining matter, ſince called phoſphorus, in the receiver. This matter was ſhewn to Dr. Kunckell; but the proceſs was concealed from him. Soon after this, Brand died; and Kunckell, reflecting that Brand worked wholly upon urine, he continued to work upon the ſame ſubject himſelf, four years ſucceſſively; and at length, in the year 1679, found the thing he had ſo long ſought after. Dr. Kraft has uſually paſſed for the inventor of this phoſphorus, he being the firſt who carried it abroad, though he only diſtributed for Dr. Kunkell; Kraft being, at that time, ignorant of the preparation.

The ſucceſsful method of preparing it is this: evaporate any quantity of freſh urine over a gentle fire, to a black and almoſt dry ſubſtance; then, with two pounds thereof,

thoroughly mix twice its weight of fine ſand; put this mixture into a ſtrong coated ſtone long-neck; and, having poured a quart or two of clear water into a large receiver, join it to the long-neck, and work it in a naked fire: let the heat be ſmall for the two firſt hours; then increaſe it gradually to the utmoſt violence; and continue this for three or four hours ſucceſſively; at the expiration of which time, there will paſs into the receiver a little phlegm and volatile ſalt, much black and fetid oil, and laſtly, the matter of phoſphorus, in form of white clouds, which either ſtick to the ſides of the receiver, like a fine yellow ſkin, or fall to the bottom in form of a ſmall ſand. Now let the fire go out, but let the receiver continue till all be cold, leſt the phoſphorus take fire on the admiſſion of the air. To reduce theſe ſmall grains into one piece, put them into a little tin ingot-mould, with water; heat the ingot to make the grains melt together; then add cold water, till the matter is congealed into one ſolid ſtick, like bees-wax; which being cut into ſmall pieces, fit to enter the mouth of a vial, may be preſerved by water, and keeping the glaſs cloſe ſtopped. If the glaſs were not to be ſtopped, the phoſphorus would turn black on its ſurface, and at length be ſpoiled.

The cautions required to make this proceſs ſucceed, are, (1.) To evaporate the urine, while it is recent. (2.) To prevent its boiling over, and by that means loſing the moſt unctuous part. (3.) To let the matter afterwards ferment in the cold. (4.) To mix the black matter with the ſand, to prevent its melting and running over. (5.) To uſe a ſtone long-neck, thoſe of earth being too porous, and ſuffering the phoſphorus to tranſude ſooner than paſs into the receiver. (6.) To have the receiver very large, and with a very long neck, to prevent its breaking and overbeating, which would either evaporate the white vapour wherein the phoſphorus conſiſts, or elſe prevent its coagulating. (7.) To put water into the receiver, for keeping it cold, and quenching the phoſphorus, as it falls to the bottom. (8.) To make the fire ſmall at firſt, that the long-neck may be preſerved, and the black matter gradually dried, which would otherwiſe ſwell, and run over in a black froth. Laſtly, it is found neceſſary, that the urine for the operation be of ſuch as drink malt-liquors, rather than wine. All theſe circumſtances being required for obtaining the phoſphorus to advantage, it is no wonder that ſo many of thoſe who attempted it, miſcarried.

This operation may be greatly ſhortened, by freezing and concentrating freſh urine; afterwards evaporating it with care; then digeſting it in the manner above-mentioned. When thoroughly digeſted, commit the matter, in a large quantity, to an iron pot, with an earthen head, as the chemiſts uſually do for making ſpirit of hartſhorn, or the ſpirit and ſalt of urine; and when, by this method, all the ſalt and oil are obtained, let the *caput mortuum* be taken out, and mixed with twice its own weight of allum. The matter may now be put into well coated long-necks, and worked with care in a reverberatory furnace, into very large receivers filled with water, and connected to the long-necks by adopters, the lower ends whereof may enter the water, as in diſtilling of quickſilver; the operation being continued eight or ten hours. And this we apprehend is the beſt way, hitherto known, of procuring phoſphorus to advantage.

Dr. Wall informs, that Mr. Boyle, being concerned to find how ſmall a proportion of phoſphorus was afforded by urine, deſired him to look out for another ſubject that might afford it in greater plenty. The doctor afterwards cauſing a piece of dry matter to be dug up in the fields where night-men emptied their carts, he obſerved a great number of ſmall particles of phoſphorus therein. This matter the doctor immediately carried to Mr. Boyle, who ſet Bilgar the chemiſt, to work upon it; but he could obtain very little phoſphorus from it, till another material was added to it in diſtillation; and then he procured phoſphorus in ſuch plenty, that, ſelling large quantities at ſix guineas the ounce, he ſoon became rich, and left England.

The matter which thus fixes and increaſes the phoſphorus we apprehend to be allum, which is itſelf not only in ſome meaſure prepared from urine, but appears to afford the ſame kind of acid, that phoſphorus yields by burning; for, upon its analyſis, phoſphorus appears to be a compoſition of a ſtrong acid and an inflammable matter, exactly in the manner of common brimſtone, whence it may not improperly be called an animal ſulphur: and accordingly, like common brimſtone, it will burn under a glaſs bell, and afford flowers, that become an acid liquor, like *oleum ſulphuris per campanam*, by attracting the moiſture of the air.

This phoſphorus has been employed for making many curious experiments, a few whereof we ſhall here exhibit.

(1.) The light of this phoſphorus appears greater in vacuo than in the open air.

(2.) In hot weather it is obſerved to dart flaſhes of light through the water wherein it is contained, ſo as exactly to reſemble lightning; which, thus darts unextinguiſhed through watery clouds and vapours.

(3.) Theſe flaſhes of light are not to kindle or burn any combuſtible matter, in which they reſemble the harmleſs kind of lightning; but in a condenſed ſtate this phoſphorus burns very furiouſly, and with a moſt penetrating fire, ſo as to melt and diſſolve metals: in which reſpect it again reſembles the more deſtructive kinds of lightning, which are found to have the ſame effects.

(4.) If a little piece of this phoſphorus be viewed through a microſcope, the internal parts appear in a conſtant ebullition. (5.) Though this phoſphorus appears to be a kind of ſulphur, yet it does not diſſolve in highly rectified ſpirit of wine, but communicates ſome ſulphureous parts thereto; for if this ſpirit be poured into water in the dark, it yields a faint degree of light.

(6.) This phoſphorus being mixed with a large quantity of pomatum, makes a ſhining unguent, which may be rubbed on the hands and face, without danger of burning, ſo as to render them luminous in the dark. Many other ſurprizing experiments may be made with this phoſphorus, which is a ſubſtance that ſeems in chemiſtry to be much ſuch a thing as the load-ſtone in natural philoſophy; and its effects almoſt as odd and difficult to explain, for want of knowing the latent properties of bodies.

That ingenious chemiſt, Mr. Godfrey, has greatly improved the method of making phoſphorus, ſo as to obtain a large quantity at one operation.

There are ſeveral other ſpecies of phoſphorus invented by authors, but the above is by far the beſt, and may doubtleſs, be applied to ſeveral uſes in life.

*Natural* PHOSPHORUS. *See* BONONIAN-STONE.

PIC, PICK, *or* PICOL, the Chineſe quintal of one hundred pounds their weight, or one hundred and twenty-five pounds marc. *See* CATI.

This weight is alſo in uſe at Siam, Malacca, and in the iſles of Sonde, though at the firſt of theſe it conſiſts of double the number of Siameſe Catis, to what it does of the Chineſe, as the former Cati is only half of the latter.

PICARDY. The natural productions which this province furniſhes to trade are, corn, hemp, and wool; and its manufactures, woollens, linens, caps, tapeſtry, and ſoap. In reſpect of the firſt, here is worked up five or ſix hundred thouſand pounds of wool of the country's produce, and near as much more from Germany, Holland, England, Spain, and ſome other parts of France, ſo that only in the city of Amiens are made about 129800 pieces of ſtuffs, and fifty thouſand pieces in the neighbourhood, which are called foreign ſtuffs, as they are made out of the city; and of the aforeſaid wool, the camblet-makers alone take off eighty-thouſand pounds.

The cities of the greateſt trade in Picardy, next to Amiens, are Beauvais and Abbeville; beſides which there are many villages and towns, as Tilloy, Fienville, Naſurs, Beauchamps, Gravilliers, Feuguieres, Aumamale, Anvoille, Glatigny, and Seules; in all which places are only made ſerges of many ſorts and qualities, and what in French is called Tiretaines, which we take to be here meant a linſey woolſey; Mou and Crevecœur, give a name to ſome of the former made there, as Tricot and eleven villages of its juriſdiction does to other kinds of ſerges of their fabrication.

The fineſt woollen thread ſpun in Picardy is that of Amiens, where the ſpinning employs a great number of hands, and conſumes a large quantity of wool both of the country's growth and Spaniſh, which is uſed for making of caps and cloths here and in the woollen manufactures of Paris, Elbeuf and Rouen. The quantity of hemp and flax gathered in this province is likewiſe very great, ſo that the linen trade here equals that of the woollen; and St. Quintin is where the greateſt ſales are tranſacted, which may amount

to forty thouſand pieces in a common year; after St. Quintin is Peronne, and then Neſle; the different ſpecies made in theſe three places being ſeveral ſorts of cambrics (from ten to a hundred livres a piece) lawns, gauzes, hollands, printed calicoes, &c.

The fabrick of ſoft ſoap at Amiens is ſo conſiderable, as to produce yearly ten thouſand quintals, and at Beauvais tapeſtry is made, and in its neighbourhood is carried on a large buſineſs in caps, thread, and black ſilk, lace gimps, &c.

In Amiens are at leaſt two thouſand looms conſtantly employed, and in its neighbourhood eleven fulling mills, turned by water, whoſe quality is not leſs excellent for dying than it is for cleanſing the woollens, which of this place alone ſell for upwards of 1,600,000 livres. The linens of Pignigny, Oreſmaux, and Flixcourt, are better than thoſe of Amiens, of which about two hundred pieces are made and ſold weekly.

Mr. Savary ſays, that the cloths of Abbeville are ſo like to thoſe of England and Holland, as to render a deciſion in favour of either very difficult; but either the fabricks are grown worſe ſince his time (the contrary of which we are very well aſſured of) or elſe he is guilty of a noted partiality to his countrymen; for though we will allow the cloth that is made there to be good, yet the yarn is neither ſo fine ſpun, nor ſo well and cloſely wove as here in England, neither will it wear ſo long, and much ſooner grows bare and ſhabby; this experience has taught ſome of our countrymen, who have for many years ſeen the wear of them, and more than once examined many of the fineſt pieces on the ſpot. It is ſaid here are above an hundred looms, that employ upwards of fifteen hundred ſpinners, beſides as great a number of weavers, cloth-workers, fullers, dyers, and ſuch like artiſts, neceſſary to the perfecting the cloths, and the produce of them is computed to be at leaſt five hundred thouſand livres yearly. Beſides cloth, there is made at Abbeville, Barragon ſerges, druggets, &c. to the amount of about an hundred thouſand livres, and of ſtuffs made out of the city, though in its neighbourhood, two hundred thouſand livres; and *extra* of theſe commodities, many others are the products of Abbeville, as pluſh, caffoy, ticking, coarſe linen for package, &c. to the value of about 150,000 livres. *See* ABBEVILLE.

St. Quintin has no woollen manufacture, though near one hundred thouſand pounds of wool are collected in its diſtrict; it however has a large fabrick of linen, inſomuch, that forty thouſand pieces are made or ſold here yearly, to the value of 2,000,000 livres; being cambricks, lawns, hollands, and ſeveral other ſorts of linens, which are likewiſe made in great abundance in many parts of this province, whoſe inhabitants are almoſt totally employed in the linen and woollen way, as they have a large ſhare of the materials in their own territories, which produces them 524000 pounds of wool, and plenty of flax of a very rich quality.

PICCAGE, money paid in fairs, to the lord of the ſoil, for breaking of the ground, to ſet up booths or ſtalls.

PICKLE, a liquor commonly made of ſalt, water, or vinegar, &c. and ſometimes with the addition of ſpices, wherein meats, fruits, &c. are preſerved and ſeaſoned. It alſo denotes the fruit, root, &c. prepared therein.

PICOL, is a weight uſed in China for ſilk, containing only ſixty-three three-fourths catis, ſo that three of theſe picols make as much as the bahar of Malacca, that is two hundred catis. It is alſo a weight uſed in many places of the Continent, and the Weſt-Indian iſles, weighing near twenty Dutch pounds. *See* PIC.

PICTURES. A duty on the importation of them. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 2. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 5. Made perpetual, 7 *Ann. c.* 7. The duty regulated by meaſure, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 49. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 12.

PICTURE-FRAME-MAKER. This buſineſs requires little genius, and neither much learning, nor any great degree of ſtrength. The maſters keep ſhop, and make ſquare frames for prints; thoſe that are round, or oval, being made by the turner. Theſe frames they either make with a black moulding, a bead of gold, or ſome other ſlight carving, and gilding. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get about fifteen ſhillings a week, or with fifty pounds become maſter. For the picture-frame-makers, who work for the portrait painters, *ſee* the article GLASS and PICTURE-FRAME-MAKER.

PIECE, in commerce, ſometimes denotes a whole, and ſometimes only a part of the whole.

*Piece, in matters of money*, is ſometimes the ſame thing with ſpecies, and ſometimes it denotes ſuch as have no other particular name.

In England, piece ſometimes is uſed for twenty ſhillings, and ſometimes for a guinea. By 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. broad-pieces of twenty-five, or twenty-three ſhillings value, their halves and quarters are called in; and all perſons forbid to receive or utter them in tale.

*Piece of eight, rial of eight, or piaſtre*, a ſilver money firſt ſtruck in Spain, afterwards in other countries, and now current almoſt every where. It is equal to eight ſilver rials.

Its value is nearly the ſame with the late French crown, or four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling.

There are two kinds of piaſtres, or Spaniſh crowns, the one ſtruck at Potoſi, the other at Mexico; the latter are a little heavier than the former, but not quite ſo fine.

The piece of eight is divided into halves, quarters, half-quarters, and ſixteenths. The exchange between England and Spain is in pieces of eight.

*Piece*, is alſo a kind of money of account uſed among the negroes on the coaſt of Angola in Africa.

PIECE-BROKER. This, like all other buſineſſes that merely conſiſt of buying and ſelling, requires neither any extraordinary genius nor learning. They keep ſhop, and buy ſhreds and remnants of cloth of the taylors, which they ſell again, to ſuch as want them for mending, &c. They do not uſually take apprentices, nor are they regularly bred to the buſineſs: they are generally decayed taylors, or ſome cunning men, who have crept into the ſecret of this profitable, and very often diſhoneſt trade.

PIEDMONT, a principality in Italy, ſo called from its lying at the foot of the Alps. A very conſiderable branch of the Italian trade is carried on in this part of his Sardinian majeſty's territories. Turin is its capital, and has an advantageous ſituation for extending trade on every ſide, as almoſt all that comes from the other parts of Italy, and that which enters it by way of Lyons, and Geneva, paſs by this city; the Po, which runs near it, alſo facilitates a communication with Lombardy and the Venetian ſtates; and although it is neceſſary to traverſe the Alps to get there, nothing is eaſier than the journey by mules, which are made uſe of for the tranſportation of the goods, and of men, who give all deſirable aſſiſtance for the paſſage of mount Cenis.

Piedmont produces the beſt ſilk in Europe, on account of its lightneſs and fineneſs, and the organcins made of it, are the moſt eſteemed, in England, France, Holland, and Germany, of any. It is reckoned that in a common year, is made in the king of Sardinia's territories, viz. in Piedmont, Montferrat, Alexandrin, Lomeline and Novaros, about 560000 pounds (of twelve ounces) of raw ſilk, which are all reduced into organcins or ſtrames; only thoſe of Navarois being permitted extraction unthrown.

The fabricks of all ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, long ſince eſtabliſhed in Turin, conſumed about 130000 pounds of thrown ſilk yearly; though it is to be obſerved that the fabricators of theſe ſilks, import from their neighbours, the greateſt part of the ſtrames they uſe, or of raw ſilk to make them.

There is beſides in Turin, about ſix hundred or ſeven hundred looms for ſilk ſtockings; for whoſe employ a great quantity of ſilk is required; however it is computed, that beſides the ſilk uſed in all theſe manufactures, there is yearly ſent to Lyons, about two thouſand ſmall bales (of an hundred and thirty-ſix pounds each) loaded at Genoa and Leghorn; *extra* of what is ſent to Holland and Germany, by way of Savoy, and Geneva.

This prince's dominions have likewiſe ſeveral fabricks of drapery, particularly, of ſcarlet, blue, and black cloths; beſides diverſe ſorts of light ſtuffs; they alſo make ratines, and coarſe cloth for the ſoldiers cloathing.

Piedmont is very fertile in corn, with which it ſuplies its neighbours, as it does with rice; of which latter, large quantities are ſent to France and Geneva, as alſo to Venice by the river Po.

Hemp likewiſe grows here in plenty, which is almoſt all ſent through Nice to Marſeilles and Toulon, except a ſmall ſhare to the Genoeſe.

A great number of cattle are fatted in Piedmont, and abundance

abundance of wine made, both which find a ready ſale among the Genoeſe and Milaneſe, and a large ſhare of this latter is diſtilled into brandy, to make the compoſition of Roſſolis at Turin, which has greatly the preference of others.

Some few years ago, a manufacture of earthen ware was eſtabliſhed at Turin, and a little while ſince, another of porcelane, which is brought to great perfection; ſeveral quarries of excellent marble are found diſperſed about the country, which ſerves to ornament both their churches and palaces.

The countries of Nice, Oneille, and other places on the ſea coaſt, ſubject alſo to his Sardinian majeſty, produce moſt excellent olive oil, and in ſuch plenty, that beſides a ſufficiency for all his dominions, large quantities are ſold to the French and Genoeſe. And the iſland of Sardinia, which gives him the title of majeſty, produces many of the commodities above-mentioned, and ſimilar to thoſe of Sicily.

PIE-POWDER COURT, is a court held in fairs, to adminiſter juſtice to buyers and ſellers, and for redreſs of all diſorders committed in them; and ſo called, becauſe they moſt uſually are in ſummer, and the ſuitors commonly are country people with duſty feet; or from the expedition intended, in the hearing of cauſes proper thereunto, before the duſt goes off the plaintiff's or defendant's feet; it is held *de hora in horam*.

*Shene de verbor. ſignif. verbo pede-pulveroſus*, ſays, the word ſignifies a vagabond; eſpecially a pedlar, which hath no place of dwelling, and therefore muſt have juſtice ſummarily adminiſtered to him, viz. within three ebbings and three flowings of the ſea. This, among our old Saxons, was called *ceapung-genuet*, i. e. a court for merchandize, or handling matters of buying and ſelling. It is mentioned in *Doctor and Student*, *cap.* 5. who tells us it is a court incident to fairs and markets, to be held only during the time that the fairs are kept. *See* FAIRS.

PIG *of lead*, the eighth part of a fother, amounting to about two hundred and fifty pounds weight.

PIKE, in commerce, as treating at the pike or pike's end *a la pique*, denotes a kind of traffic, which the Europeans hold with certain ſavage nations of Canada, and ſome negroes, on the coaſt of Africa, wherein they are to keep on their guard, and, as it were, ſword in hand: or, it may denote a kind of prohibited traffic which the Engliſh, French, and Dutch maintain in ſeveral parts of the Weſt-Indies, with their veſſels at anchor, waiting for the Spaniſh merchants, who come to exchange their gold, cochineal, &c. for European commodities: or, it may denote the diſtance ſtrangers are obliged to keep at.

PILCHARD. *See* FISHERY.

PILE, *pila*, in coinage, a kind of puncheon, which, in the old way of coining with the hammer, contained the arms, croſs, or other inſcription, to be ſtruck for the reverſe of the ſpecies. Accordingly, we ſtill call the arms ſide of a piece of money, the *pile*; and the head, the *croſs*; becauſe, in the ancient monies, a croſs uſually took up the place of the head in ours.

PILL, *pilula*, in pharmacy, a form of medicine, taken dry, reſembling a little ball, principally deſigned for ſuch things as are too nauſeous to be taken any other way.

Pills are of various kinds, but chiefly cathartic; their baſis is uſually aloes, with which are mixed agaric, turbith, ſenna, rhubarb, mercury, &c. They are ordinarily wrapped up in leaf-gold, ſugar, &c. to prevent the ill taſte from being perceived.

*Perpetual pills*, *pilulæ perpetuæ*, are made of regulus of antimony; they are ſo called, becauſe, when ſwallowed and voided fifty times, they will purge every time with the ſame efficacy.

*Aleophangine, or aromatic pills of Meſue*, made of aloes, ſcammony, troches of alhaudal and ſaffron. They are called polychreſtæ, as being ſuppoſed to collect the humours from all parts, and enable nature to caſt them out more eaſily.

*Bechic pills*, a ſort of pills good againſt coughs, ſo called from the Greek βὴξ, a cough: they are alſo called *hypoglottides*, becauſe left to diſſolve under the tongue.

PILOTS, *lodeſmen*, or *locmen*. By theſe different denominations are ſignified the ſame office, which is to conduct any veſſel or ſhip into a road or harbour, over bars or ſands, or through intricate and dangerous channels, being occaſionally called in to the maſter's aſſiſtance when ſailing as above, or by unknown ſhores, and diffident of his own ſkill and judgment; though in many parts, where the approach or entrance to harbours, &c. are hazardous and difficult, the taking a pilot is not a voluntary act, but obligatory on the maſter, otherwiſe, in caſe of a loſs, he muſt make it good; and the following laws are now in force concerning them, here in England.

By 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1. if any perſon ſhall take upon him to conduct or pilot any ſhip, by or from Dover, Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, to any place on the river Thames or Medway, before he has been firſt examined, by the maſter and wardens of the ſociety or fellowſhip of pilots of the Trinity-houſe of Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, touching his ability, and approved and admitted into the ſaid ſociety, at a court of loadmanage, by the lord warden of the Cinque Ports, or his deputy, and the maſter and wardens; ſuch perſon, for the firſt offence, ſhall forfeit ten pounds; for the ſecond, twenty pounds; and for every other offence, forty pounds, &c.

*Sect.* 2. This act ſhall not prevent the maſter or mate of any ſhip, or part owner, reſiding at Dover, Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, from piloting his own ſhip; nor ſubject any perſons to the penalties, who ſhall be hired by any maſter to pilot his veſſel; provided none of the ſociety, within one hour after ſuch ſhip ſhall arrive at any of the ſaid places, be ready to pilot the ſame.

*Sect.* 3. Maſters of merchant-ſhips may make choice of ſuch pilot of the ſociety, as they ſhall think fit; and no perſon ſhall continue in the ſociety, who ſhall not pilot a ſhip, at leaſt twice in one year (unleſs prevented by ſickneſs) to, and from, the places above-mentioned.

*Sect.* 4. For conducting any ſhip from Dover, Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, to any places on the river Thames and Medway, the following, and no greater prices ſhall be taken, viz. For every ſhip drawing ſeven feet water, three pounds ten ſhillings; eight feet, four pounds; nine feet, four pounds ten ſhillings; ten feet, five pounds; eleven feet, five pounds ten ſhillings; twelve feet, ſix pounds; thirteen feet, ſix pounds ten ſhillings; fourteen feet, ſeven pounds; fifteen feet, ſeven pounds ten ſhillings; ſixteen feet, eight pounds; ſeventeen feet, eight pounds ten ſhillings; and no allowance to be made for odd inches.

*Sect.* 5. If any pilot ſhall negligently loſe the ſhip under his care, and be thereof convicted, he ſhall for ever after be incapacitated from acting as a pilot; and the number of ſuch pilots ſhall not be leſs than a hundred and twenty, whoſe names, ages, and places of abode, ſhall, every 25th of March, be affixed in ſome public place at the Cuſtom-houſes at London and Dover: and for not returning ſuch liſt, the maſter and wardens of the ſociety ſhall forfeit ten pounds, &c.

*Sect.* 7. This act ſhall not hinder any perſon from aſſiſting a ſhip in diſtreſs.

*Sect.* 8. The maſter and ſuch two wardens of the ſociety, as ſhall be appointed to examine any perſon on his being admitted a pilot, ſhall take the following oath, to be given by the regiſter of the court of loadmanage, viz.

" I, A. B. do ſwear, that I will impartially examine, and enquire into the capacity and ſkill of in the art of pilotage over the Flats, and round the Long Sand Head, and the coaſts of Flanders and Holland, and will make true and ſpeedy return thereof to the lord warden of the Cinque Ports, for the time being, or his deputy, without favour, affection, fee, or reward.

So help me God."

*Sect.* 9. This act ſhall not extend to the taking away any liberties veſted in the corporation of the Trinity-houſe of Deptford Strond.

*Sect.* 10. This act ſhall be a public act.

*Sect.* 11. This act ſhall continue ſeven years, &c.

Continued by 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. to 25 March, 1749, &c. Further continued until 25 March, 1764; and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, by 23 *Geo.* II. *p.* 485.

By 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 14. the lord warden of the Cinque Ports, or his deputy, with the aſſent of the commiſſioners of loadmanage, and of the maſter and wardens of the ſociety

ciety of pilots of the Trinity-houſe of the Cinque Ports, at a court of loadmanage, may, during the continuance of 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. make rules and orders for the better government and regulation of the pilots reſiding at Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, and may order a ſufficient number of them, not leſs than eighteen, to ply conſtantly at ſea, to be ready to conduct ſhips up the rivers of Thames and Medway; and the lord warden, &c. at a court of loadmanage, may ſuſpend or deprive any of the ſaid pilots, for breaking the ſaid rules or orders; and if any pilot, during ſuch ſuſpenſion or deprivation, ſhall take upon himſelf to conduct any ſhip, by, or from Dover, Deal, or the iſle of Thanet, to any place upon the river Thames or Medway, he ſhall be liable to all penalties provided by the ſaid act againſt ſuch perſons as ſhall conduct ſhips from and to the places aforeſaid, without being firſt examined and approved of by the maſter and wardens of the ſaid ſociety.

Continued as the preceding act of 3 *Geo.* I. *c*, 13. by 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. to 25 March, 1749. And farther continued to 25 March, 1764, by 23 *Geo.* II. *p.* 485.

By 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 1. if any perſon ſhall take the charge of any ſhip as pilot, down the river of Thames, or through the North Channel, to, or by Orfordneſs, or round the Long Sand Heads into the Downs, or down the South Channel into the Downs, or from, or by Orfordneſs upon the North Channel, or the river of Thames, or the river Medway, other than ſuch as ſhall be licenſed to act as a pilot, by the maſter, wardens and aſſiſtants of of the Trinity-houſe of Deptford Strond, under the common ſeal of the corporation; every perſon ſo offending, and being convicted before two juſtices of the peace for the city of London, or the counties of Middleſex, Eſſex, Kent, or Surry, ſhall, for every offence, forfeit twenty pounds, provided that nothing in this act ſhall extend to the obliging any maſter of any ſhip in the coal trade, or other coaſting trade, to employ a pilot.

*Sect.* 8. The pilots already admitted by the ſaid corporation ſhall be ſubject to the regulations of the corporation, provided the regulations do not relate to the pilots keeping of turns, or to the ſettling the rates of pilotage; and ſhall pay the ancient dues, provided the ſame do not exceed one ſhilling in the pound, out of their pilotage, for the uſe of the poor of the corporation, within ten days after the ſervice of ſuch pilots ſhall be ended.

*Sect.* 9. In caſe ſuch pilots ſhall refuſe to take the charge of any of his majeſty's ſhips, when appointed thereto by the ſaid corporation, or ſhall have miſbehaved themſelves in the conduct of any ſhips, or in any other part of their duty; or if pilots ſhall refuſe to obey any ſummons of the corporation, or ſuch orders as the corporation ſhall make in the premiſes, the general court of the ſaid corporation, upon examination thereof, are required to recall the warrants granted to ſuch pilots; and if ſuch perſon ſhall (after notice given by the clerk of the ſaid corporation to them in perſon, or left at their place of abode) act as pilots within the limits afore-mentioned, they ſhall be ſubject to all the penalties inflicted on unlicenſed pilots.

*Sect.* 11. Nothing in this act ſhall extend to the impeaching of any privileges enjoyed by the pilots of the Trinity-houſe of Kingſton upon Hull, or the Trinity-houſe of Newcaſtle upon Tyne.

*Sect.* 12. This act ſhall not extend to the impeaching any of the franchiſes, nor to take away the ſole right of piloting merchant-ſhips from or by Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, upon the rivers Thames and Medway, granted to the ſociety and fellowſhip of the maſter, wardens, and pilots of the Trinity-houſe of Dover, Deal, and the iſle of Thanet, by 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13.

*Sect.* 13. This act ſhall be a public act, &c.

In France, no one can ſerve as a pilot until he is at leaſt twenty-five years old, and has paſſed a ſtrict examination of his knowledge in the fabric of ſhips, and concerning the tides, banks, currents, the rocks, and other dangerous parts, in the rivers, ports, and havens, where they are eſtabliſhed.

They are obliged, after they are approved and admitted, always to have their boats furniſhed with anchors and with oars, that they may always be in a condition to ſuccour ſhips on their firſt ſignal.

No mariner, that is not admitted a pilot, as above, ſhall offer to conduct any veſſel, except where a licenſed pilot is wanting; and, in this caſe, the maſter of the ſhip may take a fiſherman, though this muſt quit the care of the veſſel to a regular pilot, in caſe ſuch a one offers, before they have paſſed the dangerous parts, and a ſatisfaction ſhall be made the fiſherman for his aſſiſtance out of what would have been due to the pilot, had he taken charge of her from the beginning.

If any pilot is drunk when he offers to engage in his function, he ſhall forfeit one hundred ſols, and be ſuſpended for a month.

Ships that are neareſt are to be piloted firſt, under penalty of twenty-five livres to the pilot, who ſhall prefer one that is more diſtant; and they are equally prohibited to go farther than the roads to meet the ſhips, or to enter them againſt the maſter's liking; or to quit them until they are anchored and moored in port; and, if it is in going out, not until the ſhip is in open ſea, on penalty of loſing their ſtipend, and being mulcted in thirty livres.

For the veſſel's ſecurity, and the pilot's diſcharge, the maſter ſhall declare what water the ſhip draws, on pain of forfeiting to the pilot twenty-five livres for every foot he conceals.

Pilots muſt not exact more for their aſſiſtance than what is regulated by their officers, and contained in the tariffs in the regiſter-office, and fixed upon the key, excepting in caſes of ſtorms, and evident danger, when it ſhall be ſettled by the arbitration of the ordinary officers, with the intervention and advice of two merchants.

The marine ordinances declare all promiſes void, that are made to pilots under the apprehenſion of a ſhipwreck.

The pilot, who through ignorance ſtrands a veſſel, ſhall be whipt, and for ever deprived of exerciſing his function again. And he who malicioufly runs a ſhip aſhore, ſhall ſuffer death, and his corpſe be fixed to a maſt near the place of the wreck.

It is likewiſe the obligation of the pilots to ſee that the buoys and ſea-marks are well placed, and to examine whether there be no alteration in the ordinary depths and paſſages, that they may give advice to their officers, or to the maſter of the key or port.

As for the port, it is free to all maſters and captains, as well French as foreigners, to take thoſe pilots they like beſt, without being obliged, at their going out, to make uſe of thoſe that brought them in.

In Holland, the regulation of pilots is ſuitable to the other marine inſtitutions of that ſage republic, from whence thoſe of moſt other European nations are copied, and as the pilot's pay varies in the different provinces of that ſtate, and our extenſive commerce with it renders a continual uſe of them neceſſary, we ſhall give our readers an account of that part of their laws which we think may be of ſervice, and merit their regard, in as brief a manner as the importance of the ſubject to all that are, or may be, concerned in the Dutch trade, will permit, without curtailing any thing requiſite for their information.

The ſtates of Holland and Weſt-Friſe, in their ordinance about the pilots of Huyſduynen, Petten, Calans-oog, Texel, and the neighbouring parts, order that

No one ſhall be admitted as a pilot who is not ſtrong and robuſt; not leſs than twenty-five, or above ſixty years of age, who ſhall have ſailed at leaſt four years in the openings of that country, and have an entire knowledge of the currents of the Texel, and he ſhall then have a mark given him of his admittance.

To evitate all diſputes, the governors or ſteerſmen of the pilot boats may put aboard the veſſel that wants one, ſuch ſworn pilot as he thinks moſt capable, without any hindrance from the others, under penalty of ſix florins, except the maſter elects any other than him propoſed.

No other pilots but thoſe who have been examined and authorized aforeſaid, and have received the badge of their office (which they are to ſhew, as well as this preſent ordinance to all commanders before they undertake to conduct them either in or out, under penalty of forfeiting twenty-four florins for each offence) ſhall dare to undertake the charge of any ſhip going out or coming in, &c.

The pilots are obliged to conduct the ſhips, as far as on this ſide the Vlaak, and if the captains deſire to be piloted farther, the pilots may not refuſe, though thereby they are detained one, two, or three days extraordinary aboard, they ſhall have ſix florins beſides their common pay, if the

ſhip is only in ballaſt, or nine florins, if ſhe is loaded, provided that all foreign ſhips, (excepting only thoſe which bring oxen) pay nine florins, if empty, and thirteen florins ten ſols, if laden; and, if a pilot remains aboard more than the ſaid three days, he ſhall have forty ſols a day, beſides his ordinary ſalary, the ſame as the pilots of Vlieland and of Terſchelling have, according to the fifth article of their ordinance; but when, in winter, a pilot has conducted a ſhip into a good road, free from the danger of the ice, and remains there two or three days, the pilotage is earned, and it ſhall be free to the captain to detain the pilot on board, paying him forty ſols *per* day. If it happens that a pilot, having conducted the veſſel on this ſide the Vaalk, and the maſter cannot pay him, either for want of money, or otherwiſe, ſo that the pilot is obliged to come up with the ſhip to the place deſigned, the maſter ſhall give him twelve florins beſides his pilotage, and may for this make uſe of him until their arrival; but, if the pilot is accidentally detained through want of a boat, &c. to put him aſhore, in ſuch caſe, the maſter is not obliged to pay him any more than his pilotage.

All pilots ſhall be obliged to board the ſhips at a league without the Shallows, or Flats, and thoſe which ſhall not enter them but on this ſide the firſt buoy, ſhall only have half pilotage.

All ſhips and gallies that come from the Weſt, from the Levant, from Barbary, Genoa, the Canaries, from Spain, France, England, Muſcovy, Groenland, Denmark, Sweden, Coningſberg, Dantzick, Bergen, Dronthiem, Nileus, Hambourg, and other places in their neighbourhood, as alſo the galliots, or other veſſels, loaden with charcoal, of whatſoever nation they are, as well foreigners as natives, who will enter the Texel, ſhall be obliged to take pilots, and to pay them on the footing of the preſent ordinance, when they come to offer themſelves without the buoys, provided that the veſſels from the North ſhall pay twenty-four ſols the foot to Nieuws Diep, and twenty-four ſols the foot to this ſide of the Vlaak, and that they are free in the road of the merchants, or koopwarders reede. The veſſels coming from Normer, Dronthiem, and Romſdaal, with bale goods, iron, fiſh, oil, and other commodities, ſhall pay as much as thoſe from the Baltick, without exception; but the galliots or ſmacks coming from l'Eyder, Jutland, or Norway, either in ballaſt, or loaden with cattle, ſhall pay fifteen ſols the foot, if the pilots go aboard them beyond the openings, and the pilots may leave them when they have conducted them into the road of the merchants; but if a pilot quits his ſhip before bringing her into the ſaid roads, he ſhall forfeit twelve florins; and, if the captain will be piloted on this ſide the Vlaak, he ſhall augment the pilot's ſalary five ſols *per* foot, paying twenty ſols inſtead of fifteen. And if the captain refuſes to pay the pilot, this latter may follow him to his deſtined port, to recover his ſalary, and the charges occaſioned him, for which charges he ſhall be allowed twelve florins; the veſſels which have a third of their loading, ſhall pay as is ordered in the twenty-fourth article, and all that is taken in with the tackle, or that is loaden in a ſhip from hand to hand, whether it be oils, bales, ſacks, caſks, lead, &c. ſhall be reputed merchandize, except all ſorts of wood, which ſhall not be eſteemed ſuch.

The pilot ſhall be obliged to go and come once a month through the openings, to ſound the depths exactly, to viſit the banks and ſhores, and nicely to examine the buoys and their ropes, to ſee that they are not worn out, and whether the ſhallows are any thing altered, which they ſhall alſo be obliged to do, as often as there ſhall happen tempeſtuous bad weather; and, if they perceive any change in the ſhallows, banks, or elſewhere, they ſhall be obliged immediately to declare it to the lords commiſſioners, that they may immediately remedy it.

And if it happens that the pilot runs the ſhip aſhore, whether through villainy, diſaſter, inadvertency, or imprudence, the commiſſioners ſhall take cognizance of it, and puniſh him according to the exigence of the caſe, either by ſuſpenſion, diſcharging, baniſhing, or by a greater puniſhment, even with death; but if it happens through an extraordinary caſualty, as by an unforeſeen miſchance of a ſudden change of wind, or of the current, or other ſimilar accidents, the penalty ſhall be moderated by the commiſſioners, as they ſhall think juſt; ordering to this effect the reſpective officers to inform themſelves exactly of what has paſſed, and to ſend their declarations to the commiſſioners, as alſo, if the caſe require it, to ſeize the pilot, and proceed againſt him, according to what he has done.

Ships or other veſſels ſhall pay for piloting out, viz.

Thoſe that draw { 10 feet water 8 ſous / 11 ditto 9 ditto / 12 ditto 10 ditto } the foot.

And thoſe that draw above twelve feet water ſhall pay twelve ſols the foot.

And in caſe of refuſing payment, the pilot, on the ſhip's return, may purſue the captain to the place he is bound to, to recover his due, with charges, for which he ſhall be allowed twelve florins; but the veſſels going to the North are excluded; and thoſe which have a third or more of their cargo, ſhall pay pilotage as follows:

*Thoſe that draw from*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 7 to 8 feet water | F. 6 | 14½ feet water | F. 18 |
| 8½ | 6 10 | 15 | 20 |
| 9 | 7 | 15½ | 22 10 |
| 9½ | 7 10 | 16 | 25 |
| 10 | 8 | 16½ | 27 10 |
| 10½ | 9 | 17 | 30 |
| 11 | 10 | 17½ | 35 |
| 11½ | 11 | 18 | 40 |
| 12 | 12 | 18½ | 44 |
| 12½ | 13 | 19 | 48 |
| 13 | 14 | 19½ | 53 |
| 13½ | 15 | 20 | 58 |
| 14 | 16 | | |

thoſe that draw more feet water ſhall pay for every ſurplus foot twelve florins, and ſix florins for each half foot, but nothing for the quarter of a foot.

And every pilot ſhall be obliged to abide aboard till the ſhip is got without, and ſhall not undertake to carry out another till he has conducted the firſt into open ſea, on penalty of twelve florins, mulct, and ſuſpenſion for twelve weeks; and, when the wind is fair for getting out, the pilot's boat muſt not take any one to carry aboard, but the captain of the ſhip which the pilot is going to take under his care, on forfeiture of eight florins; but if it happens that ſome other captains go in the ſame boat; they ſhall be obliged each of them to carry a pilot with them, to conduct their ſhips abroad, if they do not declare that their pilot is left aboard, and tell their name and ſurname, on penalty to the boatman or pilot who undertakes it, (be it through malice, ignorance, or contempt of the laws) of nine florins, for each captain that he has carried aboard without a pilot, and ſhall be obliged, on his return aſhore, to declare to the officer the names of the captains that he has carried aboard, and that of the pilots, as above, on penalty of eighteen florins.

When the pilots arrive on board, they ſhall immediately demand of the captain or mate how much water the ſhip draws, which they ſhall be obliged to declare without reſerve, on pain of forfeiting ſixteen florins.

The following pilotage ſhall be paid for the entrance of ſhips, according to the feet they draw of water, counting by feet and half-feet, which the captains ſhall be obliged to pay, except thoſe which come from the North, as in the ninth article, viz. in ſummer, to commence from the firſt of April to the firſt of September, to be counted from the day that the ſhip paſſes the Vlaak, and not from the day that ſhe ſhall be got in.

*For every ſhip that draws*

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 7, 8, 9, to 10 feet wat. | F. 12 | 15½ feet wat. | F. 36 |
| 10½ | 13 10 | 16 | 40 |
| 11 | 15 | 16½ | 47 10 |
| 11½ | 16 10 | 17 | 55 |
| 12 | 18 | 17½ | 63 10 |
| 12½ | 19 | 18 | 72 |
| 13 | 20 | 18½ | 81 |
| 13½ | 23 | 19 | 90 |
| 14 | 26 | 19½ | 100 |
| 14½ | 29 | 20 | 110 |
| 15 | 32 | | |

*In winter, to begin from the firſt of September to the laſt day of March.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7, 8, 9, to 10 feet wat. | F. 18 | | 15½ feet wat. | F. 48 | 10 |
| 10½ | 19 | 10 | 16 | 54 | |
| 11 | 21 | | 16½ | 63 | |
| 11½ | 22 | 10 | 17 | 72 | |
| 12 | 24 | | 17½ | 82 | |
| 12½ | 26 | | 18 | 92 | |
| 13 | 28 | | 18½ | 103 | 10 |
| 13½ | 31 | | 19 | 115 | |
| 14 | 34 | | 19½ | 127 | 10 |
| 14½ | 38 | 10 | 20 | 140 | |
| 15 | 43 | | | | |

And every veſſel that draws more than twenty feet water, ſhall pay for every foot over twenty-five florins, tho' only feet and half-feet ſhall be paid for, without reckoning any thing for the quarter of a foot, under penalty of twenty florins.

All veſſels coming from the Levant, Barbary, the Canaries, from Spain, France, England, Muſcovy, and all other parts, as in the ninth article with a third, or more, of their loading, ſhall be deemed as full, and ſhall pay three florins inſtead of two, provided that the reſt of their cargo conſiſts only in ſalt, or in common goods; and the veſſels which ſhall not have a third of their loading, ſhall pay according to the preceding regulations, made in this ordinance.

*All ſhips coming from Guinea ſhall pay.*

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Drawing 8 feet wat. | F. 20 | | 14½ feet wat. | F. 58 | |
| 8½ | 21 | 10 | 15 | 65 | |
| 9 | 23 | | 15½ | 73 | |
| 9½ | 25 | | 16 | 81 | |
| 10 | 27 | | 16½ | 94 | 10 |
| 10½ | 29 | 10 | 17 | 108 | |
| 11 | 32 | | 17½ | 123 | |
| 11½ | 34 | | 18 | 138 | |
| 12 | 36 | | 18½ | 155 | |
| 12½ | 39 | | 19 | 172 | |
| 13 | 42 | | 19½ | 191 | |
| 13½ | 46 | 10 | 20 | 110 | |
| 14 | 51 | | | | |

This being the tax of pilotage during winter; and ſhips coming from America, from Brazil, or the neighbouring coaſts, half loaden, ſhall pay as thoſe which come from Guinea; but thoſe which ſhall come from America, or from the Streights with ſalt, ſhall only pay as other ſhips loaden with ſalt, according to the preſent ordinance.

Provided, that the pilots who ſhall bring in any ſhips in a great ſtorm, or ſuch as are without anchors, maſts, cables, or rudder, ſhall have, beſides their ordinary hire, as much as the commiſſary, or the arbitrators, which he ſhall have eſtabliſhed, think proper to adjudge.

And all pilots ſhall be likewiſe obliged to carry all ſhips and captains out to ſea, whenever they are required, and this on reaſonable terms; and no pilot ſhall undertake to carry out more than one ſhip at a time, under penalty of twenty-five florins, and ſuſpenſion of ſix weeks: neither is it permitted to any pilot, who has undertaken to conduct a ſhip out, to reſign her to another, under pain of ſix florins mulct; but if any ſuch pilot happens to fall ſick, the captain may take any other he pleaſes.

When pilots are to carry out, or bring in ſhips, they cannot oblige captains to take more than one, nor to charge him for any damage that their boat may have ſuffered in going aboard, or before the ſhip, on penalty of twenty-five florins, unleſs that it be by expreſs order of the captain, in which caſe he muſt produce proofs of the ſaid order; in want of which, he ſhall not be allowed more than a common pilotage.

And in caſe that a ſhip appears either by night or by day, without meeting with any pilot, and her company deſire any fiſherman (not admitted to the function) to conduct her in, the fiſherman is obliged to declare to the captain that he is no ſworn pilot: in the mean time he may enter the ſhip, and undertake to bring her in; but, if afterwards, it happens that a pilot comes aboard to offer his ſervice, he ſhall be preferred, and the fiſherman obliged to quit her, except he agrees with the pilot that they ſhare the pilotage between them, which ſhall be at the election of the one and the other.

But if the fiſherman has once brought the ſhip within the firſt buoy, before the ſworn pilot got on board, the fiſherman ſhall not be obliged to abandon her, nor to yield up the moiety of the pilotage.

Item, all ſhips being in danger, their captains may demand and take two pilots, paying a double reward; but, if there remains more than one pilot aboard, without the captain's order, thoſe that remain unordered ſhall have nothing to pretend to but what the captain pleaſes to give them freely, as he ſhall think proper.

When a pilot has brought in a ſhip, and received his ſalary, he ſhall be obliged to give the captain an acquittance, which ſhall contain the number of feet the ſhip draws, and the ſum he has received, which acquittance he ſhall ſign or mark, and the captain ſhall be obliged to demand one, upon which to reimburſe himſelf the pilotage from the merchants, in want whereof theſe latter ſhall not be obligated to pay him any thing; and, beſides this, the captain and the pilot ſhall forfeit ſix florins each.

We forbid every one, whoſoever he be, to inſult, abuſe, or injure any of the pilots admitted and ſworn, either in the ſtreets, at the water-ſide, in the public or private houſes, or to deride them for their employments, on penalty of ſix florins for the firſt time; twelve florins and an arbitrary correction for the ſecond; eighteen florins and baniſhment for two years for the third.

If it happens that any ſhip is forced to enter by the openings to anchor, either by a contrary wind or otherwiſe, and would go out again, ſhe ſhall pay fifteen ſols *per* florin pilotage; but ſuch as would be conducted within the Vlaak, ſhall pay full pilotage; and, if the pilot has brought the ſhip ſafely into the Amelander Diep, either by the captain's order, or conſtrained thereto by bad weather, the pilot ſhall be obliged to remain on board, at the will of the captain, until a proper ſeaſon offers for getting out, and the pilot ſhall have ſix florins, once for all, for his time, beſides his victuals.

If any captain deſires his ſhip to be conducted in the Balg, the pilots ſhall be obliged to carry them for twenty ſols the foot, for which the ſaid pilots are to convey the ſhips as far into the Balg as the captains pleaſe, and as a great number of boats or barges are commonly employed in going before large ſhips, to ſound the coaſt for their ſecurity, there ſhall be paid for each boat, whether they have one or more men in them, the two-thirds of the ſalary of one florin *per* foot, provided the ſaid boats ſhall have a third more, for ſhips laden with merchandize, as in the article twenty-four, the whole, without any diſpute, on penalty of twelve florins, beſides the pilotage; and it is to be underſtood, that when a ſhip in winter, or in the icy ſeaſons, ſhall have been conducted into the Balg, by order or conſent of the captain, or his mate, the pilotage ſhall be earned, and afterwards a half pilotage ſhall be paid for carrying the veſſel from the Balg to the Vlaak.

Ships which return from the Eaſt, from Norway, and the adjacent parts, although they had taken and hired a pilot, on going, even with the conſent of the commiſſary, they ſhall nevertheleſs be obliged, on their arrival before the place, to take another to conduct them through the openings, and to pay him the pilotage upon the footing of this preſent ordinance, the which pilotage ſhall be parted between the two pilots; and him that ſhall have been taken to bring in the ſhip ſhall be free, after he has brought the ſhip in the road of the merchants, or Koopvaarders Reede.

Each pilot boat, or galliot, ſhall carry a white vane or weather-flag at the top of the maſt, in which may plainly be ſeen the number of 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. to the number of boats that there ſhall be, or elſe the number ſhall be marked in large figures of two feet ſquare, with black tar, at the top of each great ſail of the boats: and if a pilot boat paſſes by a ſmall ſhip, without putting a pilot aboard her, with the view of going to a larger, the captain may declare it, and in this caſe all the pilots who ſhall have ſo neglected him, ſhall forfeit twenty-five florins each; and all who ſhall go to ſea without their number marked in their flag, or in their great ſail, ſhall alſo pay twenty-five florins each, and ſhall be ſuſpended ſix weeks; and thoſe who

ſhall have found any one in fault, and not declared it to the officer, ſhall pay the ſame mulct.

The ſtates, at the time of making the foregoing ordinance, for the pilots of Huyſduynen, Petten, Calans oog, Texel, and the adjacent parts, made another for the pilots of Vlieland and Ter Schelling, and the neighbouring territories, differing chiefly from the other in the names of the places, and ſomething in the charge of pilotage, which we ſhall particularly mention.

Every captain of a ſhip that enters by the Vlie, with a pilot of Ter Schelling, ſhall be obliged to pay ſix ſols every time, more than the ordinary pilotage, for the relief of poor and aged pilots.

The pilots ſhall be obliged to go aboard the ſhips at a league beyond the Flats, and thoſe who only embark on this ſide, the firſt, ſecond, third, or fourth buoy, ſhall have no more than fifteen inſtead of twenty ſols *per* foot; and if any pilot, having conducted a ſhip up the Vlaak, and is detained either by bad weather, or the want of a boat to carry him aſhore, in this caſe he ſhall have one florin *per* foot; but if, in winter time, the ſhip is ſtopped by ice, the pilot ſhall endeavour to carry her into the Ruys ou Sloot, and, having ſecured her there, he ſhall remain four days to ſee whether the weather will change, and, if then the ice continues, he has earned his pilotage, and may quit the ſhip, and the captain ſhall pay him three florins for his attendance the four days; and, if the captain will detain him yet longer, he ſhall pay fifteen ſols *per* foot, beſides his proviſions; but if the captain will abſolutely be carried up the Vlaak, the days of pay ſhall ceaſe on heaving up the anchor, and the pilot ſhall be obliged to conduct him for fifteen ſols the foot; and we prohibit all others but ſworn and admitted pilots, to undertake the bringing any ſhip from Piereveld, by the opening of the Vlie, on penalty of twenty-five florins.

All veſſels coming from the Eaſt, Weſt, from Muſcovy, and the adjacent parts, as alſo thoſe from Bergen, Dronthiem, and Nileus, and all charcoal veſſels drawing eight feet water, which will enter by the Vlie, ſhall be obliged to take a pilot to bring them in, although they have taken one at the Sond, or elſewhere, without leaving the captains at liberty to refuſe, or to excuſe paying the pilotage; and in caſe of refuſal, the pilots may follow the captains to the places they are bound to, to recover the pilotage and charge of their journey, which ſhall be ſettled at twelve florins, provided that the galliots, or other ſmall veſſels, which draw no more than four, five, and ſix feet water, ſhall pay to the Sloot twenty-four ſols the foot, and to this ſide of the Vlaak, thirty-four ſols the foot; the ſhips coming from Normer, Dronthiem, or from Romſdaal, loaden with iron, oil, &c. ſhall pay as much as thoſe which come from the Baltic, without exception; but the galliots or other veſſels, which only draw ten feet water, or leſs, coming from l'Eyder, Jutland, or Norway, with their ballaſt of ſalt, or loaden with beeves, ſhall pay fifteen ſols *per* foot, if the pilots enter them without the openings, and conduct them to the Sloot, where they may quit them: but if a pilot leaves a ſhip before he has brought her to the ſaid place, he ſhall forfeit twelve florins; and, if the captain will keep the pilots till on this ſide the Vlaak, they ſhall pay them five ſols for each foot more than the fifteen: and, in regard of loaden ſhips, it ſhall be regulated, according to the ninth article, except for thoſe who are only in ballaſt, or thoſe which are loaded with wood or cattle.

Thoſe veſſels which have one-third of their cargo, ſhall pay pilotage, as directed in art. 16. for the Texel; and thoſe coming from the Eaſt and North, ſhall pay entrance as underneath, according to the feet they draw, to be counted by feet and half-feet; but the galliots or ſmall veſſels coming from the North, which only draw from four to ſix feet, ſhall be exempt, as in the preceding article, viz. in ſummer to commence the firſt of April, provided the veſſel paſſes the Vlaak that day, for afterwards the diſtinction ſhall not be made of the pilotage of the ſummer and winter, but of the day that the ſhip paſſes the Vlaak, and not of the day of her entrance.

*Every ſhip or veſſel which draws*

| | |
|---|---|
| 5, 6, 7, 8, to 9 feet water | F. 12 |
| 9½ | 12 10 |
| 10 | 13 |
| 10½ | 14 And the remainder to 20 |

feet, exactly the ſame as art. 20. in the preceding ordinance.

And for the winter's pilotage to commence from the firſt of September, if the veſſel paſſes the Vlaak that day, till the laſt of March.

*Every ſhip or veſſel which draws*

| | |
|---|---|
| 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, to 9 feet water | F. 18 |
| 9½ | 18 10 |
| 10 | 19 10 |
| 10½ | 20 5 And the reſt as |

far as 20 feet, is the ſame as in art. 21. of the foregoing ordinance.

As are all the other articles which we have omitted here, being only repetitions of the others quoted before, and as moſt of the marine laws in the Northern and other kingdoms where there are any, are taken from their Bataviari neighbours, we ſhall not enlarge further on this ſubject.

PIMENTO is the fruit of a tree which grows in great plenty in Jamaica. It is of a fragrant aromatic ſmell, reſembling a mixture of cinnamon, cloves, and nutmegs. This ſpice yields, on diſtillation with water, a conſiderable portion of a pleaſant, eſſential oil, which, like thoſe obtained from the Eaſtern ſpices, ſinks in water, and deſerves to be introduced as a ſuccadaneum to them, for the great price of theſe oils ſubjects them ſo much to adulteration, that they are rarely to be met with in any tolerable degree of purity or perfection.

PIN, in commerce, a neceſſary implement for women's dreſs, which is very well known.

Pins are now altogether made of braſs wire blanched, which formerly they made of iron wire prepared in the ſame manner; but the ill effects of theſe pins have quite diſcarded their uſe. The pins moſt eſteemed, in commerce, are thoſe of England.

Directions for the good making of them, 34 and 35 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 6. Repeated, 37 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13. Permitted to be imported, 27 *Eliz. c.* 11.

PIN-MAKER. This is an art that requires very little previous learning. The pin-makers of London keep ſhop, and ſome of them carry on a very great trade. The work, for the greater diſpatch, is carried on by different hands; one hand being employed in cutting the braſs wire into proper lengths for the ſize of the pins, a ſecond in making the heads, a third in putting them on, and a fourth in pointing them. Every one of theſe work with ſurprizing ſwiftneſs. Thoſe maſters who work privately, and chiefly for the ſhops, take five or ten pounds with an apprentice; who muſt work from ſix to nine: when out of his time, he may earn in thoſe hours twelve or fourteen ſhillings a week; or with fifty pounds may ſet up maſter. Thoſe who keep ſhop, take twenty pounds with an apprentice, and employ women in ſticking the pins on paper, a ſheet of which holds five hundred: theſe maſters employ five hundred pounds, and ſome of them above a thouſand pounds in trade.

PINK, a veſſel uſed at ſea, maſted and rigged like other ſhips; only that ſhe is built round-ſterned, and her ribs ſo bent as that her ſides bulge out very much.

This diſpoſition renders ſuch veſſels difficult to be boarded, and alſo enables them to carry greater burdens than others; and hence they are often uſed for hoſpital and ſtore ſhips.

PINK, among painters, denotes a ſort of yellow colour.

PINNACE, a ſmall veſſel with a ſquare ſtern, having ſails and oars, and carrying three maſts, chiefly uſed as a ſcout for intelligence and for landing of men. It alſo denotes one of the boats belonging to a man of war that ſerves to carry the officers to and from the ſhore.

PINT, *pinta*, a meaſure for eſtimating liquids chiefly, and ſometimes dry things.

The word is High Dutch, ſignifying a little meaſure of wine.

The Engliſh pint is of two ſorts; the one for wine meaſure, the other for beer and ale meaſure: the wine-pint contains a full pound avoirdupoiſe of common running water; two pints make a quart, two quarts a pottle, two pottles a gallon, &c. The Paris pint is one-ſixth of the ancient congius, and contains two pounds of common water; it is divided into chopines or ſeptiers; the ſeptiers into demi-ſeptiers; the demi-ſeptier into two boiſſons, each of theſe containing ſix cubic inches. The two pints

make

make a quarteau, or pot; and the pint of St. Dennis is almoſt double that of Paris.

PIPE, in the manufactures, a machine much uſed in ſmoaking tobacco; it conſiſts of a long ſlender tube or ſhank which is hollowed, being made of clay baked; at one end is the bowl or furnace for the tobacco, the fumes whereof are drawn out by the mouth through the other end, and ſo diſcharged.

Pipes are made long, ſhort, plain, worked, white, varniſhed, unvarniſhed, of various colours, &c.

The Turks uſe pipes three or four feet long, made of ruches or bored wood, at the end of which is a nut of baked earth for taking off and on.

PIPE, *or* BUTT, alſo denotes a veſſel or meaſure for wine and things meaſured by wine meaſure. It contains two hogſheads, or four barrels, or two hundred and twenty-ſix gallons, and weighs about nine hundred, two quarters, and ſeventeen pounds.

The pipe is only uſed in Anjou and Poictou, where it conſiſts of two boiſſeaux, equal to a muid and a half of Paris.

PIRATES, *or* SEA-ROVERS. A pirate is a ſea-thief, or an enemy to human kind, who aims at enriching himſelf by marine robberies, committed either by force, fraud, or ſurprize, on merchants or other traders at ſea, and the hiſtories of them are filled with the barbarities they have committed on ſuch occaſions, and the ſevere uſuage they have given to thoſe who have been ſo unhappy as to fall into their hands.

They confine themſelves to no place, nor have any ſettled reſidence, but are rovers at large, though they generally cruize, where moſt likely to meet with prey, and in parts where they have the greateſt probability of finding ſupplies, and which afford the beſt ports for their ſafety: and as all theſe circumſtances unite in America, that part of the world has been moſt peſtered with them; and they being enemies to all, all ought to be enemies to them, and no faith is to be kept with villains, who deſpiſe both the laws of God and man; they juſtly forfeit the protection of their natural ſovereign, and any prince hath power to make war againſt, and deſtroy them, though not ſubject to his government.

Pirates, though called enemies, are yet improperly termed ſo, as they are no commonwealth, nor live by ſettled laws; but rules founded on iniquity, and which they frequently break through, to the deſtruction of one another; that ſuperiority which they aſſign to ſome among them, though neceſſary to their wicked union, is oftentimes changed, as humour and caprice directs; and the ſtrongeſt or moſt profligate becomes a chief by mutual conſent; and as no community can ſubſiſt without ſome ſort of government, ſo theſe make a ſhew and profeſſion of one, do ſometimes comply with agreements made, more eſpecially with thoſe who ſupply them with neceſſaries, though this may reaſonably be ſuppoſed to proceed more from the motives of ſelf-preſervation, than from any intention of doing right, or juſtice to thoſe iniquitous perſons, who carry on ſuch a villainous and contraband trade: it is true, all are not equally bad; but we have heard of ſome, who have governed with more moderation, and not entirely ſhook off humanity, as the generality of them have; but even the beſt of them are offenſive to the fair trader, and by commencing pirate, they become obnoxious to thoſe laws which otherwiſe were made to protect them. *Grot. de Jure Belli & Pacis, lib.* c. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 40.

There are, however, inſtances where ſucceſs has made a company of them ſo powerful, as to induce them to ſettle, and form themſelves into a commonwealth; it was to this, that Algiers, Tripoli, and Tunis owe their eſtabliſhment, and which they have ſupported for many years, though they really ſtill ſubſiſt by their quondam profeſſion, or what is very like it; and only obſerve the treaties made with them, ſo long as the rabble will permit, and it ſuits their conveniency; yet they avoid quarrelling with all the European ſtates at once, but take them by a ſort of rotation, and pick from them what they can, one after another, for which they ſometimes ſmart, though too ſeldom; however, ſince their becoming a ſtate, and profeſſing allegiance to the grand ſeignior, princes have thought proper to treat with them, and to admit their ambaſſadors on the ſame footing as thoſe from other potentates, with reſpect to their immunities and privileges.

Though it is undoubtedly both for the honour and intereſt of all princes to ſuppreſs piracy, and not ſuffer them by any means to find ſhelter or refuge in any part of their dominions; but, on the contrary, to arm againſt them, and provide ſuch remedies as may reſtrain their progreſs, which our kings have always done, though it is dubious whether obliged thereto by the civil or common law of this kingdom.

If a maſter of a ſhip, after making the beſt defence he could, is taken by a pirate, and, for the redemption of his ſhip and cargo, willingly ſubmits to become a ſlave to his captors, the ſaid ſhip and cargo are, by the law marine, tacitly obliged to contribute to the obtaining his freedom; but if a pirate by feigning himſelf diſtreſſed, with the uſual ſignals, or pretends to be ſtranded, leaky, or in any other danger, ſhall, by theſe means allure the maſter to vary his courſe in order to afford his aſſiſtance, and ſo he falls into the trap the pirate has laid for him, although he frees the veſſel and her loading by remaining a ſlave, they are no ways obligated to contribute to his redemption, as his capture was occaſioned by his own folly in being ſo decoyed. *Lord Raymond*, 933, 934.

A ranſom promiſed to a pirate, is not binding by the civil law, therefore no wrong is created by not complying with it; and the reaſon is, that the law of arms is not communicated to ſuch, neither are they capable of enjoying that privilege, which lawful enemies may challenge, in the caption of another; this, however, hath its limits; for a pirate may have a lawful poſſeſſion, which he cannot be denied claiming at law, if injury or wrong be done him, and this is in conſequence of his taking a legal courſe, for by that he ſubmits to the magiſtrate, and pays obedience to the laws in his demanding juſtice. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 60. *ſ.* 7.

If a pirate attacks and takes a merchant ſhip, and afterwards redeems her, on the maſter's ſwearing to pay him a certain ſum, at a time and place agreed on; and if he does not comply with his oath, he is ſuppoſed by ſome not to be guilty of perjury, as a pirate is not a determinate, but a common enemy, and with whom they think neither faith nor oath is to be kept; others pretend nothing can free him from a compliance with his vow, as it is not men only that are concerned in it but God alſo, who is certainly no friend to perjury. However, with humble ſubmiſſion to better judgments, we think ſome diſtinction ought to be made in concurring circumſtances; for ſuppoſe either a ſea or land robber, claps a piſtol to the breaſt of the perſon he has ſeized, and makes him ſwear to do ſuch things, as he cannot perform without great prejudice to himſelf and his dependance, as the payment of a ſum of money, which may diſtreſs his circumſtances, and ruin his family; we ſay in ſuch a caſe, or other ſimilar ones, we believe no one will pronounce the oath to be binding, which the terrors of a threatening enemy had forcibly drawn from him that made it.

An Engliſhman committing piracy on the ſubjects of any prince, or ſtate, in amity with the crown of England, is within the ſtatute of 28 *Hen.* VIII. and ſo it was held where one Winterſon, Smith, and others, had robbed a ſhip of one Maturine Gautier, belonging to, and bound from Bourdeaux, with wines for England, and the ſame was felony by the law marine, and the parties were convicted accordingly. *Rot. Adm.* 28. *Eliz. m.* 24.

And ſo if the ſubjects of any other nation or kingdom, being in amity with the king of England, commit piracy on the ſhips or goods of the Engliſh, the ſame is felony, and puniſhable by virtue of the above act; and it was ſo adjudged, where one Careleſs, captain of a French man of war, and diverſe others, attacked four merchant ſhips, going from the port of Briſtol to Caermarthen, and robbed them of about one thouſand pounds, for which he and the reſt were arraigned, and found guilty of the piracy. *Rot. Adm.* 28 *Eliz. m.* 24.

But before the twenty-fifth of Edward III. if the ſubjects of a foreign nation, and ſome Engliſh, had combined in the committing of piracy, it would have been treaſon in the Engliſh, and felony in the foreigners, an inſtance of which is quoted by Shard, where a Norman being commander of a ſhip, had, together with ſome Engliſh, committed robberies on the ſea, and being taken and tryed, they were found guilty, the Norman of felony, and the Engliſh of treaſon, who accordingly were drawn and hanged. But at this day, by the laws marine, they would both receive



judg-

judgment as felons without diſtinction. 42 *Aſſiſe Placit.* 25. *p. Shard. Vid* 2 *Hen.* V. *c.* 6.

If the ſubjects of a prince at enmity with the crown of England, ſhall ſail aboard an Engliſh pirate, with other Engliſh, and then a robbery is committed by them, and they are afterwards taken, it is without doubt felony in the Engliſh, but not in the foreigners, for they cannot be tried by virtue of the commiſſion upon the ſtatute, for it was no piracy in them, but the depredation of an enemy, for which they ſhall receive a trial by martial law, and judgment accordingly. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 61. *ſ.* 10.

Piracies committed in the Britiſh ſeas, by the ſubjects of any power in amity with the crown of England, are properly puniſhable by this crown only; and if a Spaniard robs a Frenchman on the high ſea, their princes being then in amity, and both with the crown of England, and the ſhip is brought into a port of this kingdom, the Frenchman may proceed *criminaliter* againſt the Spaniard to puniſh him, and *civiliter*, to have reſtitution of his veſſel; but if the veſſel is carried *infra preſidia* * of that prince, by whoſe ſubject the ſame was taken, there can be no proceeding *civiliter*, and doubted if *criminaliter*; but the Frenchman muſt reſort into the captor's or pirate's own country, or where he carried the ſhip, and there proceed. *Selden Mare. Claus. Lib.* 1. *c.* 27. *Grot. de Jure Belli ac Pacis, c.* 9. *ſ.* 16.

If a piracy be attempted on the ocean, and the pirates are overcome, the captors may immediately puniſh them with death, and not be obliged to bring them into any port, provided this occurs in places where no legal judgment can be obtained. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 62. *ſ.* 12.

And therefore if a ſhip ſhould be on a voyage to America, or on a diſcovery of thoſe parts ſtill unknown to us, and in her way be attacked by a pirate, whom ſhe fortunately overcomes; in this caſe, by the laws marine, the veſſel becomes the captors property, and the pirates may be immediately executed, without the ſolemnity of condemnation. *Ditto.*

So likewiſe if a ſhip ſhall be aſſaulted by pirates, and in the attempt they are ſubdued and taken, and carried into the next port, if the judge openly rejects their trial, or the captors cannot wait till judgment ſhall be given, without certain peril and loſs, they may do juſtice on them themſelves, without farther delay or attendance. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 62. *ſ.* 13.

If a pirate at ſea attacks a ſhip, and in the engagement kills a perſon in her, though he has not ſucceeded in taking her, the pirates are all principals in the murder, if the common law hath juriſdiction of the cauſe; but by the law marine, they only who gave the wound ſhall be principals, if they can be known, and the reſt acceſſories; and where they have cognizance of the principal, the courts at common law will ſend them their acceſſory, if he comes before them. *Rot. Admir.* 28 *Eliz. m.* 24. *Yelverton Fol.* 134, 135.

A Dutchman, naturalized by the duke of Savoy, and living at Villa Franca in his dominions, procures a commiſſion from the ſtates of Holland, and coming to Leghorn, there rid with the colours and enſigns of the duke of Savoy; the Engliſh ſhip Diamond, being then in port, took in her loading, and proceeded on her voyage, in which ſhe was ſurpriſed and taken by that Caper, and carried into Villa Franca, and there condemned and ſold, but afterwards returning to England, the original proprietors having notice of it, made a ſeizure; and upon trial, adjudication paſſed for them; for though the ſhip of war and captors were of Savoy, and carried their prize thither, yet being taken by virtue of a Dutch commiſſion, according to the law marine ſhe muſt be carried *infra preſidia* of that prince or ſtate, by virtue of whoſe commiſſion ſhe was taken; nor does ſuch carrying of the enſigns or colours of the duke of Savoy, who was then in amity with the crown of England, nor the commander's being a ſubject of that prince, make him a pirate, or ſubject him, or thoſe to whom the intereſt of the prize was transferred, any ways to be queſtioned for the ſame *criminaliter*; for that the original *quoad* the taking, was lawful †, as one enemy might take from another, but *civiliter*, the ſame might be, for that the captor had not entituled himſelf to a firm poſſeſſion. *Grotius Lib.* 3. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 15 *and* 16.

* *March's Rep.* 110. † 3 *Bulſtrode* 28.

And therefore in all caſes where a ſhip is taken by letters of marque or piracy, if the ſame is not carried *infra preſidia* of that prince or ſtate, by whoſe ſubject the ſame was taken, the owners are not diveſted of their property, but may reſeize whereſoever they meet with it. *Mich.* 8. *Jac. in* B. R. *Brownlow* 2 *Part. Weſton's* C.

If a pirate attacks a ſhip, and only takes away ſome of her men with an intention to ſell them for ſlaves, this is piracy by the law marine; and if a bale or pack of merchandiſe be delivered to a maſter to carry abroad to a certain port, and he goes away with it to another, and there ſells or diſpoſes of it ‡, this is no felony; but if he opens the bale or pack, and takes any thing out, *animo furandi*, this act may amount to ſuch a larceny, as he may be indicted for in the admiralty, though it does not amount to a repriſalia; yet if the ſaid maſter ſhould carry the lading of his ſhip to the port appointed, and after retake the whole pack or bale back again, this may amount to a piracy; for he being in the nature of a common carrier, the delivery had taken its effect, and the privity of the bailment is determined. *C.* 2 *Inſt.* 109. *Lib.* 8. *Fol.* 32.

In caſe a ſhip ſhall be attacked by a pirate, and the maſter for her redemption ſhall give his oath to pay a ſum certain; though there be no taking, yet is the ſame piracy by the law marine; but by the common law there muſt be an actual taking, though it be but to the value of a penny, in the ſame manner as it is in a robbery on the highway. 44 *Edw.* III. *c.* 14. 4 *Hen.* IV. 2. *ſ. ad Leg. Rhod. de Jact. l.* 2.

And if a ſhip ſhall be riding at anchor with part of the mariners in her boat, and the reſt on ſhore; ſo that none remain in the ſhip, yet if ſhe be attacked and robbed, the ſame is piracy. 14 *Edw.* III. 115.

A merchant who has procured letters of marque or repriſe, and delivered the commiſſions to others to endeavour a ſatisfaction; if thoſe ſo commiſſioned commit piracy, the veſſel is certainly forfeited; but the merchant is no ways liable to make ſatisfaction; for though the ſuperior by the civil law is anſwerable for the actions of his ſervants, yet as this queſtion muſt be decided by the law of nations (in virtue of which ſuch commiſſions are awarded or granted) the merchant by it will be exempted from anſwering for the behaviour of thoſe he commiſſioned, unleſs it can be proved he foreknew that they would commit ſuch a piracy, or ſpoliation, or that he had any ways abetted, or conſented to the ſame, by which the right may be forfeited, and the civil law let in, to acquire ſatisfaction. *Trin.* 7. *Jac. in* B. R. *Rolls Abridg.* 530. *Moor's Rep.* 776.

If goods are taken by a pirate from one ſhip, and he afterwards attacks another, by whom he is ſubdued, he thereby becomes, according to the law marine, an abſolute prize to the captor, after a legal condemnation. And,

By the ſtatute of 27 *Edw.* III. *c.* 13. if a merchant loſe his goods at ſea by piracy or tempeſt (not being wrecked) and they afterwards come to land; if he can make proof they are his goods, they ſhall be reſtored to him in places guildable, by the king's officers, and ſix men of the country; and in other places, by the lords of them, or their officers, with ſix men of the country. If a pirate takes goods at ſea and ſells them, the property is not thereby changed, no more than if a land thief ſteals, and ſells them. 3 *Bul.* 28, 29. *March* 110. *Godb.* 193. *Barber's caſe.*

This law hath a great affinity with that of the Romans, called *de uſu captionis*, or the Atinian law; as Atinius therein enacted, that the plea of preſcription, or long poſſeſſion, ſhould not avail in things that had been ſtolen, but the intereſt which the right owners had ſhould remain perpetually. *Sigonius de Jure Rom. lib.* 1. *c.* 11.

Though it is held by the common law of England, that if a man commit piracy upon the ſubjects of another prince (though in league with us) and brings the goods into England, and ſells them in a market *overt*, the ſame ſhall bind, and the owners are for ever concluded; and if they ſhould endeavour in the admiralty to diſpute the property in order to reſtitution, they will be prohibited. *Bingley's caſe.* 1 *Rolls Abridg. f.* 530. *Lit. c.* 4. *Grot. l.* 3. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 16.

A ſhip which belonged to ſeveral owners was ſent to the Indies on a trading voyage, and upon the high ſea the ma-

‡ *F. Nautæ cap. l.* 1. *ſ.* 3. *Stab. Glanvil, lib.* 10. *c.* 13. 13 *Edward.* IV.

riners committed piracy, for which, on her return to the river of Thames, the admiral ſeized her as *bona pyratarum*; but the merchants her owners took the ſails and tackle out of her, and there was a decree, that the admiral ſhall not have the goods ſtolen from other men, but the owners ſhall have them. 1 *Rolls Rep.* 285. *The caſe of Hildebrand and al.*'

It appears by the preamble to the ſtatute of 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. that this offence was not puniſhable by the common law, but the ſame was determined and judged by the admiral, after the courſe of the civil law; but by force of the ſaid act the ſame is enquired of, heard, and determined, according to the courſe of the common law, as if the offence had been committed on land. *Molloy de Jure Mar. f.* 67. *f.* 24.

But by lord Hale *, the court of King's Bench had certainly a concurrent juriſdiction with the admiralty, in caſes of felony committed upon the narrow ſeas, or coaſt, though it were high ſea, becauſe within the king's realm of England: but this juriſdiction of the common law courts was interrupted by a ſpecial order of the king and council, 35 *Edw.* III. and ſince the 38 *Edw.* III. it does not appear that the common law courts took cognizance of crimes committed upon the high ſeas.

And for the trial of piracy, and to determine what actions come under this denomination, as alſo to encourage the ſuppreſſion of it, the following acts have been made, viz.

By 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4. *f.* 1. all offences of piracy, robbery, and murder, done upon the ſea, or in any haven, river, or creek, where the admirals pretend to have juriſdiction, ſhall be inquired, tried, heard, and determined, in ſuch places in this realm, as ſhall be limited by the king's commiſſion, as if ſuch offences had been done upon land; and ſuch commiſſions ſhall be under the great ſeal, directed to the lord admiral, or his lieutenant or deputies, and other perſons named by the lord chancellor, to hear and determine ſuch offences after the common courſe of law, uſed for felonies committed within the realm.

The remaining ſections of this act are omitted, becauſe the act is amended and re-enacted 28 *Hen.* VIII. *cap.* 15. which follows:

By 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. *f.* 1. all treaſons, felonies, robberies, murders, and confederacies, committed upon the ſea, or in any haven, river, creek, or place where the admirals have, or pretend to have power or juriſdiction, ſhall be enquired, heard, and determined in ſuch ſhires, and places in this realm, as ſhall be limited by the king's commiſſion, as if ſuch offences had been committed upon land, and ſuch commiſſions ſhall be under the great ſeal, directed to the admirals, &c. and to three or four ſuch other perſons as ſhall be named by the lord chancellor, after the common courſe of the law uſed for treaſon, felonies, &c. committed upon land, within this realm.

*Sect.* 2. Such perſons to whom ſuch commiſſions ſhall be directed, or four of them, ſhall have power to enquire of ſuch offences by the oaths of twelve lawful inhabitants in the ſhire limited in their commiſſion, as if ſuch offences had been committed upon land within the ſhire; and every indictment found before ſuch commiſſioners, of any treaſons, felonies, or ſuch other offences committed upon the ſeas, or in any haven, river, or creek, ſhall be good in law: and ſuch proceſs, judgment, and execution, ſhall be had againſt every perſon ſo indicted, as for treaſon, felony, or other ſuch offences done upon land; and the trial of ſuch offences, ſhall be by twelve men, inhabiting in the ſhire limited within ſuch commiſſion, and no challenge to be had for the hundred; and ſuch as ſhall be convict of any ſuch offences, ſhall ſuffer ſuch pains of death, loſſes of land and goods, as if they had been convicted of the ſame offences done upon land.

*Sect.* 3. For treaſon, robberies, felonies, murders, and confederacies, done upon the ſea, or in any place above rehearſed, the offenders ſhall not have benefit of clergy.

*Sect* 4. This act ſhall not extend to any perſon for taking any victual, cables, ropes, anchors, or ſails, which ſuch perſon (compelled by neceſſity) taketh of any ſhip, which may ſpare the ſame, ſo the perſon pay for the ſame, money or money-worth, or deliver a bill obligatory to be paid, if the taking be on this ſide the ſtreights of Marrok, to be paid within four months; and if it be beyond the ſaid ſtreights, to be paid within twelve months; and that the makers of ſuch bills pay the ſame at the day limited.

*Sect.* 5. When any ſuch commiſſion ſhall be directed to any place within the juriſdiction of the five ports, ſuch commiſſion ſhall be directed to the lord warden of the ports, or his deputy, and three or four ſuch other perſons as the lord chancellor ſhall name.

*Sect.* 6. When any commiſſion ſhall be directed unto the five ports, for the inquiſition and trials of any of the offences expreſſed in this act, ſuch inquiſition and trial ſhall be had by the inhabitants in the five ports, or the members of the ſame.

By 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *f.* 1. it is ordained, that all the piracies, felonies, and robberies, committed upon the ſea, or in any haven, river, creek, or place where the admirals have power or juriſdiction, may be tried at ſea, or upon the land, in any of his majeſty's iſlands, plantations, colonies, &c. appointed for that purpoſe by commiſſion under the great ſeal of England, or ſeal of the admiralty, directed to ſuch commiſſioners as his majeſty ſhall think fit, who may commit ſuch offenders, and call a court of admiralty thereupon, to conſiſt of ſeven perſons at the leaſt.

*Sect.* 2, 3. And for want of ſeven, then any three of the commiſſioners may call others, as therein is mentioned, *Sect.* 4. and the perſons ſo aſſembled may proceed according to the courſe of the admiralty to iſſue out warrants for bringing perſons accuſed of piracy or robbery before them to be tried, and to ſummon witneſſes, and take examinations, and do all things neceſſary for the hearing and final determination of any caſe of piracy, &c. and to give ſentence of death, and award execution of the offenders, who ſhall thereupon ſuffer loſs of lands, goods, and chattels.

*Sect.* 5. So ſoon as any court ſhall be aſſembled, the the king's commiſſion ſhall be read, and the court ſhall be proclaimed, and then the preſident of the court ſhall take the following oath, viz.

" I, A. B. do ſwear in the preſence of Almighty God, that I will truly and impartially try and adjudge the priſoner or priſoners, which ſhall be brought upon his, or their trials before this court, and honeſtly and duly on my part, put his majeſty's commiſſion for the trying of them in execution, according to the beſt of my ſkill and knowledge; and that I have no intereſt, directly or indirectly, in any ſhip or goods, for the piratically taking of which, any perſon ſtands accuſed, and is now to be tried. So help me God."

And he having taken the oath, ſhall adminiſter the ſame to every perſon, who ſhall ſit and have voice in the court, and thereupon the priſoners ſhall be brought before them; and then the regiſter ſhall read the articles againſt ſuch priſoners, wherein ſhall be ſet forth the particular facts of piracy, robbery, and felony, with the time and place, and in what manner it was committed; and each priſoner ſhall be aſked, whether he be guilty or not guilty; whereupon he ſhall immediately plead *guilty* or *not guilty*, or elſe it ſhall be taken as confeſſed; and if any priſoner ſhall plead not guilty, witneſſes ſhall be produced by the regiſter, and ſworn and examined in the priſoner's preſence; and after a witneſs hath anſwered all the queſtions propoſed by the preſident; and given his evidence, it ſhall be lawful for the priſoner to have the witneſs croſs examined, declaring to the court what queſtions he would have aſked, and the preſident or the court ſhall interrogate the witneſs accordingly; and every priſoner ſhall have liberty to bring witneſſes for his defence, who ſhall be ſworn and examined, and afterwards the priſoner ſhall be heard for himſelf; which being done, the priſoner ſhall be taken away, and all other perſons, except the regiſter, ſhall withdraw; and the court ſhall conſider of the evidence; and the preſident ſhall collect the votes of the court, beginning at the junior, and ending with himſelf; and according to plurality of voices, ſentence ſhall be given, and pronounced publicly in the preſence of the priſoner, being called in again; and according to ſuch ſentence, the perſons attainted ſhall be put to death in ſuch manner, and in ſuch place upon the ſea, or within the ebbing or flowing thereof, as the preſi-

* *Hiſt. Pl. Cr. vol.* ii. *p.* 14, 15.

dent, or the major part of the court, by warrant directed to a provoſt-marſhal, (which they ſhall have power to conſtitute) ſhall appoint.

*Sect.* 6. Some public notary ſhall be regiſter of the court; and in caſe of his abſence, death, or incapacity, or for want of a perſon ſo qualified, the preſident ſhall appoint a regiſter, giving him an oath, duly, faithfully, and impartially to execute his office; which regiſter ſhall prepare all warrants and articles, and provide all things requiſite for any trial, according to the ſubſtantial and eſſential parts of proceeding in a court of admiralty in the moſt ſummary way; and ſhall make minutes of the proceedings, and enter them in a book, and ſhall tranſmit the ſame with the copies of all articles and judgments, unto the high court of admiralty of England.

*Sect.* 7. If any of his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall commit piracy, or robbery, or any act of hoſtility againſt others his majeſty's ſubjects upon the ſea, under colour of any commiſſion from any foreign ſtate, or authority from any perſon whatſoever, ſuch offenders, and every of them, ſhall be adjudged pirates, felons, and robbers; and being convicted according to this act, or 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. ſhall ſuffer pains of death, and loſs of lands and goods.

*Sect.* 8. If any commander of a ſhip, or any mariner, ſhall in any place where the admiral hath juriſdiction, betray his truſt, and turn pirate, enemy, or rebel, and piratically and felonioufly run away with the ſhip, or any boat, ordnance, ammunition, or goods, or yield them up voluntarily to any pirate, or ſhall bring any ſeducing meſſages from any pirate, enemy, or rebel; or conſult, or confederate with, or attempt to corrupt any commander, officer, or mariner, to yield up, or run away with any ſhip or goods, turn pirate, or go over to pirates, or if any perſon ſhall lay violent hands on his commander, to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ſhip and goods, or confine his maſter, or endeavour to make a revolt in the ſhip, he ſhall be adjudged a pirate, felon, and robber, and being convicted, according to this act, ſhall ſuffer death, and loſs of lands and goods.

*Sect.* 9. All perſons who ſhall, either on land or upon the ſeas, knowingly ſet forth any pirate, or aſſiſt, or maintain, procure, command, counſel, or adviſe, any perſon to commit any piracies or robberies upon the ſeas, and ſuch perſon ſhall thereupon commit any ſuch piracy or robbery, all ſuch perſons ſhall be adjudged acceſſory to ſuch piracy and robbery; and after any piracy or robbery committed, every perſon, who knowing that ſuch pirate or robber has committed ſuch robbery, ſhall, on the land, or upon the ſea, receive, entertain, or conceal any ſuch pirate or robber, or receive any ſhip, or goods, by ſuch pirate or robber, piratically and felonioufly taken, ſhall be adjudged acceſſory to ſuch piracy and robbery; and all ſuch acceſſories may be enquired of, heard, and determined, after the common courſe of the law, according to the ſtatute 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. as the principals of ſuch piracies and robberies ought to be; and, being attainted, ſhall ſuffer death, and loſs of lands and goods.

*Sect.* 10. When any Engliſh ſhip ſhall have been defended by fight againſt pirates, and any of the officers or ſeamen are killed or wounded, the judge of the admiralty, or his ſurrogate in London, or the mayor, or chief officer in the out-ports, aſſiſted by four ſubſtantial merchants, may, by proceſs out of the ſaid court, levy upon the owners of ſuch ſhips, &c. a ſum not exceeding two pounds *per* hundred, of the value of the freight, ſhip, and goods, ſo defended, to be diſtributed among the officers and ſeamen of the ſaid ſhips, or widows and children of the ſlain.

*Sect.* 11. A reward of ten pounds for every veſſel of a hundred tons, or under, and fifteen pounds for every one of a greater burden, ſhall be paid by the captain, commander, or maſter, to the firſt diſcoverer of any combination for running away with, or deſtroying any ſuch ſhip, at the port where the wages are to be paid.

*Sect.* 12. This act ſhall be in force for ſeven years, &c. made perpetual 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19.

*Sect.* 13. The commiſſioners appointed by 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. or, by this act, ſhall have the ſole power of hearing and determining the ſaid crimes, within all the plantations in America, governed by proprietors, or under charter from the crown, and ſhall iſſue their warrants for apprehending any pirates, &c. within any of the ſaid plantations, in order to their being brought to trial, within the ſame, or any other plantation in America, or ſent into England; and all governors, &c. in the plantations, governed by proprietors, or under charters, ſhall aſſiſt the commiſſioners and officers, and deliver up the pirates, &c. in order to their being tried, or ſent into England.

*Sect.* 14. If any of the governors in the plantations ſhall refuſe to yield obedience to this act, ſuch refuſal is declared to be a forfeiture of all charters granted for the government or propriety of ſuch plantation.

*Sect.* 15. When any commiſſion for the trial, and puniſhment of the offences aforeſaid ſhall be directed to any place within the juriſdiction of the Cinque Ports, ſuch commiſſion ſhall be directed to the lord warden, &c.

*Sect.* 16. All officers or ſailors, who ſhall deſert the ſhips wherein they are hired to ſerve for that voyage, ſhall forfeit all wages due to them.

*Sect.* 17. In caſe any maſter of a merchant ſhip, ſhall, during his being abroad, force any man on ſhore, or wilfully leave him behind in any of his majeſty's plantations, or elſewhere, or ſhall refuſe to bring home with him all ſuch of the men which he carried out, as are in a condition to return, ſuch a maſter ſhall ſuffer three months impriſonment.

By 4 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 7. all perſons who ſhall commit any offences for which they ought to be adjudged pirates, by the act 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. may be tried as by the act 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. and ſhall be debarred from the benefit of clergy. Nothing in this act to extend to Scotland.

By 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 1. if any commander of a ſhip, or other perſon, ſhall trade with any pirate, or ſhall furniſh any pirate, felon, or robber, upon the ſeas, with ammunition, proviſion, or ſtores, or ſhall fit out any ſhip knowingly, and with a deſign to trade or correſpond with any pirate, &c. upon the ſeas, or if any perſon ſhall conſult, combine, or correſpond with any pirate, &c. knowing him to be guilty of any piracy, felony, and robbery, ſuch offender ſhall be adjudged guilty of piracy, &c. and ſhall be tried according to the ſtatute 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18. and 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. and being convicted, ſhall ſuffer death, and loſs of lands and goods; and if any perſon belonging to any ſhip, upon meeting any merchant ſhip on the high ſeas, or in any port, haven, or creek, ſhall forcibly board or enter ſuch ſhip, and though they do not ſeize and carry her off, ſhall throw overboard, or deſtroy any of the goods, they ſhall be puniſhed as pirates.

*Sect.* 2. Every ſhip fitted out with a deſign to trade, or correſpond with any pirate, and all the merchandizes put on board the ſame, with an intent to trade with any pirate, ſhall be forfeited, one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer, to be recovered in the high court of admiralty.

*Sect.* 3. All perſons declared acceſſaries, by 11 and 12 *Will.* III. to any piracy, are by this act declared principal pirates.

*Sect.* 4. Every offender convicted of any piracy, &c. by virtue of this act, ſhall not have benefit of clergy.

*Sect.* 5. And to encourage ſeamen and mariners to defend their ſhips from pirates, the ſaid act ordains, that in caſe any mariner on board any merchant ſhip, ſhall be maimed in fight againſt any pirate, upon due proof thereof, he ſhall not only have and receive the rewards appointed by 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. but ſhall be provided for in Greenwich-hoſpital, preferable to any other ſeaman who is diſabled from ſervice by age.

*Sect.* 6. If any commander, or other officer, or ſeaman of a merchant ſhip, that carries guns and arms, ſhall not fight and endeavour to defend themſelves when attacked by a pirate, or ſhall utter any words to diſcourage the other mariners from defending the ſhip, by which means ſhe is taken by the pirate, in ſuch caſe, the ſaid commander, &c. ſhall forfeit all the wages due to him or them, to the owners of the ſhip, and ſhall ſuffer ſix months impriſonment.

*Sect.* 7. No maſter or owner of any merchant ſhip, ſhall pay to any ſeaman beyond the ſeas, any money or effects on account of wages, exceeding one moiety of the wages due at the time of ſuch payment, till ſuch ſhip ſhall return to Great-Britain, Ireland, or the Plantation, or to ſome other

other of his majeſty's dominions whereto they belong, on forfeiture of double the money ſo paid, &c.

*Sect.* 10. This act ſhall extend to all his majeſty's dominions in Aſia, Africa, or America, and ſhall be a public act, and ſhall continue ſeven years, &c. made perpetual 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28.

The act 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. does not alter the offences, or make the offence felony, but leaves it as it was before this act, viz. felony only by the civil law, but giveth a mean of trial by the common law, and inflicteth pains of death, as if they had been attainted of any felony done upon the land. *Coke* 3. *Inſt. Tit. Admir.*

The indictment muſt mention the ſame to be done on the high ſea.

By 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. If any perſon be feloniouſly ſtricken or poiſoned upon the ſea, or at any place out of England, and dies in England, or ſtricken or poiſoned in England, and dies on the ſea, or out of England, the fact is triable in any county, according to the courſe of the common law, except challenges for the hundred.

A pardon of all felonies does not extend to piracy, but the ſame ought eſpecially to be named; and though there be a forfeiture of lands and goods, yet there is no corruption of blood, nor can there be an acceſſory of this offence, tried by virtue of this ſtatute, but if there be an acceſſory upon the ſea to a piracy, he muſt be tried by the civil law. *Moore* 756. *Dy.* 308.

The ſtatute of 35 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 2. taketh not away the ſtatute for treaſons, done upon the ſea, nor is clergy allowable to the party on the ſtatute 28 *Hen.* VIII. *Vide* 14 *Jac. in* B. R. *Moore* 756. *plac.* 1044. 3 *Inſt.* 112.

Though the port be *locus publicus uti pars oceani*, yet it hath been reſolved more than once, that all ports, not only the town, but the water is *infra corpus comitatus*. 1 *Inſt.* 391.

If a pirate enters into a port or haven of this kingdom, and aſſaults and robs a merchant ſhip at anchor there, this is not piracy, becauſe the ſame is not done *ſuper altum mare*, (upon the high ſea) but a downright robbery at common law, for that the act is *infra corpus comitatus*, and was inquirable and puniſhable by the common law, before the ſtatute of 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. an inſtance of which was in *Hide & Al.* who robbed the ſhip of one captain Slue of ſome merchandize, appertaining to Mr. Moſs, a merchant in London, and for which they were indicted at the common law, and found guilty, *anno* 22 *Car.* II. at the Old Bailey. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 71. *ſ.* 27.

By the recited act of 11 *Will.* III. it is (amongſt other things) enacted, that all piracies and robberies committed on the ſea, or in any haven or place, where the admirals have power or juriſdiction, may be examined and adjudged, according to the directions of the act, in any place at ſea or land, to be appointed by the king's commiſſion: and alſo, that if any of his majeſty's natural born ſubjects, or denizens of this kingdom, ſhall commit any piracy or robbery, or act of hoſtility, againſt others of his majeſty's ſubjects on ſea, under colour of commiſſion from any foreign prince or ſtate, or pretence of authority from any perſon, they ſhall be deemed pirates, felons, and robbers; and being convicted according to the ſaid act, or of 28 *Hen.* VIII. therein recited, ſhall ſuffer ſuch pains of death, &c. as pirates, &c. ought to have and ſuffer: and ſince the preſent wars with France and Spain, divers ſubjects have entered in the ſervice of his majeſty's enemies, on board privateers, or other ſhips, having commiſſion from the crowns of France or Spain, and committed hoſtilities againſt his majeſty's ſubjects on the ſeas, in the Weſt-Indies, &c. and doubts have ariſen whether, as ſuch offenders have been guilty of high treaſon, they can be guilty of felony within the intent of the ſaid act, and as ſuch be tried by the court of admiralty thereby appointed; to put an end to the ſaid doubts; therefore it is enacted, that all perſons, being natural born ſubjects, or denizens of his majeſty, who, during the preſent, or any future wars, have committed, or ſhall commit any hoſtilities on the ſea, or in any haven, river, creek, or place where the admirals have power of juriſdiction, may be tried as pirates, felons, and robbers, in the ſaid court of admiralty, on ſhipboard, or on land, as perſons guilty of piracy, &c. are, by the ſaid act, directed to be tried; and being convicted thereof, ſhall ſuffer ſuch pains of death, loſs of lands, goods, and chattels, as other pirates, &c. by the ſaid act of 11 *Will.* III. or any other act, ought to ſuffer. 18 *Geo.* III. *p.* 659, 660, 661.

Any perſon who ſhall be tried and acquitted, or convicted according to this act, for any of the ſaid crimes, ſhall not be tried again for the ſame fact, as high treaſon. *Ditto.*

Nothing in this act ſhall extend to prevent any perſons, guilty of any of the ſaid crimes, who ſhall not be tried according to this act, from being tried for high treaſon within this realm, according to the aforeſaid act of 28 *Hen.* VIII. *Ditto, p.* 662.

If ſuch a robbery be made in a creek or port, in ſuch caſes, it has by ſome been conceived, that clergy is allowable, upon the ſtatute of 28 *Hen.* VIII. but if it be done *ſuper altum mare*, there is no ſuch allowance, as was ruled by the opinion of Sir Lyonel Jenkins, and the reſt of the judges, upon the piracy committed by Cuſack and others, who were executed *anno* 1674. And if the robbery be committed on great rivers, within the realm, (eſteemed always as common highways) there it has formerly been doubted, whether the benefit of clergy ought to be granted; however, it was ſeemingly ſettled by the judges in the aforeſaid caſe of Hide, and was confirmed by the following act, viz. *Moore* 756. 1 *Jac. par.* 1044.

Divers wicked and evil-diſpoſed perſons, being encouraged to commit robberies and theft, upon navigable rivers, &c. by the privilege, as the law now is, of being admitted to the benefit of their clergy; for the more effectual preventing ſuch felonies for the future, it is enacted, that all perſons, who ſhall at any time, from and after the 24th of June, 1751, feloniouſly ſteal any goods or merchandize, of the value of forty ſhillings in any ſhip, barge, lighter, boat, or other veſſel or craft, upon any navigable river, or in any port of entry or diſcharge, or in any creek belonging thereto, or from off any wharf, or key adjacent to any navigable river, port of entry, or diſcharge within Great-Britain, or ſhall be preſent and aſſiſting in commiting any of the ſaid offences, being thereof convicted, or attainted, or being indicted, ſhall of malice ſtand mute, or will not directly anſwer to the indictment; or ſhall peremptorily challenge above twenty perſons returned to be of the jury, ſhall be excluded from the benefit of clergy. 24 *Geo.* II. *p.* 1055, 1056.

One Cobham was arraigned in Southwark, before the commiſſioners of oyer and terminer, for a piracy and robbery committed on a Spaniard, and refuſing to plead, it was moved by the attorney-general, whether he ought not in this caſe to have the *pain fort & dur*, and it was the opinion of the court he ſhould, from the words, and reaſonable intendment of the ſtatute 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. and judgment was given accordingly.

If a man is taken on ſuſpicion of piracy, and a bill is preferred againſt him, and the jury find *ignoramus*, and the court of admiralty will not diſcharge him, that of King's-Bench will grant a *habeas corpus*, and if there be good cauſe, diſcharge him, or at leaſt admit him to bail; but if the court ſuſpects that the party is guilty, perhaps they may remand him; and therefore in all caſes, where the admiralty legally have an original, or a concurrent juriſdiction, the courts above will be well informed before they will meddle or interfere.

Aiding or aſſiſting the eſcape of a man in cuſtody for piracy, though the matter is an offence at land, yet the admiralty having juriſdiction to puniſh the principal, has likewiſe power to puniſh ſuch an offender, who is looked upon *quaſi* an acceſſory to the piracy; but on reſcuing a priſoner from an officer of theirs, they may examine the cauſe, but they cannot proceed criminally againſt the offender. *Yelv.* 134, 135. *Cro. El.* 685. *Cro. Jac.* 269. *Stiles*, 171, 340.

The exemplification of the ſentence of the court of admiralty, under their ſeal, is concluſive evidence in a court of common law. *Lord Raym.* 893.

And although the ſtatute of 28 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 15. does not alter the offence, or make it felony only by the civil law, and gives a mean of trial by the common law, and inflicted ſuch pains of death, as if they had been attainted of any felony; yet it was reſolved * by all the judges and

* *Seſſ. Admir. Feb.* 18, 1680. *caſe of Compton Gwyther, & al.*

the

the reſt of the commiſſioners then preſent, that his majeſty having granted letters of repriſal to Sir Edmund Turner and George Carew, againſt the ſubjects of the ſtates general of the United Provinces, which grant was afterwards called in by proclamation, then notified in the treaty of Breda, and finally ſuppreſſed under the great ſeal; that ſeveral having put in execution the ſaid commiſſion, under a deputation from Carew only, without Turner, were indicted for piracy, though they were acquitted, as it was decreed that the ſame was not a felonious and a piratical ſpoliation in them, but a caption in order to an adjudication; and though the authority they acted under was deficient, yet not being done by the captain and his mariners, *animo deprædandi*, it could by no means be made piracy.

It has been cuſtomary to grant commiſſions to the commanders of ſhips bound to the Eaſt-Indies, for the ſeizing of pirates, and as we find they have always been to the ſame purpoſe, though ſometimes variouſly worded, we ſhall add the copy of one of them taken from an original.

ANNE R.

"Anne, by the grace of God, queen of England, Scotland, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. to our truſty and well-beloved A. B. commander of the ſhip Triton, burden four hundred and twenty tons, thirty guns, and ſeventy men, or to any other the commander of the ſame for the time being, greeting; whereas, we are informed there are ſeveral pirates and ſea rovers, which do infeſt the ſeas of India, whither you are now going, we have therefore thought fit to authorize and impower, and accordingly do by theſe preſents authorize and impower you, to apprehend, ſeize, and ſecure the perſons of any ſuch pirates, free-booters, and ſea rovers, being either our own ſubjects, or of other nations aſſociated with them, as you ſhall meet with in any of the ports or places, or upon any of the coaſts or ſeas of India, or in any other ſeas whatſoever, together with their ſhips and veſſels, and all ſuch merchandizes, money, goods, and wares, as ſhall be found on board, or with them, in caſe they ſhall willingly yield themſelves, but if they will not ſubmit without fighting, then you are by force to compel them to yield: and we do alſo require you to bring, or cauſe to be brought, ſuch pirates, free-booters, and ſea rovers, as you ſhall ſeize or take, to a legal trial, to the end they may be proceeded againſt with the utmoſt ſeverity of law. And we do hereby enjoin you to keep an exact journal of your proceedings in the execution of the premiſſes, and therein ſet down the names of ſuch pirates, and of their officers and company, and the names of ſuch ſhips and veſſels, as you ſhall, by virtue of theſe preſents, ſeize and take, and the quantities and qualities of all arms, ammunition, proviſion, and lading of ſuch ſhips and veſſels, and the true value of the ſame as near as you can judge, and alſo to ſecure and take care of all bills of lading, invoice, cockets, charterparties, and all other papers and writings, of what kind ſoever, as ſhall be found on board ſuch ſhips and veſſels; and we do hereby ſtrictly charge and command you (as you will anſwer the ſame at your utmoſt peril) that you do not in any manner offend or moleſt any of our ſubjects, or the ſubjects of our friends and allies, their ſhips or goods, by colour or pretence of theſe preſents, or the authority hereby granted. In witneſs whereof, we have cauſed our great ſeal of England to be affixed to theſe preſents. Given at our court at St. James's, the thirtieth day of Octob. 1704, in the third year of our reign."

In the admiral's patent, he has granted to him *bona piratarum*; the proper goods of pirates only paſs by this grant, and not piratical goods. So it is of a grant *de bonis felonum*, the grantee ſhall not have goods ſtolen, but the true and rightful owner: but the king ſhall have the piratical goods, if the owner be not known. 10 *Rep.* 109. *Dyer.* 269. *Jenk. cent.* 325.

When a pirate is condemned and executed, he is commonly hung in chains on a gibbet fixed by the river ſide, as an object to deter others from following ſuch courſes, which might, ſooner or later, bring them to the ſame unhappy end; and though it was to be feared, that among the large number of ſailors which the late peace rendered uſeleſs, many of them would have riſked their necks to fill their purſes, yet as we have not heard they have done ſo, there is reaſon to hope they will avoid the fatal cataſtrophe, by continuing in their duty.

N. B. Since the late war (commencing in 1756) ſeveral perſons, maſters of privateers, have been executed for piracy; the facts were, that neutral ſhips, Dutch and Danes, were ſtripped in the Engliſh channel by ſmall privateers, and plundered, ſometimes by the maſters and people of the privateers diſguiſed, at other times more openly. This occaſioned the new act concerning privateers, inſerted under that article.

PISCA. *See* PANAMA.

PISSASPHALTUM, *piſſaſphaltus*, in natural hiſtory, denotes a liquid bitumen, reſembling nothing ſo much as common pitch, when a little ſoftened by the fire. It is of a very ſtrong bituminous ſmell, ſomething like the fragrance of amber. It is ſoft enough to ſpread on a marble, when freſh; but by degrees it becomes more and more hard, but never will arrive at the conſiſtence of the ſolid bitumens. It makes no effervescence with acid menſtruums, but is ſoluble in oil, and will impart a tincture to ſpirit of wine, and give a ſtrong taſte to water.

The Eaſt-Indies, Perſia, and Egypt abound with it; but it is no where ſo plentiful as in Italy, particularly about Caſtræ, a town ſixty miles from Rome, where it is found oozing out of the cracks of the neighbouring rocks. The greateſt quantity of what they gather is diſtilled for its thin oil, which is ſent into other parts of Europe under the name of petroleum; the reſt is ſent to the German ſhops, where it is generally kept in its natural ſtate.

There is alſo a factitious *piſſaſphaltum*, being a mixture of common pitch and the bitumen Judaicum.

PISSELÆUM, *oleum picinum*, oil of pitch, the watery part which ſwims on pitch, which is ſeparated therefrom while the pitch is in boiling, by ſpreading over it clean wool, which, as ſoon as it is thoroughly moiſtened with the aſcending vapour, is wrung into a veſſel; and this is repeated, as long as the pitch is in boiling. It is effectual for the ſame purpoſes as tar.

PISSELÆUM *Indicum*, Barbadoes tar, in natural hiſtory, mineral fluid of the nature of the thicker fluid bitumens. It is a duſky-coloured matter, leſs viſcid than the piſſaſphaltum, and about the conſiſtence of treacle.

It is of a nauſeous bitteriſh taſte, and a very diſagreeable ſmell. It is ſoluble in oil, and is very frequent in America, where it is found trickling down the ſides of the mountains in large quantities, and ſometimes floating on the ſurface of the waters; but it ſeems to be almoſt loſt at this time in the country whence it was originally named. It has been greatly recommended internally in coughs and other diſorders of the breaſt and lungs, but is very ſeldom to be met with genuine any where.

PISTACHIA, the piſtachia nut, in natural hiſtory, a dry fruit of an oblong figure, pointed at both ends, having a double ſhell. The kernel is like the pulp of an almond, ſweet and very oily, but not without ſome faint bitterneſs.

Piſtachias were known to all the old writers. We have them from Syria, Perſia, Arabia, and the Eaſt-Indies, and they are very ſucceſsfully cultivated in Italy and France, for the ſake of their fruit.

There are two kinds of them, a larger and a ſmaller; the larger alone is ſent to Europe; the ſmaller are leſs common in the Eaſt-Indies than in Perſia, where they are, however, much more eſteemed than the large ones, as being better flavoured.

The tree that produces them is one of the *diæcia pentandria* of Linnæus, and of the *arbores flore à fructu remoto* of Ray. It is deſcribed under the *terebinthus Indica Theophraſti*, and *piſtachia*, or *piſtachia fructu ramoſo*.

Piſtachias abound with a ſweet well-taſted oil; they are wholeſome and nutritive, and are very proper, by way of reſtorative, eaten moderately, to people emaciated with long illneſſes. They are recommended as peculiarly good to prevent obſtructions of the liver, and are found of ſervice in nephritic complaints. They are made ingredients in the electuarium diaſatyrion, and the like; but theſe, as well as the piſtachias, are now much out of uſe in medicine.

PISTOLE, doublon, in commerce, a golden coin, ſtruck in Spain, and ſeveral parts of Italy, &c. There are quadruple piſtoles, double piſtoles, and half piſtoles.

The piſtole is about the ſame fineneſs and value with the French louis d'or, namely, equal to ſixteen ſhillings and ſixpence ſterling.

In Spain the piſtole is equal to four pieces of eight, or thirty-two rials, or one thouſand and eighty-eight maravadis, or thirteen hundred and ſixty maravadis of Billon; the old money current at Seville and Cadiz in Andaluſia, &c. being twenty-five *per cent.* better than that at Madrid, Bilboa, &c. which augmentation was made by Charles II. in 1686, to prevent the exportation of money out of the kingdom.

Moſt of the exchanges in Italy are made on the foot of the piſtole.

PITCH, *pix*, in natural hiſtory, is a ſpecies of gum obtained from the pine-tree, by making inciſions in it. It receives different names, according to its different preparations, colours, and qualities. When it firſt flows from the tree, it is called barras, but is afterwards diſtinguiſhed into two ſorts, which have different names: that which is moſt beautiful and clear, is called gallipot; and that which is more full of fæces, and of a worſe colour, is called marble barras. The former of theſe, or the gallipot, ſerves to make all the different ſpecies of pitch.

The pinguious pitch, which is alſo called white Burgundy pitch, is gallipot, melted with oil of turpentine. Some, however, aſſert, that the Burgundy pitch flows naturally from reſinous trees, in the mountains of Franche Comté.

*Oil of pitch*, *oleum picinum*, or balſam of pitch, the ſame with PISSELÆUM, which *ſee*.

Pitch and tar, not to be imported but in Engliſh ſhipping. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 8.

Nor from the Netherlands or Germany. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 23.

To what duties liable. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

Penalty on burning and deſtroying pitch or tar trees in the plantations. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 6, 7.

Importation of it from the plantations and Scotland into England encouraged. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 10. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 9. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 16, 17, 18. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 4. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 3.

Plantation pitch and tar to be clean. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 16. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 2. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 3. *See* NAVAL STORES.

PITIS. *See* CAS.

PLAGUE. For the relief and ordering of perſons afflicted with the plague. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 31.

Infected perſons going abroad deemed felons, 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 7. Regulations for ſhips to perform quarantine, 4 *Ann. c.* 2. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 3. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. and *c.* 10. 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34.

Penalty on maſter breaking quarantine. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 14. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

Directions for performing quarantine and erecting lazarettos. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8.

Perſons diſobeying directions guilty of felony. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1, 2, 3, 8, 10, 17, 18.

Orders for quarantine to be read in churches. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 20.

Goods liable to retain infection, coming from the Levant without a clean bill of health, not to be landed unleſs aired in a foreign lazaret. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 12. *See* BILLS *of Health*.

PLAIN CHART, in navigation, is a ſea-chart, wherein the meridians and parallels are repreſented by parallel ſtrait lines, and where conſequently the degrees of longitude are the ſame in all the parallels of latitude.

PLAIN SAILING, in navigation, the art of working the ſeveral caſes in a ſhip's motion on a plain chart.

PLAISTER, *or* PLASTER, in building, a compoſition of lime, ſometimes with hair, ſometimes with ſand, &c. to parget, or cover the bare walls, &c. of a building. *See* PARGETING.

PLAISTER *of Paris*, in natural hiſtory, a foſſil ſtone, uſed in building, particularly in ſculpture, to mould and make ſtatues, baſſo relievos, and other decorations.

It is dug out of quarries in ſeveral parts near Paris, and hence its name. The fineſt is that of Montmartre.

It is of two kinds, namely, crude, or in the ſtone, and burnt or beaten. In the former ſtate, to wit, as it comes out of the quarry, it is uſed as ſhards in the foundations of buildings. The burnt plaiſter is a preparation of the former by calcining it like lime in a kiln, or furnace, and then beating it into powder, and diluting it with water, and working it. And, in this ſtate, it is alſo uſed as cement in buildings.

This, when well ſifted and reduced to an impalpable powder, is uſed to make figures and other works of ſculpture; and beſides, is of ſome uſe in taking out ſpots of greaſe in ſtuffs and ſilks.

PLAISTER OF PARIS FIGURE-MAKER. As this buſineſs is commonly managed, it requires very little ingenuity, and but few acquired accompliſhments; but if the boy has a genius, and underſtands drawing, he may, in many caſes, make his own models. Plaiſter of Paris is made of alabaſter, firſt pounded, and then burnt; after which it is mixed with water, till it becomes of a due conſiſtence, and in leſs than a quarter of an hour, acquires a hardneſs not much inferior to ſtone. Thoſe who work in this plaiſter, when they make a buſt from the life, apply a quantity of talc to the face and parts to be repreſented; the concave impreſſion of the face being left in the talc, plaiſter of Paris is run into it, which inſtantly receives the convex figure. When the workman deſigns any other figures, he has a model of wood by the carver, of the exact proportion of the intended figure; from whence he takes the impreſſion in the ſame manner as from the life. If his figure conſiſts of many involved members, the figure is divided into parts, and caſt ſeparately, and theſe are afterwards joined to make up the whole deſign. Some of this buſineſs keep ſhop; they take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may earn twenty or twenty-five ſhillings a week, or ſet up with fifty pounds; though if he takes a ſhop, and would make a handſome appearance, it will require three hundred pounds.

PLAISTERER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs, ought to have a quick apprehenſion; and a good deal of ſtrength, eſpecially in his arms, on account of his being obliged to work much above his head: if he is an ingenious boy, he may, when out of his time, perform ſome of the buſineſs performed by the workers in ſtucco. As to his education, it is abſolutely neceſſary, that beſides writing and common arithmetic, he ſhould be well verſed in menſuration, as he is paid for plaiſtering and whitewaſhing by the ſquare yard. The maſters take with an apprentice from five to ten pounds; he works from ſix to ſix, in which hours a journeyman may earn from two ſhillings and ſix-pence to four ſhillings. Fifty pounds will furniſh him with tools and ſtuff ſufficient to begin with as a maſter, and what he wants more will be in proportion to the extent of his buſineſs, and the credit he thinks proper to give. Plaiſterers are generally out of buſineſs about four months in the year, except in jobbing.

PLANE-MAKER. This buſineſs requires a tolerable degree of ſtrength, ſome genius, but no more than a common education is neceſſary. The plane, which is of ſuch general uſe in all the branches of carpentry, joinery, and cabinet-makers work, is a tool ſo different in ſize and ſhape, and requires ſuch exactneſs, that the making of the wood work is a ſeparate employment; but there are not many of this buſineſs. The maſters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, who works from ſix to eight; and, when out of his time, may earn ſixteen or eighteen ſhillings a week; or, with fifty or a hundred pounds, may ſet up maſter.

PLANTATIONS. A plantation, or colony, is a place whither people are ſent to dwell, with an allowance of land for their tillage, and immunities for the good of themſelves and the ſtate they belong to.

A nation, or people, being expelled out of their own land, may ſeek waſtes in ſome other country, and ſuch poſſeſſion creates a property againſt all perſons, but him that hath empire there; and if, before they can reap the fruits of their labour, they are in want of neceſſaries, by the laws of nature they may force a ſubſiſtence from a neighbour planter; for ſubſiſtence belongs to every man, who hath not merited to loſe his life. The written laws are conformable to this; by which, if proviſions fail at ſea, thoſe who laid in particular ſtores for the voyage, muſt

produce

produce them for the benefit of all. Our plantations abroad are chiefly the iſles of Jamaica and Barbadoes in America, with ſome others, which are much frequented by unfortunate perſons, who oftentimes become wealthy there. The Engliſh plantations in general are, beſides theſe iſles, Virginia, Maryland, New-England, New-York, Carolina, Bermudas, the ſettlement of Georgia, and, ſince the laſt peace, Canada, and its dependencies, with Florida, &c. We have alſo ſome other ſettlements in Aſia and Africa.

Plantations, Britiſh, in Aſia, Africa, or America. No goods to be imported into, or exported from thence, in any other but ſhips of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, or the ſaid plantations, wholly owned by the people thereof, and whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners, are of the ſaid places (except ſhips taken as prize, and legally condemned, navigated by the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners Britiſh, or of the ſaid plantations, and owned by Britiſh) upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods: one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor, one third to the ſeizer and informer. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2, 3.

Admirals and other commanders of ſhips of war are to ſeize, as prize, all ſhips offending, and to deliver them to the court of admiralty. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1.

Ships not to be deemed or paſs as of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or the Britiſh plantations, ſo as to be qualified to trade, till regiſtered by the owners, and proof of the built and property be made upon the oath of one or more of them, before the collector and comptroller of the port of Great-Britain or Ireland, to which they then belong, or before the governor and principal officers of the revenue in the plantations, Guernſey or Jerſey, if the ſhip belongs to thoſe places, in the words following, viz.

"*Jurat.* A. B. That the ſhip of whereof is at preſent maſter, being a of tons, was built at in the year , and that of and of . &c. are at preſent owners thereof, and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, part, or intereſt therein." 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 17.

Such oath to be regiſtered by the perſons who adminiſtered it, and atteſted under their hands and ſeals, and then delivered to the maſter; and a duplicate thereof immediately tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.

For want of ſuch proof, ſhips trading thither are liable to forfeiture, as if they were foreign ſhips. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 18.

But prize ſhips legally condemned muſt be ſpecially regiſtered, mentioning the capture and condemnation, inſtead of the time and place of building; with proof upon oath, that the entire property is Britiſh. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſect.* 19.

The name of a ſhip charged after regiſtering, or the property transferred to another port, ſuch ſhip to be regiſtered *de novo*, and the former certificate thereof to be cancelled; and if the property be altered in the ſame port by the ſale of any ſhare, it muſt be acknowledged by indorſement on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 21.

Ships lading or unlading any goods in the Britiſh plantations, and the maſters and their ladings, are ſubject to the ſame rules, viſitations, ſearches, penalties, and forfeitures, as in Great-Britain (except under the regulations hereafter mentioned.) 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 6.

Sugar, tobacco, cotton wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtick or other dying wood, rice (except under the regulations hereafter mentioned,) melaſſes, hemp, copper-ore, beaver-ſkins or other furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards and bowſprits of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, Aſia or Africa, may not be carried from thence, unleſs to ſome other Britiſh plantations, or to the kingdom of Great-Britain only, to be there landed, upon forfeiture of the ſaid goods, or their value, with the ſhip and furniture. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 18. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 10, 11. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 3 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 5, 10. *ſ.* 12, 7. 12 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 1. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15, 18. *ſ.* 25, 22. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 4. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28, 35. *ſ.* 6, 17. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 1.

And if upon any pretence whatſoever, any goods of the Britiſh plantations in America be landed in Ireland, without being firſt landed in Great-Britain, and the duties thereof there paid, they are forfeited, with the ſhip; three-fourths without compoſition to his majeſty, and one-fourth to the ſuer; unleſs ſtranded or driven in by leakineſs, &c. in which caſe the goods muſt be delivered into the cuſtody of the chief officer of the port, there to remain till reſhipped for Great-Britain, for which good ſecurity muſt be taken. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 14, 15.

Now to extend only to ſugars, tobacco, cotton wool, indigo, ginger, ſpeckle-wood, or Jamaica wood, fuſtick or other dying wood, rice, melaſſes, beaver-ſkins, and other furs, copper-ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, and bowſprits of the growth, product, or manufacture of the ſaid plantations. All other goods of the growth, product, and manufacture of any of the ſaid plantations, may be imported from thence into Ireland (except hops, which are to continue under the regulations of 9 *Ann. c.* 12. and 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12.) provided it be in Britiſh ſhipping, whereof the maſter and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners are Britiſh. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 1, 2. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 1.

But rice may be ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia in America, by Britiſh ſubjects, on board any ſhip built in Great-Britain, or belonging to Britiſh ſubjects reſiding in Great-Britain, and legally navigated, that has cleared outwards, in any port of Great-Britain, for Carolina or Georgia; and may be carried directly to any part of Europe lying ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, without being firſt carried to any other Britiſh plantation, or to Great-Britain, provided the maſter before clearing takes out a licence, under the hands of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, for the loading and carrying of the rice accordingly; which licence muſt be granted upon a certificate of the collector and comptroller of the port, that bond has been given, that none of the other enumerated goods ſhall be taken on board at any Britiſh plantation, unleſs for the ſhip's uſe, and that the ſhip ſhall proceed directly with the rice according to the licence, and there land it, and then proceed to Great-Britain before ſhe returns to any Britiſh plantation. The maſter, within four months after arrival, not producing a certificate of the regular diſcharge of ſuch rice, under the hand and ſeal of the Britiſh conſul, or of two known Britiſh merchants, the bond muſt be put in ſuit. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 1, 2, 6. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

Before rice may be ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia, the licence and certificate of bond being given, muſt be produced to the collector; and before the maſter's departure, he muſt make oath in writing, whether he intends to load any rice, and to what place bound. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 3. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

Before rice may be ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia, the exporter muſt make entry thereof with the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, and take out a cocket, whereon he muſt indorſe, before ſhipping, the true quantity intended to be ſhipped, mentioning the marks, numbers, and contents of each caſk, and deliver the ſame to the ſearcher. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 4. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

If upon weighing and examining of the rice by the ſearcher, either before or after the ſhipping, the quantity be found to exceed the indorſement, or the rice be laden before entry, &c. it is forfeited, with treble the value, beſides the veſſel; one-third whereof to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the informer. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 4. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

Before the ſhip's departure, the maſter is to receive back the licence, with the marks, numbers, and contents of each caſk, indorſed thereon by the collector, comptroller, and naval-officer, who are to make two copies of ſuch licence and indorſement; which are to be atteſted by the maſter, and left with the officers. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 4. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

The maſter, on his return to Great-Britain, muſt produce the licence ſo indorſed, to the officer of the port where bond was given, and likewiſe a certificate of the conſul or two Britiſh merchants, teſtifying the due landing of the rice, and that they verily believe that no other enumerated goods have been there landed. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 4. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

Officers in Carolina or Georgia muſt tranſmit one of the copies of the indorſement; to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms;

cuſtoms; and upon receipt thereof, or of the indorſed licence, the half ſubſidy for the rice ſhipped in Carolina or Georgia, muſt be demanded of the perſon who gave the bond; and in caſe of non-payment within thirty days, the bond muſt be put in ſuit. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 5. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

For every ſhip bound to the ſaid plantations, ſailing from Great-Britain or Ireland, ſufficient bond muſt be there given, with one ſurety, to the chief officer of the cuſtoms, to the value of one thouſand pounds, if under ten tons, and to two thouſand pounds if above that burthen, that if any of the aforeſaid enumerated goods are taken on board, they ſhall, by the ſaid ſhip, be brought to ſome port of Great-Britain, and there landed: and for all ſhips coming to the ſaid plantations from any other place, before they begin to load any of the ſaid enumerated goods, the like bond muſt be given to the governor, that ſuch goods ſhall be carried to ſome other Britiſh plantation, or to Great-Britain, the condition of ſuch bond to be, to produce a certificate, within eighteen months, of the legal diſcharge of the goods; and the ſurety in ſuch bond named muſt be of known reſidence and ability. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 19. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 11. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 13.

Ships taking in goods, before a certificate of bond being given in Great-Britain is produced, or bond be given in the plantations, or carrying the goods contrary to the tenor of the bond, are forfeited.

Governors are to return yearly, at leaſt, a liſt of all ſhips which have taken in any of the aforeſaid goods, and alſo true copies of all the bonds by them taken to the chief officers of the cuſtoms in London. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 19. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 12.

Ships belonging to the ſaid plantations, landing any of the aforeſaid enumerated goods in any place in Europe, except Great-Britain, are forfeited with their furniture, &c. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 12.

Such ſhips may be proſecuted by any perſon in any court of Admiralty in Great-Britain. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 13.

Ships coming to the ſaid plantations to take in any of the following enumerated goods, with intent to carry the ſame to ſome other Britiſh plantation, bond not having been firſt given to bring the ſame to Great-Britain only, there muſt be paid for ſuch goods the following duties, viz.

| | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sugar, white, the hundred weight | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| Sugar, brown, and muſcovadoes, the hundred weight | 0 | 1 | 6 |
| Tobacco, the pound | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Cotton wool, the pound | 0 | 0 | 0½ |
| Indigo, the pound | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Ginger, the hundred weight | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Logwood, the hundred weight | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Fuſtick, and all other dying wood, the hundred weight | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Cocoa nuts, the pound | 0 | 0 | 1 |

And ſecurity muſt be taken to carry them to ſuch plantations, or to Great-Britain. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 3. 7 and 8 *Will.* and *Mar.* *c.* 22. *ſ.* 8. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 4.

But if the proprietor has not money to pay the ſaid duties, the officers may take ſuch a proportion of the goods as will amount to the value of the duties. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 5.

The aforeſaid duties to be under the management and direction of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 4.

Proſecutions for the breach or non-performance of the conditions of bonds, to bring the enumerated goods to Great-Britain, or to ſome other plantations, not commenced within three years after their date, or judgment not obtained within two years after the commencement of the proſecution, the ſaid bonds are void, and muſt be delivered up to be cancelled.

Officers, upon demand, refuſing or neglecting to deliver up ſuch bonds to be cancelled, are to anſwer to the party grieved all his damages, with treble coſts of ſuit. 8 *Ann.* *c.* 13. *ſ.* 23, 25.

Ships from Ireland may not break bulk till the maſter has ſignified his arrival, and delivered a true inventory or invoice of the lading, to the governor, with a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expreſſing the particulars of the lading, &c. and has made oath that the goods are the ſame which he took on board by virtue of ſuch certificate, and the ſhip be viſited and ſearched by an officer, upon forfeiture thereof, and all woollen manufactures found on board, not having been laden in Great-Britain, and of any linen goods not laden in Great-Britain, nor of the manufacture of Ireland; one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor (if there ſeized or ſued for, otherwiſe that third alſo to his majeſty) and one-third to the ſuer.

But ſuch ſhips to be ſubject to the ſame rules, ſearches, penalties, forfeitures, &c. as ſhips coming from Great-Britain to the ſaid colonies. 3 and 4 *Ann.* *c.* 8. *ſ.* 2, 3. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1.

Ships coming to any Britiſh plantations, &c. may not lade nor unlade any goods, till the maſter has declared his arrival to the governor, with his own and veſſel's names, and has ſhown him that his veſſel is Britiſh-built, or was taken as prize, and is navigated with a Britiſh maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners Britiſh men, and has delivered him a true and perfect inventory or invoice of the lading, with the places where taken in, upon forfeiture of the ſhip, &c. and all the European goods that were not laden in Great-Britain. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 8. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2.

No goods of the product of Europe may be imported there, unleſs ſhipped in Great Britain, and carried directly from thence in Britiſh-built ſhipping, or ſhips taken as prize, whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners, are Britiſh, upon forfeiture of ſhip and goods; one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the governor (if ſeized or ſued for there, otherwiſe that third alſo to his majeſty) and one-third to the ſeizer or informer. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 6. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2.

Except ſalt from Europe for the fiſheries of New-England, Newfoundland, Penſilvania, and New-York, wines of and from the Madeiras and Azores, and horſes and victuals of and from Ireland, by Britiſh and in Britiſh ſhips. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 13 *G.* I. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. 3 *G.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 1.

And Iriſh linen cloth from Ireland, by Britiſh or Iriſh, ſo long as Britiſh linen is permitted to be imported into Ireland duty free. 3 and 4 *Ann.* *c.* 8. *ſ.* 1. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1.

Wool, woolfells, ſhortlings, mortlings, woolſtocks, worſted, bays or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſies, ſayes, frizes, druggets, cloth, ſerges, ſhalloons, or any other drapery, ſtuffs or woollen manufactures of the product or manufacture of the Britiſh plantations in America, may not be there laden on board any ſhip, nor upon any horſe, &c. with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods, and five hundred pounds. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 2, 19.

The treaſury and the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms may appoint officers of the Cuſtoms in any port of the Britiſh plantations. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 11.

The officers of the revenue there are to have the ſame powers and authorities, and to be ſubject to the ſame penalties and forfeitures, and to have the like aſſiſtance, as the officers of the Cuſtoms in Great-Britain. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22, 8. *ſ.* 6, 3.

Naval officers, within two months after entrance, or as ſoon as conveniently they can, are to give ſufficient ſecurity to the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, for the faithful performance of their duties, upon pain of diſability to execute their employments. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 5.

Governors there, before entrance upon their governments, or within ſix months after, are to take a ſolemn oath, to do their utmoſt, that every thing enjoined by theſe acts ſhall be obſerved. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 69.

Neglecting their duty accordingly, are to be removed, rendered incapable of any other government, and to forfeit one thouſand pounds. 12 *Car.* II. *cap.* 18. *ſect.* 2. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 8. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 4.

Aliens, or perſons not born within his majeſty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, may not be merchants or factors there, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattels; one-third to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the informer. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2.

Wharfingers, lightermen, bargemen, watermen, porters, &c. and the boats, veſſels, &c. are ſubject to the ſame pains, penalties, and forfeitures, for any frauds or offences,

as in Great-Britain. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 6. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 3.

Laws, by-laws, uſages, or cuſtoms in force or practice in the plantations, repugnant to the laws of Great-Britain, are null and void. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 9.

Upon actions, ſuits, and informations upon laws concerning his majeſty's duties, or ſhips or goods to be forfeited for unlawful importation or exportation, the jury to conſiſt only of natives of Great-Britain or Ireland, or perſons born in the plantations. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 11.

Penalties and forfeitures by this act, not particularly diſpoſed of, are to be, one-third to the king, one-third to the governor, and one-third to the ſuer. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 7.

Certificates of having given bond in Great-Britain or Ireland, ſuſpected to be falſe or counterfeit, the governor, or officers of the Cuſtoms, may take ſufficient ſecurity there, for the due diſcharge of the lading in Great-Britain: and if certificates of the diſcharge of any ſuch lading are ſuſpected, the bond there given may not be cancelled, till they are informed of the truth of ſuch certificates from the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms.

Certificates, cockets, returns, or permits counterfeited, razed, or falſified, or afterwards knowingly ſo uſed; the offender to forfeit five hundred pounds. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 10.

Hats or felts are not to be ſhipped on board any veſſel, or loaded on any horſe, cart, or other carriage, in order to be conveyed out of any of the Britiſh plantations, to any other of the Britiſh plantations, or to any other place whatſoever, upon forfeiture of the hats or felts, and alſo five hundred pounds, by every offender for every ſuch offence.

Any maſter of a veſſel, mariner, porter, carrier, waggoner, boatman, or other perſon, knowingly aiding and aſſiſting in ſuch offence, forfeits forty pounds. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 1, 2.

No commiſſioner or officer of the Cuſtoms, or farmer of the Cuſtoms in the Britiſh plantations, is to take any entry outwards, or ſign any cocket, &c. for the exporting any hats or felts, or knowingly permit or contrive the ſame to be done, upon forfeiture of his office, and alſo five hundred pounds. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 4.

Any perſon may ſeize and convey to his majeſty's next warchouſe all ſuch hats and felts which he ſhall find in any ſhip or boat, or laid on or near the ſhore, or in any navigable river, or upon any horſe or carriage, with intent to be exported and conveyed as above. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 5.

Every offence committed againſt this act may be tried in any place in Great-Britain or the plantations, either where the offence was committed, or the offender or goods are found. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 5.

Rum or ſpirits, molaſſes or ſyrups, ſugars or panneles of the product of any plantation in America, not in the poſſeſſion of his majeſty, imported into any of the Britiſh plantations in America, are to pay the following duties in money of Great Britain, according to the value of five ſhillings and ſix-pence *per* ounce in ſilver; viz.

| | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Rum or ſpirits, the gallon | 0 | 0 | 9 |
| Molaſſes or ſyrups, the gallon | 0 | 0 | 6 |
| Sugars and panneles, the hundred weight | 0 | 5 | 0 |

And ſo in proportion for a greater or leſſer quantity, to be paid down in ready money before landing. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1, 2.

Any of the ſaid goods landed before due entry and payment of the duty, or without warrant from the proper officer, are forfeited, and may be ſeized by the governor, or any perſon authorized by him, or by warrant of a juſtice or other magiſtrate, or by any cuſtom, impoſt, or exciſe officer, or their aſſiſtants. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 3.

Any perſon aſſiſting in the unlawful landing, or receiving into their cuſtody any of the aforeſaid goods ſo landed, are to forfeit treble the value; and for moleſting the officer in the execution of his duty, fifty pounds; and to ſuffer three months impriſonment.

Officers conniving at the ſaid offence are to forfeit fifty pounds, and be rendered incapable of holding any employment under his majeſty. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 5, 6.

Maſters of ſhips, being his majeſty's ſubjects, receiving on board any of the aforeſaid goods, in order to land the ſame contrary to the true intent of this act, are to forfeit one hundred pounds. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 7.

Such offences and forfeitures may be proſecuted, within two years after the offence, in any court of admiralty or record in his majeſty's plantations where the offence is committed; and the forfeiture is to be divided, one-third to his majeſty, (which (the expences of proſecution being firſt paid thereout) is to be applied for the ſupport of the government of the colony where it ſhall be recovered) one-third to the governor, and one-third to the informer or proſecutor. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 3, 11, 12.

In all ſuch proſecutions for illegal landing the ſaid goods, the *onus probandi* is to lie on the claimer or owner thereof. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 8.

Any of his majeſty's ſubjects in any veſſel built in Great-Britain, and belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, of which the major part reſide in Great-Britain, and the reſidue either in Great-Britain, or in ſome of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America; or in any veſſel belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects reſiding in Great-Britain, and navigated according to law, that ſhall clear outwards from Great-Britain to any of the ſaid colonies, may ſhip ſugars of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the ſaid colonies, to carry to any foreign part of Europe; provided a licence be firſt taken out for that purpoſe, under the hands of three of the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, ſubject to the regulations and on the conditions following, viz.

The maſter or owner of the veſſel muſt give notice in writing to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port, where the veſſel lies, of his intention to proceed to the ſaid colonies to lade ſugars for ſome other part of Europe than Great-Britain, and enter into bond with one or more ſufficient ſecurities, in the ſum of one thouſand pounds if the ſhip be of leſs burden than a hundred tons, and two thouſand pounds if ſhe be of that, or a greater burden, on condition that, if a licence be granted, the ſhip ſhall proceed to the ſaid colonies; that he ſhall deliver the licence to the collector, comptroller, and naval officer there, if he intends to make uſe of the liberty granted by it, which he ſhall declare in writing to them before he takes any goods on board; and that no tobacco, molaſſes, ginger, cotton, wool, indigo, fuſtic, or other dying wood, tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, maſt, yards, bowſprits, copper ore, beaver ſkins, or other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the Britiſh plantations in America, ſhall be taken on board, unleſs for neceſſary proviſions in the voyage; that, before the veſſel proceds to any foreign port, ſhe ſhall touch at ſome port in Great-Britain, and that the maſter ſhall deliver to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller a true manifeſt, atteſted upon oath, of the whole lading, with the marks, numbers, package, and contents, and produce the licence, with a certificate of the marks, numbers, package, and contents, and ſorts of ſugar on board, that the veſſel ſhall return to Great-Britain within eight months after delivering the lading in any foreign part, and before ſhe returns to any of the plantations in America; and that, if ſhe takes any goods on board before her return to Great-Britain, they ſhall be entered and landed as other ſhips are obliged to do by the laws of the Cuſtoms. Then a licence is to be granted for that voyage only, to load and carry ſugars of the growth and production of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, to any foreign part, according to the purport and intention of this act, provided the maſter makes oath as follows:

" *Jurat.* A. B. that the ſhip or veſſel, called the [*name*] whereof he, this deponent or affirmant, is maſter, and hath the charge and command for this preſent voyage to [*place bound to*] being [*deſcribe the built*] ſhip or veſſel of this burden of [*number*] tons, was built at [*place*] in the year [*time when*] and that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel is wholly owned by the perſon or perſons whoſe name or names and uſual place or places of abode is or are under-mentioned, and ſubſcribed by this deponent or affirmant, and that ſuch owner or owners is or are his majeſty's Britiſh ſubject or ſubjects, and that no foreigner directly or indirectly hath any ſhare, part, or intereſt in the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, to the beſt of this deponent's or affirmant's knowledge or belief, and that he, this deponent or affirmant, and three-fourths of the mariners navigating the ſaid ſhip or veſſel are his

in making very neat cheſts of various forms and ſizes, for holding gold and ſilver plate. The maſters take ten or fifteen pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get about eighteen ſhillings a week; or, with about fifty pounds, may ſet up maſter.

PLEDGE. Pledges in ſtatute merchant ſhall be anſwerable if the principal be inſufficient. *Stat. de Mercator.* 11 *Edw.* I.

Poor plaintiffs not to find pledges, *Stat. Wall.* 12 *Ed.* I. but to give caution *per fidem, Ibid.*

Pledges may be bound as principal debtors. *Stat. de Mercator.* 13 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 3.

Fines to be taken in preſence of pledges. 38 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 3.

PLESKOW. *See* LIVONIA.

PLOUGH, in agriculture, a well known machine for the breaking up of ground, that conſiſts of a train, and two large irons, namely, the coulter and ſhare; the one pointed, the other edged.

The ſtructure and contrivance of the plough is various in various kinds of ground; the chief of which are as follows:

*Double-wheeled plough*, uſed throughout Hertfordſhire, &c. It is one of the beſt, ſtrongeſt, and eaſieſt draughts of any, and ſuits all kinds of land, except miry clays in winter.

*Lincolnſhire plough*, is very good for fenny lands, ſubject to weeds and ſedges, but free from ſtones.

*Suſſex ſingle-wheel plough*, a plough invented to cut drains about Caxton in Cambridgeſhire, in ſtiff miry clay grounds. It has two coulters, one before the other, which, bending inwards, cut each ſide of the trench, which is a foot wide at bottom, a foot and a half at top, and a foot deep: this plough is drawn by twenty horſes.

*Dray plough*, is the moſt common: it is made without wheel or foot, of an eaſy draught, beſt in winter for miry clays, where the land is ſoft.

*Spaniſh plough*, is a kind of ſemicircle, pitched on one end, with the convex ſide turned to the ploughman, and the concave ſide, a little inclined, to the horſe: its tail is in a right line to the ſhare.

With this plough and one horſe, the Spaniards plough two or three acres in a day.

*Colcheſter plough*, is a fine light-wheel plough, which, with two horſes, will cut up two acres of their land in a day. It has an iron-earth board made-rounding, which turns the turf better than any other plough.

*One-wheel plough*, may be uſed in any ground.

*Double plough.* In this there is one plough fixed to the ſide of another, ſo that by means of four horſes and two men, a double furrow is ploughed. Add to theſe another kind whereby two furrows are ploughed at once, one under another, whereby the earth is ſtirred up twelve or fourteen inches deep.

PLOUGH, among bookbinders, is a tool with which the leaves of books are cut ſmooth.

PLOUGHING, one of the principal operations in agriculture performed by the plough.

This is principally either of lays or of fallows.

*Ploughing of lays*, is the firſt cutting up of graſs ground for corn; which is uſually done in January, when the earth is wet, and the turf tough, ſo as to hold turning without breaking.

*Ploughing of fallows*, or fallowing, is a preparing of land by ploughing, long before it be ploughed for ſeed. This is a conſiderable benefit to lands, few of which will bear above two crops ſucceſſively without ſuch reſpite.

There are commonly three fallowings; the firſt is, as ſoon as the huſbandman has done ſowing; and this is to be very ſhallow, well turned, and clapped cloſe together: the ſecond is in June, when they go the full depth; the third, about the beginning of Auguſt. If it riſe full of clods, they harrow it down; but ſoon ſtrick-ſize, or plough it up again into ridges.

In Staffordſhire, beſides the three ſummer fallowings, they give their land a winter fallowing. This ploughing of land four times Virgil recommends.

PLUMBER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs, ought to have ſtrength of body, and a healthy conſtitution, to withſtand the unhappy effects of the lead. The plumber caſts leaden pipes, ſheets of lead, and, ſometimes leaden ſtatues. In caſting leaden ciſterns, he makes uſe of a long kind of trough of a proper breadth, covered at bottom with ſifted ſand, which is laid perfectly level. On this ſand the impreſſion is made of the mouldings that are to go round the front of the ciſtern, by preſſing upon it a wooden moulding of the ſame form; and the other ornaments uſually ſeen on ciſterns, as any kind of beaſt, or bird, are alſo impreſſed in the ſand from leaden or wooden figures made for that purpoſe. This being done, a more than ſufficient quantity of lead is melted in a copper, and afterwards laded into a ſtrong wooden veſſel at the end of the trough, or long bench, with a board on each ſide, which extends the whole breadth; and being filled, the plumber takes hold of the long end of a lever fixed to the cieling, to the ſhort end of which is a chain fixed to the veſſel filled with lead, and in an inſtant he turns the lead into the trough. He then immediately takes a ſtrong thick piece of wood, made to bear upon the ſides of the trough, and to approach ſo near to the ſand, as to leave a vacancy anſwerable to the thickneſs of the ſheet of lead: this kind of ſtrickle he puts into the trough, and another perſon taking the other end, they ſwiftly move along, ſweeping the melted lead before them, till reaching the other end, the remainder falls into a receiver. In this manner all ſheets of lead are caſt; only no figures or mouldings are impreſſed in the ſand. The ciſtern being thus caſt, the ſides are doubled up from the front, and bent again to form the back, where they are ſoldered together; and then the bottom is cut out of a ſheet of lead, and ſoldered on.

They caſt pipes in a cylindrical tube of about a yard long, which ſtands on one end, has hinges, and can be opened and ſhut. This tube has a round piece of iron that runs through it. Into this tube they pour the melted lead, and inſtantly plucking out the iron, by means of a lever, to which it is fixed by a chain, they open the tube, take out the pipe, and inſtantly ſhutting it, put in the iron, and caſt another as before. Theſe pipes, when uſed, are afterwards made of any length, by being ſoldered together.

The plumbers take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get fifteen ſhillings or a guinea a week; or, if he has a hundred pounds, he may ſet up for himſelf.

PLUSH, in commerce, a kind of ſtuff with a ſort of velvet nap or ſhag on one ſide, conſiſting of a woof of a ſingle woollen thread, and a double warp; the one of two woollen threads twiſted, the other goat's or camel's hair; though there are pluſhes entirely of worſted, others of hair, and others again of cotton, &c.

It is manufactured like velvet on a loom with three treadles: two of which ſeparate and depreſs the woollen warp, and the third raiſes the hair warp, upon which the workman, throwing the ſhuttle, paſſes the woof between the woollen and hair warp; and afterwards, laying a braſs broach or needle under that of the hair, he cuts it thereon with a knife deſtined for that purpoſe, conducting the knife on the broach, which is made a little hollow all its length; and thus gives the ſurface of the pluſh an appearance of velvet.

Whoever were the inventors of pluſh, whether the Engliſh, or Dutch, it is certain the French make the moſt of it, there being ſeveral very conſiderable pluſh manufactures at Amiens, Abbeville, and Compeigne.

There are other kinds of pluſh, all of ſilk, ſome of which have a pretty long nap on one ſide, and ſome on both.

POCKET of wool, is half a ſack. 3 *Inſt. f.* 96.

POINT, *or* CUT-WORK. Foreign point or cut-work not to be ſold in England, or exported or imported, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. Engliſh point or cut-work may be exported duty-free, 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 3. *f.* 15.

POITOU. Grain, wine, cheſnuts, hemp, and wool, are the products of this province; the meadows, whoſe herbage is an excellent paſture, enable the inhabitants to raiſe and feed a great number of large and ſmall cattle, of horſes and mules, with which they carry on a very conſiderable trade. The beſt ſtuds of horſes are in the twelve pariſhes, called the Wood of Eſtos, in four of which there are ſalt marſhes.

At Partinay, Niort, Fontenoy, Thouars, and many other places of their diſtricts, are made cloths, druggets, ſerges, and linſey woolſeys; at Niort alſo chamois is prepared;

pared; woollen ſtockings and caps at St. Maixant, and hardware are Chatellerault.

Twenty-five thouſand pound of wool is gathered in this province, beſides which there is brought from Spain about ſix hundred thouſand pound, of which, from twenty to thirty thouſand pieces of ſtuffs are annually made; and here are only three forges of iron, and two paper-mills.

POLAND. This trade is of no great importance, though it is not ſo ſmall neither as to be left out in a work of this nature, as it takes off pretty large quantities of our manufactures, though principally from the Dutch: Poland has no other ports than Dantzick and Elbing, from whence we import naval ſtores (as from Denmark and Sweden) with ſome iron, ſteel, pot-aſhes, ſturgeon, linen, and ſail-cloth; and in return, ſend them ſeveral ſorts of woollens, herrings, mercery, and drapery; ſome tobacco, ſugar, rice, &c. as we do to the Stetiners in Pruſſia, though from thence we receive but very little in return. Dantzick alſo furniſhes us with ſpruce beer and bees-wax, as both this and Stetin do with Eaſt Country plank. *See* DANTZICK.

POLE, in geography, the extremity of the earth's axis, or one of the points on the ſurface of our globe, through which the axis paſſes.

POLE, in ſpherics, a point equally diſtant from every part of the circumference of a great circle of the ſphere, as the center is in a plain figure; or it is a point ninety degrees diſtant from the plane of a circle, and in a line, called the axis, paſſing perpendicularly through the center. The zenith and nadir are the poles of the horizon; and the poles of the equator are the ſame with thoſe of the ſphere.

POLE, *perch*, or *rod*, in ſurveying, is a meaſure containing ſixteen feet and a half, otherwiſe called a rod or perch.

POLE, or *polar ſtar*, is a ſtar of the ſecond magnitude, the laſt in the tail of *Urſa Minor*.

Its longitude Mr. Flamſtead makes 24 deg. 14 min. 41 ſec.; its latitude, 66 deg. 4 min. 11 ſec.

The nearneſs of this ſtar to the pole, whence it happens that it never ſets, renders it of vaſt ſervice in navigation, &c. for determining the meridian line, the elevation of the pole, and, conſequently, the latitude of the place, &c.

POLE, a copper money ſtruck at Boghar, an ancient province of Perſia, at preſent governed by its own prince, one hundred and twenty of which go to the ſilver coin of the country, worth about one hundred and twenty ſols Tournois, though this value is not always certain, as it riſes or falls as the prince pleaſes.

POLICY. *See* INSURANCE.

POLISHER, or burniſher, an inſtrument uſed for poliſhing and burniſhing gold, ſilver, and other metals, when gilt or ſilvered, or any other matters proper to take a poliſh.

The gilders uſe an iron poliſher to prepare their metals before gilding, and the blood-ſtone to give them the bright poliſh after gilding.

The poliſher uſed by the makers of ſpurs and bits, &c. is partly iron, partly ſteel, and partly wood; it conſiſts of an iron bar with a wooden handle at one end, and a hook at the other, to faſten it to another piece of wood held in the vice, while the operator is at work. In the middle of the bow within ſide, is what is properly called the poliſher, being a triangular piece of ſteel with a tail, whereby it is riveted to the bow.

The poliſhers, among cutlers, are a kind of wooden grind-ſtones made of walnut-tree, about an inch thick, and of a diameter at pleaſure, which are turned round by the great wheel: upon theſe they ſmooth and poliſh their works with emery and putty.

The poliſhers for glaſs conſiſt of two pieces of wood; the one flat, covered with an old hat; the other long and half round, faſtened on the former, whoſe edge it exceeds on both ſides by ſome inches, which ſerve the workmen to take hold of, and to work backwards and forwards by.

The poliſhers, uſed by ſpectacle-makers, are pieces of wood a foot long, ſeven or eight inches broad, and an inch and a half thick, covered with old beaver hat, whereon they poliſh the ſhell and horn-frames their ſpectacle-glaſſes are to be ſet in.

POLISHING, the art of giving a gloſs to a thing, as a precious ſtone, marble, glaſs, mirrour, &c.

POLISHING *and grinding of glaſſes*, &c. In order to grind plate-glaſs, they lay it horizontally upon a flat ſtone table, made of a very fine grained free-ſtone; and, for its greater ſecurity, they plaiſter it down with lime or ſtucco. For, otherwiſe, the force of the workmen, or the motion of the wheel with which they grind, would move it about.

This ſtone table is ſupported by a ſtrong frame made of wood, with a ledge quite round its edges, riſing about two inches higher than the glaſs. Upon this glaſs, to be ground, is laid another rough glaſs, not above half ſo big, and ſo looſe as to ſlide upon it; but cemented to a wooden plank to guard it from the injury it muſt otherwiſe receive from the ſcraping of the wheel, to which this plank is faſtened; and from the weights laid upon it to promote the grinding, or triture of the glaſſes. The whole is covered with a wheel made of hard light wood, about ſix inches diameter; by pulling of which backwards and forwards alternately, and ſometimes turning it round, the workmen, who always ſtand oppoſite to each other, produce a conſtant attrition between the two glaſſes, and bring them to what degree of ſmoothneſs they pleaſe, by firſt pouring in water and coarſe ſand; after that a finer ſort of ſand, as the work advanceth; till at laſt you muſt pour in the powder of ſmalt. As the upper or incumbent glaſs poliſhes and grows ſmoother, it muſt be taken away, and another from time to time put in its place.

This engine is called a mill by the artiſts, and is uſed only in the grinding of the largeſt ſize glaſſes: for, in the grinding of the leſſer glaſſes, they are content to work without a wheel, and to have only four wooden handles faſtened to the four corners of the ſtone which loads the upper plank, by which they work it about.

When the grinder has done his part, who finds it very difficult to bring the glaſs to an exact plainneſs, it is turned over to the care of the poliſher, who, with the fine powder of Tripoli ſtone or emery, brings it to a perfect evenneſs and luſtre. The inſtrument made uſe of in this branch, is a board furniſhed with a felt and a ſmall roller, which the workman moves by means of a double handle, at both ends. The artiſt, in working of this roller, is aſſiſted by a wooden hoop or ſpring, to the end of which it is fixed; for the ſpring, by conſtantly bringing the roller back to the ſame points, facilitates the action of the workman's arm.

POLITICAL. *See* ARITHMETIC.

POLIUM, *poley*, a medicinal plant, which is an ingredient in the treacle of Andromachus.

It reſiſts putrefaction, provokes urine, removes obſtructions of the menſes, and cures the jaundice. An infuſion of the leaves and flowers is beneficial in lethargic diſorders, and, conſequently, in epilepſies. What the *polium* of the ancients was we know not. It is ſaid to be beneficial againſt the bites of poiſonous animals.

POLL-MONEY, was a tax ordained by act of parliament. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 1. and 19 *Car.* II. *c.* 6. By the firſt of which every ſubject in this kingdom was aſſeſſed by the head or poll, according to his degree, viz. every duke, one hundred pounds; every marquiſs, eighty pounds; barons, thirty pounds; knights, twenty pounds; eſquires, ten pounds; and every ſingle perſon, twelve pence, &c. And that this is no new tax, appears by former acts of parliament. There was anciently (ſays Cambden in his notes upon coins) a perſonal tribute called *capitatio* (poll-ſilver) impoſed upon the poll or perſon of every one, of women from the twelfth, of men from the fourteenth year of their age.

POLYPODY, *polypodium*, many feet, in botany, a plant of the paraſitical kind, of conſiderable uſe in medicine. There are two kinds of it, namely, common polopody, and polypody of the oak, or *polypodium quercinum*, which is reckoned much the better of the two.

The roots only are uſed in medicine, being accounted opening, and gently purging, being rarely given by themſelves, but put among thoſe purging ſimples which are ſtronger. They are ſuppoſed to purge bilous melancholic humours, to open obſtructions of the liver, to help the jaundice and dropſy, and provoke urine; they are guod for the ſcurvy, and are frequently an ingredient in antiſcorbutic diet-drinks.

POMATUM, *pomado*, a compoſition of apples with lard and roſe-water, uſed by way of unguent on many occaſions, particularly for pimples, ſcurfs, &c.

Pomatums are occaſionally perfumed with the odours of jeſſamines, oranges, jonquils, tuberoſes, &c.

The beſt is ſaid to be that prepared of kids greaſe, pippins, an orange ſliced, with a glaſs of roſe-water, and half a glaſs of white-wine boiled and ſtrained, and at laſt ſprinkled with oil of ſweet almonds.

As to the *unguentum pomatum*, ſee the College Diſpenſatory. Dr. Quincy obſerves, that the apple is of no ſignificancy at all, and that the common pomatum is only lard beat into a cream with roſe-water, and ſcented with oil of lemons, thyme, or the like.

POMEGRANATE, *malus punica*, *granata*, a medicinal fruit like an apple or quince, full of ſeeds, inclofed within a reddiſh pulp, containing either a ſweet vinous juice, or one more acrid and acerb.

Pomegranates grow in Spain, Italy, and many other countries, and flower in June, and the fruit is ripe in September.

Of the kernels are made ſyrups and conſerves; and the peel which is called *malicorium*, reckoned very aſtringent, is an ingredient in ſeveral remedies and ptiſans, for dyſenteries, diarrhæas, lienteries, hæmorrhages, and relaxations of the gums.

The ancients uſed the rind, as the moderns do ſumac, in the preparation of leather.

There is but little of the true conſerve made; that which ordinarily paſſes for it being only ſugar melted down, to which they give the colour and ſharp taſte with cochineal, cream of tartar, and alum.

POMERANIA. *See* STETTIN.

POMPHOLYX, in pharmacy, a kind of metalline fluor, being a white, light, friable ſubſtance, found adhering to the lid or covercle of crucibles or furnaces, wherein copper is melted with calamine ſtone for the making of braſs.

PONDICHERRY. *See* COROMANDEL COAST.

PONT, *or* PUNT, a long meaſure uſed in China; of which ten go to one cobre, and the cobre is about thirteen one-ſixth French inches.

POOLE-HARBOUR. By 29 *Geo.* II. *f.* 5. The mayor, bailiffs, burgeſſes, and collectors, &c. may demand payment of the ſeveral duties appointed by this act, in reſpect of goods, &c. imported into Poole harbour, and alſo of ballaſt duties and boomage, from the maſter of the veſſel wherein ſuch goods, &c. ſhall be imported, at the time he ſhall make his entry, with the officers of the cuſtoms, of the cargo of ſuch veſſel; and may alſo demand payment of the duties on goods, &c. exported from, reloaded at, or taken out of any other veſſel in the ſaid port or harbour, in order to be exported, from the maſter, at the time he ſhall clear out.

*Sect.* 6. On non-payment of the duties, the mayor, or any juſtice of the peace, of the town of Poole, may, by warrant, diſtrain or ſtop ſuch veſſel till the duties are paid, with the coſts and charges of ſuch diſtreſs.

*Sect.* 7. The maſter to deliver to the collector of the duties, in writing, an account of all goods on board, ſubject to theſe duties, on penalty of ten pounds for every offence.

*Sect.* 8. Salt and rice, for which the duty ſhall have been paid on importation, to be exempted.

*Sect.* 9. The maſter to forfeit forty ſhillings, if he refuſes or neglects to ſtation his veſſel in ſuch place as the quay-maſter ſhall aſſign for taking in or throwing out ballaſt, for loading or unloading his veſſel.

*Sect.* 16. All goods, landed on any quay or wharf, ſhall be removed in three days from the landing, or the owners forfeit twelve-pence *per* ton, for every ton of goods remaining after that time, and likewiſe twelve-pence *per* ton, for every forty-eight hours they ſhall remain there.

*Sect.* 17. No perſon to empty any ballaſt, &c. into the harbour, on pain of being deemed a public nuiſance, and being puniſhed accordingly.

*Sect.* 18. Twenty hundred weight of ſcale goods, or two hundred and fifty-two gallons of liquids, or forty ſquare feet of meaſurable goods, to be deemed a ton. If any diſpute ariſes as to tonage, to be determined by the mayor and two juſtices, and four younger brothers of the Trinity-houſe, or the majority of them.

The table or ſchedule of harbour-duties, quayage, or wharfage, boomage and ballaſt duties, chargeable on the goods, and to be paid by the maſter.

For every ton of goods, imported or exported, ſhipped or unſhipped, laden or unladen, in, on, or out of, any ſhip or veſſel, within the limits of the harbour of Poole, the ſum of three-pence *per* ton.

Provided it ſhall be lawful to import or export, &c. any goods into or from the channel, leading to Wareham, to the weſtward of the ſouth-weſt buoy, off the bulwarks of Hamkey, and near the entrance of the little channel, leading to Poole, free of the ſaid duty: neither ſhall any duty be paid by open boats, lighters or barges without decks, for bringing goods from Wareham, or any part of the channel, to the weſt of the ſouth-weſt buoy, or any part of the iſle of Purbeck, within North-haven Point aforeſaid; but, if the goods ſhall be imported in decked veſſels into or out of the little channel within Poole ſtakes, then the duties to be paid.

For boomage the following duties ſhall be paid, except for veſſels employed in fiſhing or dredging.

Every decked veſſel of ten tons burthen, or under, ſhall pay ſix-pence.

Ditto twenty tons, or above ten, one ſhilling.
Ditto thirty tons, or above twenty, two ſhillings.
Ditto forty tons, or above thirty, three ſhillings.
Ditto fifty tons, or above forty, four ſhillings.
Ditto ſixty tons, or above fifty, five ſhillings.
Ditto one hundred tons, or above ſixty, ſix ſhillings.
Ditto above one hundred tons, ſeven ſhillings.

For ballaſt the following duties ſhall be paid: for every ton of ballaſt, ſhipped or unſhipped within Poole ſtakes, ſix-pence. But it ſhall be lawful to ſhip or unſhip ballaſt in the channel leading to Wareham, to the weſtward of the ſouth-weſt buoy, or any part of the iſle of Purbeck, within North-haven Point, duty free. And no more than ſix-pence *per* ton ſhall be paid for unſhipping and ſhipping ballaſt within Poole ſtakes to careen.

Tobacco-pipe clay to be exempted from all duties.

POOR. By *ſtat.* 43 *Eliz. c.* 2. *f.* 1, 3. and 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *f.* 12. Aſſeſſments for the poor ought to be made according to the viſible eſtate of the inhabitants there, both real and perſonal, and no inhabitant there is to be taxed to contribute to the relief of the poor in regard of any eſtate he hath elſewhere in any other town or place, but only in regard of the viſible eſtate he hath in the town where he dwells, and not for any other land he hath in any other place or town; ſaid by Hutton and Croke J. to have been reſolved by all the judges of England upon a reference made to them, and upon a conference by them had together. 2 *Bulſ.* 354. 9 *Car. in Sir Anthony Earby's caſe.*

Rent is no ſtanding rule for making a poor rate; for circumſtances may differ, and there ought to be a regard *ad ſtatum & facultates. Comb.* 478. *Paſch.* 10 *Will.* III. B. R. *The king* v. *Juſtices of peace of the precinct of Catherine Church, Norwich.*

The ſeſſions upon ſetting aſide a rate may make a new one themſelves, or order the church-wardens and overſeers to make a new one, they having it in their diſcretion to make a new rate at ſeſſions, or remand it to the church-wardens, &c. to make a new one. 2 *Salk.* 483. *Mich.* 10 *Will.* III. B. R. *The pariſh of St. Leonard Shoreditch's caſe.*

The church-wardens and overſeers may make a rate of themſelves; *per cur.* 2 *Salk.* 531. *Hill.* 2 *Ann.* B. R. *in Tawney's caſe.*

*Dr. D'Avenant's Scheme for ſetting the Poor to work.*

Firſt, that ſuch perſons as ſhall ſubſcribe and pay the ſum of three hundred thouſand pounds as a ſtock for and towards the better maintaining the impotent poor, and for buying commodities and materials to employ and ſet at work the other poor, be incorporated and made one body politic, &c. by the name of the governor and company for maintaining and employing the poor of this kingdom.

By all former propoſitions, it was intended that the pariſhes ſhould advance ſeveral years rates to raiſe a ſtock; but, by this propoſal, the experiment is to be made by private perſons, at their riſk; and three hundred thouſand pounds may be judged a very good ſtock, which added to the poor's rate for a certain number of years, will be a very good fund for buying commodities and materials for a million of money at any time. This ſubſcription ought to be free for every body; and if the ſum were ſubſcribed in the ſeveral counties of England and Wales, in proportion to their poor rates, or the monthly aſſeſſment, it would be moſt convenient; and proviſion may be made, that no perſon

ſhall

ſhall transfer his intereſt but to one of the ſame county, which will keep the intereſt there during the term; and as to its being one corporation, it is preſumed this will be moſt beneficial to the public. For firſt, all diſputes on removes, which are very chargeable and burthenſome, will be at an end, this propoſal intending, that, wherever the poor are, they ſhall be maintained or employed. Secondly, it will prevent one county which ſhall be diligent, impoſing on their neighbours who may be negligent, or getting away their manufactures from them. Thirdly, in caſe of fire, plague, or loſs of manufacture, the ſtock of one county may not be ſufficient to ſupport the places where ſuch calamities may happen; and it is neceſſary the whole body ſhould ſupport every particular member; ſo that hereby there will be a general care to adminiſter to every place according to their neceſſities.

Secondly, That the ſaid corporation be eſtabliſhed for the term of twenty-one years.

The corporation ought to be eſtabliſhed for twenty-one years, or otherwiſe it cannot have the benefit the law gives in caſe of infants, which is their ſervice for their education; beſides, it will be ſome years before a matter of this nature can be brought into practice.

Thirdly, That the ſaid ſum of three hundred thouſand pounds be paid in, and laid out for the purpoſes aforeſaid, to remain as a ſtock, for and during the ſaid term of twenty-one years.

The ſubſcription ought to be taken at the paſſing of the act, but the corporation to be left at liberty to begin either the Michaelmas or the Lady-day after, as they ſhall think fit; and *per cent.* to be paid at the ſubſcribing, to perſons appointed for that purpoſe, and the remainder before they begin to act, but ſo as three hundred thouſand pounds ſhall be always in ſtock during the term, notwithſtanding any dividends, or other diſpoſition: and an account thereof to be exhibited twice in every year, upon oath, before the lord chancellor for the time being.

Fourthly, That the ſaid corporation do, by themſelves or agents, in every pariſh of England, from and after the day of during the ſaid term of twenty-one years, provide for the real impotent poor good and ſufficient maintainance and reception, as good, or better, than hath at any time within the ſpace of years before the ſaid day of being provided or allowed to ſuch impotent poor; and ſo ſhall continue to provide for ſuch impotent pnor, and what other growing impotents ſhall happen in the ſaid pariſh during the ſaid term.

By impotent poor is to be underſtood all infants and old decrepid perſons not able to work; alſo perſons who by ſickneſs, or any accident, are for the time unable to labour for themſelves or families; and all perſons (not being fit for labour) who were uſually relieved by the money raiſed for the uſe of the poor; they ſhall have maintenance, &c. as good, or better, as within years they uſed to have.

This does not directly determine what that ſhall be, nor is it poſſible, by reaſon a ſhilling in one country is as good as two in another; but it will be the intereſt of the corporation that ſuch poor be well provided for, by reaſon the contrary will occaſion all the complaints or clamour that probably can be made againſt the corporation.

Fifthly, That the corporation do provide (as well for all ſuch poor which on the ſaid day of ſhall be on the poor-books, as for what other growing poor ſhall happen in the ſaid term, who are or ſhall be able to labour or do any work) ſufficient labour and work proper for ſuch perſons to be employed in; and that proviſion ſhall be made for ſuch labouring perſons according to their labours, ſo as ſuch proviſion doth not exceed three-fourth parts as much as any other perſon would have paid for ſuch labour. And, in caſe they are not employed and ſet to work, then ſuch perſons ſhall, until materials or labour be provided for them, be maintained as impotent poor; but ſo as ſuch perſons who ſhall hereafter enter themſelves on the poor's books, being able to labour, ſhall not quit the ſervice of the corporation, without leave, for the ſpace of ſix months.

The corporation are to provide materials and labour for all that can work, and to make proviſion for them not exceeding three-fourth parts as much as any other perſon would give for ſuch labour. For example: if another perſon would give one of theſe a ſhilling, the corporation ought to give but nine-pence. And the reaſon is plain; firſt, becauſe the corporation will be obliged to maintain them and their families in all exigencies, which others are not obliged to do, and, conſequently, they ought not to allow ſo much as others. Secondly, in caſe any perſon able to labour ſhall come to the corporation, when their agents are not prepared with materials to employ them, by this propoſal they are to allow them full proviſion as impotent poor, until they find them work, which is intirely in favour of the poor. Thirdly, it is neither reaſonable nor poſſible for the corporation to provide materials upon every occaſion for ſuch perſons as ſhall be entered with them, unleſs they can be ſecure of ſuch perſons to work up thoſe materials; beſides, without this proviſion, all the labouring people of England will play faſt and looſe between their employers and the corporation, for, as they are diſobliged by one, they will run to the other, and ſo neither of them ſhall be ſure of them.

Sixthly, That no impotent poor ſhall be removed out of the pariſh where they dwell, but upon notice in writing given to the churchwardens and overſeers of the ſaid pariſh, to what place of proviſion he or ſhe is removed.

It is judged the beſt method to provide for the impotent poor, is in houſes prepared for that purpoſe, where proper proviſion may be made for ſeveral, with all neceſſaries of care and maintenance: ſo that in ſome places one houſe will ſerve the impotent poor of ſeveral pariſhes, in which caſe the pariſh ought to know where to reſort, to ſee if good proviſion be made for them.

Seventhly, That, in caſe proviſion be not made for the poor of each pariſh, in manner as aforeſaid (upon due notice given to the agents of the corporation) the ſaid pariſh may order their poor to be maintained, and deduct the ſum by them expended out of the next payments to be made to the ſaid corporation by the ſaid pariſh.

In caſe any accident happens in a pariſh, either by ſickneſs, fall, caſualty of fire, or otherways, and that the agent of the corporation is not preſent to provide for them, or having notice doth not immediately do it, the pariſh may do it, and deduct ſo much out of the next payment; but there muſt be proviſion made for the notice, and in what time the corporation ſhall provide for them.

Eighthly, That the ſaid corporation ſhall have and receive for the ſaid one and twenty years, that is to ſay, from every pariſh yearly, ſo much as ſuch pariſh paid in any one year, to be computed by a medium of ſeven years; namely, from the 25th of March, 1690, to the 25th of March, 1697, and to be paid half yearly; and beſides, ſhall receive the benefit of the revenues of all donations given to any pariſh, or which ſhall be given during the ſaid term, and all forfeitures which the law gives to the uſe of the poor; and to all other ſums which were uſually collected by the pariſh for the maintenance of the poor.

Whatever was raiſed for, or applied to, the uſe of the poor, ought to be paid over to the corporation; and where there are any donations for maintaining the poor, it will anſwer the deſign of the donor, by reaſon there will be better proviſion for the maintenance of the poor than ever; and if that maintenance be ſo good as to induce further charities, no doubt the corporation ought to be intitled to them: but there are two objections to this article; firſt, that to make a medium by a time of war is unreaſonable. Secondly, to continue the whole tax for one and twenty years, does not ſeem to give any benefit to the kingdom in that time. To the firſt, it is true we have a peace; but trade is lower now than at any time during the war, and the charge of the poor greater; and when trade will mend is very uncertain. To the ſecond, it is very plain, that although the charge may be the ſame to a pariſh in the total, yet it will be leſs to particular perſons; becauſe thoſe who before received alms, will now be enabled to be contributors; but beſides, the turning ſo many hundred thouſand pounds a year (which in a manner have hitherto been applied only to ſupport idleneſs) into induſtry, and the employing ſo many other idle vagrants and ſturdy beggars, with the product of their labour, will altogether be a preſent benefit to the lands of England, as well in the rents as in the value: and further, the accidental charities in the ſtreets, and at doors, is, by a very modeſt computation, over and above the poor rates, at leaſt three hundred thouſand pounds *per annum*, which will be intirely ſaved by this propoſal, and the perſons ſet at work; which is a further conſideration for its being well received, ſince

the corporations are not allowed any thing for this ſervice.

The greater the encouragement is, the better the work will be performed; and it will become the wiſdom of the parliament, in what they do, to make it effectual; for ſhould ſuch an undertaking as this prove ineffectual, inſtead of remedying, it will increaſe the miſchief.

Ninthly, That all laws made for the proviſion of the poor, and for puniſhing idle vagrant perſons be repealed, and one law made to continue ſuch parts as are found uſeful, and to add ſuch other reſtrictions, penalties, and proviſions, as may effectually attain the end of this great work.

The laws hereunto relating are numerous; but the judgments and opinions upon them are ſo various and contradictory, and differ ſo in ſundry places, as to be inconſiſtent with any one general ſcheme of management.

Tenthly, That proper perſons be appointed in every county, to determine all matters and differences which may ariſe between the corporation and the reſpective pariſhes.

To prevent any ill uſage, neglect, or cruelty, it will be neceſſary to make proviſion, that the poor may tender their complaints to the officers of the pariſh; and that thoſe officers having examined the ſame, and not finding redreſs, may apply to perſons to be appointed in each county, and each city, for that purpoſe, who may be called ſuperviſors of the poor, and may have allowance made them for their trouble; and their buſineſs may be to examine the truth of ſuch complaints; and in caſe either the pariſh or corporation judge themſelves aggrieved, by the determination of the ſaid ſuperviſors, proviſion may be made that an appeal lie to the quarter-ſeſſions.

Eleventhly, That the corporation be obliged to provide for all public beggars, and to put the laws in execution againſt public beggars, and idle vagrant perſons.

Such of the public beggars as can work muſt be employed, the reſt to be maintained as impotent poor; but the laws to be ſeverely put in execution againſt thoſe who ſhall aſk any public alms.

This propoſal, which in moſt parts of it ſeems to be very maturely weighed, may be a foundation for thoſe to build upon, who have a public ſpirit large enough to embrace ſuch a noble undertaking.

But the common obſtruction to any thing of this nature, is a malignant temper in ſome, who will not let a public work go on, if private perſons are to be gainers by it: when they are to get themſelves, they abandon all ſenſe of virtue, but are clothed in their whiteſt robe, when they ſmell profit coming to another, maſking themſelves with a falſe zeal to the commonwealth, where their own turn is not to be ſerved. It were better, indeed, that men would ſerve their country for the praiſe and honour that follow good actions; but this is not to be expected in a nation, at leaſt, leaning towards corruption; and, in ſuch an age, it is as much as we can hope for, if the product of ſome honeſt gain invites people to do the public faithful ſervice. For which reaſon, in any undertaking, where it can be made apparent, that a great benefit will accrue to the common wealth in general, we ought not to have an evil eye upon what fair advantages particular men may thereby expect to reap, ſtill taking care to keep their appetite of getting within moderate bounds, laying all juſt and reaſonable reſtraints upon it, and making due proviſion that they may not wrong or oppreſs their fellow ſubjects.

It is not to be denied, but that if fewer hands were ſuffered to remain idle, and if the poor had full employment, it would greatly tend to the common welfare, and contribute much towards adding every year to the general ſtock of England.

Among the methods that we have here propoſed of employing the poor, and making the whole body of people uſeful to the public, we think it our duty to mind thoſe who conſider the common welfare of looking with a compaſſionate eye into the priſons of this kingdom, where many thouſands conſume their time in vice and idleneſs; waſting the remainder of their fortunes, or laviſhing the ſubſtance of their creditors, eating bread and doing no work, which is contrary to good order, and pernicious to the commonwealth.

We cannot, therefore, but recommend the thoughts of ſome good bill, that may effectually put an end to this miſchief, ſo ſcandalous in a trading country, which ſhould let no hands remain uſeleſs.

It is not at all difficult to contrive ſuch a bill as may relieve and releaſe the debtor, and yet preſerve to his creditors all their fair, juſt, and honeſt rights and intereſt.

Thus have we endeavoured to ſhew, that to preſerve and increaſe the people, and to make their numbers uſeful, are methods conducing to make us gainers in the balance of trade.

POPISH. *Agnus Dei*, croſſes, pictures, beads, or ſuch vain and ſuperſtitious things, imported and delivered to the Britiſh ſubjects, to be worn or uſed, the importer and receiver incur a premunire. 13 *Eliz. c.* 2. *f.* 7.

Primers, ladies pſalters, manuals, roſaries, popiſh catechiſms, miſſals, breviaries, portals, legends, and lives of ſaints, containing ſuperſtitious matter, printed or written in any language, or any other ſuperſtitious books printed or written in the Britiſh tongue, may not be imported, upon forfeiture of forty ſhillings for every ſuch book by the importer, buyer, or ſeller; one-third to the king, one-third to the ſuer, one-third to the poor of the pariſh, and the books to be burnt. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 5. *f.* 25.

POPPY, *papaver*, a medicinal plant famed for its narcotic quality.

There are divers kinds; ſome wild, ſome cultivated: the chief are the white, black, and red poppy.

The white poppy is moſt uſed in phyſic: when the flowers are fallen, the ſeed veſſels grow to a great bigneſs, being round, and as large as an orange. From theſe heads opium are produced, whereof the beſt comes from Turkey.

Of the dry poppy heads, infuſed and boiled in water, is made the *ſyrupus e meconio*, or *diacodium*. *See* OPIUM and MECONIUM.

POPULEUM, *or* POPULNEUM, in pharmacy, an unguent prepared of the buds of black poplar, violet-leaves, navel-wort, and lard, bruiſed and macerated; to which are added bramble-tops, leaves of black poppies, mandragora, henbane, nightſhade, lettuce, and burdock, boiled in roſe-water, and ſtrained. It is much uſed for burns, ſcalds, and all ſorts of inflammations, and to aſſwage arthritic pains.

PORCELAIN,* *or* PURCELAIN, a fine ſort of earthenware, chiefly manufactured in China, and thence called china, or china-ware; but brought into Europe chiefly from Japan, Siam, Surate, and Perſia. The Chineſe call it *tſe-ki*.

* The word is probably derived from the Portugueze *porcelana*, a cup.

Porcelain is made chiefly at Kingteching, a large town in the province of Kyangſi.

In a letter from F. Dieutrecolles to F. Orry, from Jauchew, dated September, 1712, the whole proceſs of this manufacture is deſcribed as follows:

*Materials of porcelain.* There are two kinds of earths, and as many kinds of oils or varniſhes uſed in the compoſition of porcelain. The firſt earth, called *kaulin*, is beſet with glittering corpuſcles; the ſecond, called *petunſe*, is a plain white, but exceedingly fine and ſoft to the touch. They are both found in quarries, twenty or thirty leagues from Kingteching. The petunſes are brought in form of bricks out of the quarries, where they are naturally pieces of a very hard rock. The beſt of the white petunſe is to border a little on green.

The firſt preparation is to break and pound theſe bricks coarſely with iron mallets, and then in mortars with peſtles: and when the powder is rendered impalpable, they throw it into a large urn full of water, ſtirring it about briſkly; when the water has reſted a little, they ſkim off, from the top, a white ſubſtance of the thickneſs of four or five fingers, which is put into another veſſel of water. They then ſtir again the water of the firſt urn, and again ſkim it, and this alternately, till nothing remain but the gravel of the petunſes at bottom, which they pound afreſh.

As to the ſecond urn, when the water has well ſettled, they put it off, and with the paſte at bottom, fill a kind of moulds, whence, when almoſt dry, they take it out, and cut it into ſquare pieces, properly called petunſes, reſerving them to be mixed with the kaulin in the proportion here-

hereafter aſſigned. Theſe ſquares are ſold by the hundred, but it is very rare to meet with them unfalſified, the workmen being errant knaves in their dealings; ſo that they are commonly obliged to purify them before they can be employed.

The kaulin, which is the other earth uſed in porcelain, is much ſofter than the petunſe, when dug out of the quarry: yet this, by its mixture with the other, gives the firmneſs and ſtrength to the work.

The mines whence the kaulin is dug are deep, and the matter is found in glebes, like the chalk in ours. The preparation of kaulin is much the ſame with that of the petunſes.

The oil, or varniſh, which makes the third ingredient, is a whitiſh liquid ſubſtance, drawn from the hard ſtone whereof the petunſes are formed, that which is whiteſt, and whoſe ſtains are the greeneſt, being always choſen for this purpoſe.

*The manner of preparing the oil.* The petunſes being waſhed, undergo the ſame proceſs as for making the ſquares, only that the fineſt part of the matter of the ſecond urn is not put in moulds, but taken to compoſe the oil. To a hundred pounds of this matter, they caſt a mineral ſtone called *ſhekau*, like our alum. This ſtone is firſt heated red-hot, and ſo reduced in a mortar to an impalpable powder; and ſerves to give the oil a conſiſtence; which, however, is ſtill to be kept liquid.

The oil of lime makes the fourth ingredient: they firſt diſſolve large pieces of quick-lime, by ſprinkling water thereon; on this powder they lay a couch of dry fern, and on the fern another of the ſlacked lime, and thus alternately till there be a moderate pile; and then ſet fire to the fern. The aſhes they divide on new couches of dry fern, ſetting them on fire, as before; and this they repeat ſucceſſively; the oil being ſtill the better, as the aſhes are oftener burnt.

A quantity of theſe aſhes are thrown into an urn full of water; and to every hundred pounds is added a pound of ſhekau, which diſſolves therein; the reſt, as in preparing the petunſes; the ſediment found at the bottom of the ſecond urn, and which is to be kept liquid, is what they call the oil of lime, and which gives the porcelain all its luſtre. This oil is eaſily ſophiſticated with water, and a proportionable quantity of ſhekau. Ten meaſures of oil of petunſe uſually go to one of lime. To have the mixture juſt, the two oils ſhould be equally thick.

*Forming of porcelain veſſels.* The firſt thing is to purify the petunſe and kaulin; which is done as in preparing the ſquares. For the ſecond, it is ſufficient to plunge it into an urn full of water in an open baſket: the dregs that remain are perfectly uſeleſs and flung away.

The work-houſes are vaſt yards walled round with ſheds, and other conveniencies to work under and live in. There is ſcarce a piece of porcelain but paſſes through above twenty hands before it comes to the painters; and above ſixty, before it is brought to perfection.

For the finer porcelains, they uſe equal quantities of petunſe and kaulin; four parts of kaulin to ſix of petunſe for moderate ones; and never leſs than one of kaulin to three of petunſe for the coarſeſt.

The hardeſt part of the work is the kneading the two earths in a kind of large baſons or pits well paved and cemented, wherein the workmen trample continually with their feet till the maſs become of the conſiſtence required to be uſed by the potter.

This earth is kneaded piece-meal, with the hands, on large ſlates. But on this preparation depends the perfection of the work; the leaſt heterogeneous body, the leaſt vacuity, the ſmalleſt grain of ſand, nay, ſometimes a ſingle hair, making the porcelain crack, ſplinter, run, or warp.

The ſmooth pieces of porcelain, as cups, urns, diſhes, &c. are made with the wheel; but ſuch as are in relievo, as figures of men, animals, &c. are formed in the moulds, but faſhioned with the chiſſel. The large pieces are made at twice; one half is raiſed on the wheel by three or four workmen, who hold it till it has acquired its figure; which done, they apply it to the other half, uniting the two with porcelain earth made liquid, by adding water to it, and poliſhing the juncture with a kind of iron ſpatula. After the ſame manner are joined the ſeveral pieces of porcelain formed in moulds, or by the hand, and after the ſame manner are handles, &c. added to the cups, and other works formed with the wheel.

The moulds are made after the manner of thoſe of our ſculptors, namely, of divers pieces, which ſeverally give the reſpective figure to the parts of the model, and are afterwards united to form a model for an entire figure. They are made of a yellow fat earth dug about Kingteching, being kneaded like potters earth, and when ſufficiently mellow, and moderately dry, beating it ſtoutly, they form it into moulds.

All the works, made in moulds, are finiſhed with ſeveral inſtruments proper to dig, ſmooth, and touch up the ſtrokes that eſcape the mould: there are ſome works whereon relievos are added ready made, as dragons, flowers, &c. others that have impreſſions *en creux*; which laſt are engraved with a kind of puncheons. In general, porcelain works are to be ſheltered from the cold, their natural humidity making them liable to break, when they dry unequally.

A common tea-cup begins with the potter, who, with the wheel, gives it its form, and diameter. This operator has not a farthing ſterling for the plate furniſhed with twenty-ſix cups; accordingly, they go out of his hands very imperfect, eſpecially towards the feet, which are afterwards cut with the chiſſel, when the cup is dry. From the wheel it is received by a ſecond workman, who fits it to its baſe; a third applies it on a mould, which is on a kind of lathe, to bring it to its true form. A fourth workman poliſhes it with a chiſſel about the edges, and brings it to the thinneſs neceſſary to make it tranſparent; in doing which, he moiſtens it from time to time, leſt it break. When of its proper thickneſs, another workman turns it gently on a mould to ſmooth its inſide equally; other workmen add ſome ornaments in relievo; others impreſſions *en creux*; others only handles. At laſt, the foot on the inſide is rounded and hollowed with a chiſſel by a particular artiſt, who does nothing elſe.

*Painting of porcelain.* The Chineſe painters, eſpecially thoſe that meddle with human figures, our author obſerves, are all ſorry workwen: he adds, that the defect is ſcarce any where ſo ſenſible as in the whapey, or porcelain-painters; among whom, ſetting aſide flowers and landſkips, which is ſometimes tolerable, the greateſt maſters are not to be compared to ordinary apprentices among the Europeans, for their beauty and juſtneſs of deſign. But it is otherwiſe with the colours theſe whapey uſe, which are ſo exceeding lively and brilliant, that there is but little hopes that our workmen ſhall ever vie with them.

The painting work is diſtributed among a great number of workmen in the ſame laboratory: to one it belongs to form the coloured circle about the edges of the porcelain; another traces out flowers, which another paints: this is for waters and mountains alone; that for birds and other animals; and a third for human figures.

There are porcelains made of all colours, both with regard to the ground and repreſentation thereon. As to the colour of landſkips, &c. ſome are ſimple; ſuch are all blues, ſuch as are ſeen in Europe; others are mixed up of ſeveral teints; and others again heightened with gold.

The blue is made of lapis lazuli, prepared by burning it the ſpace of twenty-four hours in a kiln, where it is buried up in gravel to the height of half a foot; when burnt, they reduce it into an impalpable powder in porcelain mortars, not varniſhed, and with peſtles of the ſame matter.

For the red they uſe copperas, which they call *tſanſan*; a pound of this they put into a covered crucible, in the lid whereof is left a little aperture, through which the matter, on occaſion, may be ſeen. The crucible is heated with a reverberatory fire, till the black ſmoke ceaſe to aſcend, and a fine red one ſucceeds it. A pound of copperas yields four ounces of red liquor, which is found at the bottom of the crucible, though the fineſt part is that uſually adhering to the lid and ſides of the crucible.

The powder of flint is, likewiſe, an ingredient in moſt of the other colours; e. gr. for green, to three ounces of tongwhapeen, or ſcoria of beaten copper, they uſe half an ounce of powder of flint, and an ounce of ceruſe. Violet is made by adding a doſe of white to the green already prepared: the more green is added, the deeper is the violet. For yellow, they uſe ſeven drachms of white, and three of red copperas.

Moſt of theſe colours are mixed up with gum-water, for application; a little ſaltpetre, ſometimes ceruſe or copperas, but more uſually copperas alone, being firſt diſſolved in water. Indeed, for porcelains that are to be quite red, the colour is uſually applied with oil, i. e. with the common oil of the porcelain, or another made of the white flints.

There is alſo another red, called blown red, becauſe, in reality, applied by blowing with a pipe, one of whoſe orifices is covered with a very fine gauze which is ſmeared; when blowing againſt the porcelain, it becomes all ſprinkled over with little points. This porcelain is very rare, and of great price. Black porcelain, which they call *umian*, has likewiſe its beauty: this colour has a leady caſt, like metal-burning mirrors, and is uſually heightened with gold. It is made of three ounces of lapis lazuli, with ſeven of the common oil of ſtone; though that proportion is varied, as the colour is deſigned to be more or leſs deep. The black is not given the porcelain till it be dry, nor muſt the work be put to the fire till the colour be dry.

The gold is not applied till after the baking, and is re-baked in an oven for the purpoſe. To apply the gold, they break and diſſolve it in water at the bottom of a porcelain, till a thin gilded cloud ariſe on the ſurface: it is uſed with gum-water, and to give it a body, they add three parts of ceruſe to three of gold.

There is, likewiſe, a kind of marbled porcelain, which is made by applying the marblings with the pencil, and for oil to varniſh it withal, uſing that of white flints, which hatches and cuts the work with a thouſand humorous ſtrokes, in manner of Moſaic work. The colour this oil gives, is a white, ſomewhat aſhy. This porcelain is called *iſwiki*.

There are ſeveral other kinds of porcelain, but they are rather for curioſity than uſe; the prettieſt are the magic porcelains, whoſe colours only appear, when filled with ſome liquor. Theſe are made double; the outſide is white, and all laid out in compartments; the inſide is a ſolid cup of coloured porcelain; though the cup is ſometimes of glaſs, which has a better effect than porcelain. The ſecret of theſe magic porcelains, which the Chineſe call *kiatiſm*, is almoſt loſt; yet F. d'Entrecolles has furniſhed us with the following account: the porcelain, to be painted thus, muſt be very thin; and the colours, which, in other porcelains, are applied on the outſide, are here applied on the inſide. When the colour is dry, they lay over it a light couch of the ſize made of the porcelain earth; by which means the colour is incloſed between two earthen laminæ; when the ſize is dry, they throw oil within the porcelain; and when it has enough, they return it to the mould, and the wheel, to render it as thin and tranſparent as poſſible. When dry, it is baked in the common furnace. The colours, here uſed, are always the fineſt, and the figures painted are fiſhes, as the moſt ſuitable to the liquor put within them, and in which they ſeem to ſwim.

The ſeveral kinds of porcelains, above-mentioned, being quite painted with their ſeveral colours, and all the colours dry, are to be poliſhed, to prepare them to receive the oil or varniſh; which is done with a pencil of very fine feathers, moiſtened with water, and paſſed lightly over to take off even the ſmalleſt inequalities.

The oiling or varniſhing is the laſt preparation of the porcelain, before it be carried to the oven: this is applied more or leſs thick, and ſeldom or oftener repeated, according to the quality of the work. For thin fine porcelains, they give two very thin touches, to others one, but that one equivalent to the other two. There is a deal of art in applying the varniſh, both that it be done equally, and not in too great quantity. The couches of the inſide are given by aſperſion, i. e. by caſting in as much varniſh as is neceſſary: thoſe on the outſide by immerſion, or by plunging the pieces in a veſſel of oil. It muſt be obſerved, that the foot is not yet formed, but continues in a mere maſs, till the work has been varniſhed; it is at length finiſhed on the wheel; and, when hollowed, a little circle is painted in it, and ſometimes a Chineſe letter; this painting being dry, the foot is varniſhed, and the work carried to the oven to be baked.

Our curious author omits nothing, not even the dexterity of the people, who carry the porcelain to the bake-houſe. He has been frequently ſurprized, he tells us, to ſee a man paſs through ſeveral ſtreets full of people, with two very long narrow boards ranged with porcelains on his ſhoulders, ſtill preſerving the equilibrium ſo accurately, as not to do any damage to ſo frail a commodity.

*Baking or nealing of porcelain.* There are two kinds of ovens uſed in baking of porcelain: large ones, for works that are only to come to the fire once, which is the common way; and ſmall ones for ſuch as require a double baking. The large ones are two Chineſe fathoms deep, and almoſt four wide. They are formed of a mixture of three earths; one whereof, yellow and common, makes the baſis; the two others are ſcarcer, and dug out of deep mines, wherein people can only work in winter. One of them, called *lanton*, is a very ſtrong, ſtiff earth; the other *yonton*, oily.

The ſides and roof of the ovens are ſo thick, that one may lay the hand on them, when the fire is at its height, without danger of burning. At the top of the dome, which is in form of a tunnel, is a large aperture to give vent to the flames and ſmoke, which mount up inceſſantly, as ſoon as fire is once ſet to the oven. Beſide the principal aperture, there are four or five ſmall ones around; which, by being opened and ſhut, ſerve to augment or diminiſh the heat, like the holes in the chemiſts furnaces, called regiſters. The hearth, which takes up the whole breadth of the oven, is placed in front, preciſely againſt the opening of the door, and is two or three feet deep, and two broad; people paſſing over it on a plank, to go into the furnace to range the porcelain.

As ſoon as the fire is lighted, the door is walled up; only leaving an aperture for the conveyance of wood. Laſtly, the bottom of the oven is covered with ſand, wherein part of the firſt porcelain caſes are buried. The oven itſelf is uſually placed at the extremity of a long narrow veſtibule, which ſerves in lieu of bellows, the cold air and wind being thus, driven directly in the face of each oven.

Each piece of porcelain, of any note, is diſpoſed in the furnace in its ſeparate caſe, or coffin. Indeed, as to tea-diſhes, &c. the ſame caſe ſerves for ſeveral. The caſes are all of the ſame matter with the oven: they have no lids, but ſerve each other mutually, the bottom of the ſecond caſe fitting into the aperture of the firſt; and thus, ſucceſſively, to the top of each column. Each coffin, which is uſually of a cylindrical form, that the fire may communicate itſelf more equably to the porcelains incloſed, has, at bottom, a little lay of very fine ſand, covered over with duſt of kaulin, that the ſand may not ſtick to the work; and care is taken that the porcelain may not touch the ſides of the caſe. In the larger caſes, which hold the ſmall pieces, they leave the middle vacant, in regard porcelains placed there would want the neceſſary heat. Each of theſe little pieces is mounted on a little maſs of earth, the thickneſs of two crowns covered with powder of kaulin.

F. d'Entrecolles obſerves, that the porcelains are put in caſes, to prevent any diminution of luſtre from the too violent effect of a naked fire; adding, that it is owing to theſe thick veils, that the beauty, or as he calls it, the complexion of the porcelains, is not tanned by the heat of the fire.

As faſt as the caſes are filled, a workman ranges them in the cavity of the furnace; forming them into piles or columns, whereof thoſe in the middle are at leaſt ſeven feet high. The two caſes at the bottom of each column are left empty; becauſe, being partly ſunk in the ſand, the fire has the leſs effect on them; and for the ſame reaſon, the uppermoſt one is left empty. In this manner is the whole cavity of the oven filled with columns, excepting that part preciſely under the grand aperture.

In ranging the caſes, they obſerve always to place the fineſt piles of porcelain in the center; the coarſeſt at the bottom; and thoſe that are high coloured, and conſiſt of as much petunſe as kaulin, and wherein the worſt oil is uſed, at the mouth.

Theſe piles are all placed very near one another, and are bound together at top, at bottom, and in the middle, by pieces of earth, in ſuch a manner, as that the flame may have a free paſſage among them, and inſinuate equally on all ſides: in which a great part of the workman's art lies, and on which the perfection of the porcelain much depends. Another thing to be obſerved, is, that an oven muſt never

be ſet altogether with new coffins; but half one, half the other; the old ones at the bottoms and tops of the pile, and the new ones in the middle. Indeed it were better to have them all burnt in an oven apart, before they come to be uſed for porcelain; as was anciently done: the caſes, our author obſerves, are brought ready prepared from a large village on the river, a league diſtant from Kingteching. Before burnt, they are yellow; and afterwards of a dark red.

When the oven is filled, they wall up the door; only leaving a little aperture for the throwing in of little pieces of wood a foot long, but very ſlender, to keep up the fire. It is then heated, by degrees, for the ſpace of a day and night; after which, two men who relieve one another, continue to throw in wood without any interruption. To know when the porcelain is baked enough, they open one of the leſſer holes of the oven, and with a pair of tongs take off the lid of one of the piles. If the fire appear very briſk and clear, and the piles equally inflamed; and eſpecially if the colours of the porcelains that are uncovered dart forth a noble luſtre, the coction is ſufficient; they diſcontinue the fire, and wall up what remained of the door of the furnace.

If the oven be only filled with ſmall porcelains, they take them out twelve or fifteen hours after the fire is extinct: if it be filled with larger, they defer opening it for two or three days. In this the modern practice differs from the ancient; wherein the door was not opened till after ten days for the large pieces, and five for the ſmall ones.

One thing very ſurprizing, and almoſt inconceivable, F. d'Entrecolles obſerves, is, that there are never found any aſhes on the hearth of the oven, what quantity of wood ſoever is conſumed. He adds another thing, which with him paſſes for equally ſtrange, that the workmen, employed about the furnaces, ſlake their thirſt, by continually drinking hot tea, with ſalt diſſolved in it.

The Chineſe make another kind of porcelain, which they paint and bake twice; and for this ſecond baking they have a kind of little ovens on purpoſe. When very ſmall, they are made of iron; otherwiſe, of a kind of bricks an inch thick, a foot high, and half a foot broad, made of the ſame earth with the porcelain caſes. The biggeſt of theſe ovens does not exceed five feet in height, and three in diameter; and being made much in form of bee-hives, the bricks are arched a little, to form the curvity the better. The hearth is of earth half a foot high, formed of two or three ranges of bricks; and on this maſs is the oven built. Around the oven, at the diſtance of about half a foot, is raiſed a ſhell of common bricks, joined to the oven itſelf, by a kind of arcboutant of earth, which ſerves to ſtrengthen it. They uſually build four or five of theſe ovens at equal diſtances from each other. At the bottom of the ſhell are holes to give air to the fire, when lighted: at top is an aperture, which they cover up with a piece of the baked earth, when the porcelains are laid in the oven.

The porcelains here are not incloſed in coffins, as in the common ovens; the oven itſelf ſerving for that purpoſe, and being ſo exactly cloſed, that they receive no other impreſſion of the fire, but that of the heat of the charcoal diſpoſed in the hearth, at the bottom of the oven, as well as at top of the vault, and in the interval between the oven and the ſhell, or brick-wall.

To prepare the porcelains for a ſecond baking, they muſt have had their varniſh in the common manner, and have paſſed the great oven. In this ſtate they are painted with various colours, after which, without giving them any new varniſh, they are ranged in piles in the little oven; ſetting the little ones over the larger, in form of pyramids.

This ſecond baking is ſometimes intended to preſerve the luſtre of the colours the better, and at the ſame time to give them a kind of relievo. But, more uſually, its deſign is to hide defective places, by covering them over with colours: but the artifice is eaſily found out, by paſſing the hand over them. When the workman judges his porcelains baked enough, he takes off the piece that covers the aperture; and if the works appear glittering, and the colours glowing, he takes out the charcoal; and when the oven is cold, the porcelain too.

How beautiful ſoever the modern porcelain may be, the taſte for antiquity, which reigns in China, as well as in Europe, gives the ancient porcelain a value far above that of the modern. It muſt be owned, the ancient ſeems finer as to the matter, more perfect as to the baking, and of a more pleaſant caſt, both as to the white of the ground, and the other colours; yet it is certain, the moſt able and diſcerning may be deceived herein; and there are workmen who make it their buſineſs to counterfeit the ancient porcelain, called *kutong*, in the modern.

The matter of a theſe falſe kutong is yellowiſh earth, found near Kingteching. There is nothing particular in the firſt part of the proceſs, except, that they are made thicker, and that they are varniſhed with an oil drawn from the yellow ſtone, mixed with the common oil, which gives them a kind of a ſea-green hue. When taken out of the oven, they throw it into a fatty broth, made of capons, &c. in which they boil it a ſecond time; they then bury it in the filthieſt ſink they can find, for a month or ſix weeks, or more, according as they would give it the greater appearance of antiquity. Beſides their thickneſs and their colour, theſe falſe antiques reſemble the true ones in this, that they do not reſound, when ſtruck, nor even give the leaſt buz, when held to the ear. Notwithſtanding the vaſt quantities of porcelain made in almoſt all the provinces of the empire of China, they ſtill continue very dear; though not near ſo dear as anciently. The Chineſe tell us of times wherein a ſingle urn coſt ninety or a hundred crowns on the ſpot. What chiefly occaſions the extraordinary price of this commodity, eſpecially in Europe, is, beſide the great profit of the merchants in Europe, and their factors in China, that it rarely happens an oven ſucceeds throughout; that it is frequently quite ſpoiled, ſo that, upon opening it, in lieu of fine porcelains, is found a hard unformed maſs, into which the porcelains, and their coffins, are converted, either by exceſs of heat, or ſome ill qualities in the matter.

Another reaſon of the dearneſs of porcelain is, that the ingredients it is made of, and the wood wherewith it is burnt, grow more and more ſcarce. One may add a third reaſon for the exceſſive price of porcelains to the Europeans; and it is this, that moſt of thoſe ſent to Europe are formed on new models, frequently very capricious, and difficult to ſucceed in; which, yet for the ſmalleſt defects, are turned on the manufacturer's hands: and he, not being able to diſpoſe of them to the Chineſe, becauſe not to their taſte, nor to their uſe, is forced to charge the porcelain he delivers, the higher, to pay himſelf for thoſe refuſed.

The French have been for ſeveral years attempting to imitate porcelain. The firſt eſſays, made at Rouen, are ſaid to have ſucceeded tolerably well; and Mr. Savary tells us, are now carried on to ſuch a point in the manufactories at Paſſi and St. Cloud, that the French porcelains want nothing to make them of equal value with the Chineſe, but to be brought five or ſix thouſand leagues. In effect, for the fineneſs of the grain of the matter, the beauty and turn of the veſſels, the exactitude of the deſign, and the luſtre of the colours, at leaſt the blues, the French are not much behind the Chineſe. But their grand defect is in the white of the ground, which is uſually dingy and dull, and eaſily diſtinguiſhes itſelf from the pure ſprightly white of the Chineſe.

But the Saxons ſeem to have exceeded the French. There is a manufacture at Miſſen, the capital of Miſnia, which, the baron de Pollnitz aſſures us, produces porcelains painted and enamelled in ſuch perfection, that they are more beautiful, as well as dearer, than thoſe of China itſelf. The invention is owing to an alchemiſt, who, being clapped up in the caſtle of Konigſtein, by the late king of Poland, on a ſuſpicion of being maſter of the ſecret of the philoſopher's ſtone, had leiſure enough, not indeed to make gold, but to invent a ware, which, by the great vent of it, conſiderably enriches the country.

PORCELAIN, alſo denotes a kind of little ſea-ſhell found along with ſponges, and current in ſeveral parts of Aſia, Africa, and America, as coin.

They are of ſome uſe in medicine, and are preſcribed pounded in the manner of pearls.

PORCO, PERCATTI, *or* PERCATS, together with Calicoulang, and Coulang, are the leaſt kingdoms of Malabar. The Engliſh and Dutch have their factories in the chief and beſt places of theſe petty kingdoms; and the latter have

have forts at Coulang and Cochin, to ſerve the pepper-trade, which is very conſiderable here, and which their veſſels yearly load in paſſing, continuing their route to Surate, Perſia, and the Red-Sea, where they diſpoſe of the major part, in exchange for many rich merchandizes, which all theſe places produce, and which they bring afterwards to Batavia.

The traffic of theſe little kingdoms is but little different from that of the reſt of Malabar; though here are, notwithſtanding, ſome natural productions, that are peculiar to each of thtm, and not to be found in the others; which in ſome meaſure varies the trade. In general the exports from hence are pepper, cardamoms, laque, ginger, tamarinds, opium, ambergreaſe, rice, black and white, kiſſeri, and cayang, (a ſpecie of peas) ſanders, ſaltpetre, and linens of divers ſorts, though neither ſo fine or well painted as thoſe about Surate, or thoſe of Coromandel and Bengal.

PORENTREE, in Switzerland, is a city and caſtle ſerving for the reſidence of the biſhop of Baſil, where are made fine earthen-ware, gloves, and woollen ſtockings knit and milled.

PORK. The importation of pork and bacon, how formerly prohibited, 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. What price they muſt be at when exported, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 11. Any perſon may export them, 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4. Pork may be exported to alien friends, duty free, 3 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 8. Duties on bacon imported, 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 2. *ſ.* 4. What allowance to be made for ſalted pork exported, 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 16. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 4. *See* BEEF, CATTLE, FLESH.

PORPHYRY, *porphyrites*, in natural hiſtory, &c. a kind of marble of a browniſh red colour, frequently interſperſed with white ſtains, anciently brought from Egypt, and exceeding all others in hardneſs.

There are three famous porphyry pillars, or obeliſks, in Egypt; one near Cairo, and the other two at Alexandria. The Franks call them aguglias, the Engliſh Cleopatra's needles. It is difficult to conceive whence they ſhould have been brought; for Dr. Huntingdon aſſures us, that there is no quarry or rock of ſuch ſtone in all the lower parts of Egypt, ſo far as the Nile overflows, being perfect ſoil. V. *Ray's Trav. tom.* ii. *p.* 461.

The art of cutting porphyry, practiſed among the ancients, is loſt. In effect, it is hard to conceive what kind of tools they muſt have uſed for the faſhioning of theſe huge columns, and other porphyry works found in ſome of the antique buildings in Rome.

One of the moſt conſiderable pieces, now remaining intire, is a tomb of Conſtantia, daughter of the emperor Conſtantine, in the church of St. Agnes without the walls; ordinarily called the Tomb of Bacchus, becauſe of ſeveral boys repreſented thereon, playing among the vine-leaves. Add to this, Apollo's, and the buſts of twelve emperors, all in porphyry, in the palace of the Tuilleries.

Some of the ancient pieces appear to have been wrought with the chiſſel, others with the ſaw, others with wheels, and others ground by degrees with emery. Yet the modern tools will ſcarce touch porphyry: either the ancients, therefore, had the ſecret of tempering ſteel better than we; or, as ſome incline to think, they had the art of ſoftening the porphyry: though it is more probable, that time and air have contributed to increaſe its hardneſs.

Mr. Addiſon tells us, he ſaw a workman at Rome employed in the cutting of porphyry; but his advances were exceeding ſlow, and almoſt inſenſible.

All the way the Italian ſculptors have to work the pieces of old porphyry columns ſtill remaining (for the porphyry quarries are long ſince loſt) is with a braſs ſaw without any teeth. With this, together with emery and water, they rub and wear the ſtones, with infinite patience.

Yet have many excellent perſons endeavoured to retrieve the ancient art, particularly Leon Baptiſta Alberti; who, ſearching for the neceſſary temper, ſays, he found goat's blood the beſt of any; yet even this availed but little; for in working with chiſſels tempered herein, ſparks of fire came much more plentifully than pieces of the ſtone. By means hereof, the ſculptors were able to make a flat or oval form, but could never attain to any thing like a figure.

It is true, in 1555, Coſmo de Medicis is ſaid to have diſtilled a water from certain herbs, wherewith his ſculptor, Franceſco Tadda, gave his tools ſuch an admirable hardneſs and temper, as that he performed ſome fine works with them; particularly, our Saviour's head in demi-relievo, Coſmo's head, and his dutcheſs's. Even the very hair, and beard, how difficult ſoever, are here well conducted; and there is nothing of the kind better in all the works of the ancients: but the ſecret ſeems to have died with him.

The French have lately found another method of cutting porphyry, viz. with an iron ſaw without teeth, and grez, a kind of free-ſtone pulverized, and water. The authors of this invention pretend, they could form the whole contour of a column hereby, had they matter to work on.

PORSGRUND, in Norway, has the cuſtom-houſes for itſelf, of Brevig, Londſound, and Scheen; the two firſt exporting very good large timber, eſpecially the ſort called Bratſburgh ſpars, ſparwood, and ſome deals; at the laſt place are ſawn the cloiſter-deals from twelve to eighteen feet long; the beſt in thoſe parts.

PORTS. A *port*, *harbour*, or *haven*, is a place where ſhips may ſhelter from bad weather, and where cuſtom-houſes are appointed to ſuperviſe their loading and unloading; theſe, in England, have many *members* and *creeks* belonging to them, which are diſtinguiſhed as follows:

*Members* are thoſe places where anciently a cuſtom-houſe hath been kept, and where officers or their deputies attend, as they are lawful places of exportation and importation. *See* CREEK *for its definition.*

*Liſt of the ports of Great-Britain, with their members and creeks, as ſettled by commiſſions out of the courts of Exchequer, by* 1 Eliz. c. 12. ſ. 2. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. ſ. 14. 6 Ann. c. 26. ſ. 18.

The ports of England and Wales, with their diviſions into members and creeks.

| *Ports.* | *Members.* | *Creeks.* |
|---|---|---|
| London | | Gravesend. |
| Ipſwich | Malden | Leigh. |
| | | Burnham. |
| | | Weſt Merſey. |
| | Colcheſter | Eaſt Merſey. |
| | | Brickleſey. |
| | | Wivenhoe. |
| | —— | Maintree. |
| | | Harwich. |
| Yarmouth | Woodbridge. | |
| | Aleborough | Orford. |
| | | Dunwich. |
| | Southwold | Walderſwick. |
| | —— | Leſtoff. |
| | Blackney and Cley. | |
| Linn | Wells | Burnham. |
| | —— | Hitcham. |
| | | Croſs Keys. |
| | | Wiſbich. |
| Boſton | | Spalding. |
| | | Foſdick. |
| | | Wainfleet. |
| | | Numby Chappel. |
| | | Thetlethorp. |
| | | Saltfleet. |
| Hull | Grimſby | Gainthorp. |
| | Bridlington. | |
| | Scarborough. | |
| Newcaſtle | Whitby. | |
| | Stockton | Middleſborough. |
| | Hartlepoole. | |
| | Sunderland. | |
| | Shields. | |
| | —— | Seaton de-la-val. |
| | | Blithenooke. |
| Berwick | | Aylmouth. |
| | | Warnwater. |
| | | Holy Iſland. |
| | | Eaſt Marſhes, containing the coaſt of Northumberland, bordering upon Scotland. |

| Ports. | Members. | Creeks. |
|---|---|---|
| Carliſle | —— | West Marſhes, containing the coaſt of Cumberland, bordering upon Scotland. |
| | Whitehaven | Workington. |
| | | Ravinglas. |
| | | Milnthorp. |
| | Mary Port *. | |
| Cheſter | Lancaſter | Pile of Fowdrey. |
| | | Graunge. |
| | Poulton | Wyrewater. |
| | | Preſton and Riblewater. |
| | Liverpool | Sankey-bridge. |
| | | Fradiſham. |
| | | South Shore of the river Merſey, from the red ſtones. |
| | —— | Hilbree. |
| | | Dawpoole. |
| | | Neſton. |
| | | Burtonhead. |
| | | Baghill. |
| | | Moiſtin. |
| | Aberconway. | |
| | Bewmaris | Holyhead. |
| | | Amlogh. |
| | Carnarvon | Pulholly. |
| | | Barmouth. |
| Milford | Aberdovy | Aberuſtah. |
| | Cardigan | Newport. |
| | | Fiſcard. |
| | Pembroke | Haverford Weſt. |
| | | Tenby. |
| | | Carmarthen. |
| | | Lanelthy. |
| | | North Burrys. |
| Cardiff | Swanſey | South Burrys. |
| | | Neath, or Britton-ferry. |
| | | Newton. |
| | —— | Aberthaw. |
| | | Penarth. |
| | | Newport. |
| | | Chepſtow. |
| Gloceſter | | River Severn, from Bridgnorth to Kingroad. |
| Briſtol | | Pill. |
| | | Uphill. |
| Bridgwater | Minehead. | |
| Plymouth | Padſtow. | |
| | St. Ives. | |
| | Penſance. | |
| | Helford. | |
| | Falmouth | Penrin. |
| | | St. Mawres. |
| | | Truro. |
| | Fowey. | |
| | Looe. | |
| | —— | Saltaſh. |
| | | Stonehouſe. |
| | | Cowſland. |
| Exeter | Ilfracomb. | |
| | Barnſtable | Clovelly. |
| | | Appledore. |
| | | Biddiford. |
| | —— | Tincomb. |
| | | Starcroſs. |
| | | Beare and Seaton. |
| | | Topſham. |
| | | Pouldram. |
| | | Sydmouth. |
| | | Lympſon. |
| | | Exmouth. |
| | | Aylmouth. |
| | Dartmouth | Saltcomb. |
| | | Brixham. |
| | | Torbay. |
| | | Totneſs. |

* *By the 29th of* Geo. II. c. 57. ſ. 3. *the harbour of Ellenfoot, &c. therein deſcribed, is declared to be within the limits of the port of Whitehaven, and a member of the port of Carliſle, by the name of Mary Port.*

| Ports. | Members. | Creeks. |
|---|---|---|
| Pool | Lyme | Bridport. |
| | | Charmouth. |
| | Weymouth | Portland. |
| | | Lulworth. |
| | —— | Swanidge. |
| | | Wareham. |
| Southampton | —— | Chriſt Church |
| | | Limington. |
| | Cowes | Yarmouth. |
| | | Newport. |
| | Portſmouth | Emſworth. |
| Chicheſter | Arundel | Pagham Point. |
| | | Selſey. |
| | Shoreham. | Brighthemſtone. |
| | Lewes | Newhaven. |
| | | Seaford. |
| | Pemſey. | |
| | Haſtings. | |
| | Rye | Winchelſea. |
| | | Lyd |
| | | Rumney. |
| | Hythe | Folſton. |
| Sandwich | Dover. | |
| | —— | Deal. |
| | | Rameſgate. |
| | | Margate. |
| | | Whitſtable. |
| | Feverſham. | |
| | Milton. | |
| | Rocheſter | Queenborough. |

The Ports of North-Britain, with their diviſions into members and creeks.

| Ports. | Members. | Creeks. |
|---|---|---|
| Dunbar | | Eymouth. |
| | | Coldingham. |
| | | Cockburn's Path. |
| | | Sketraw. |
| | | Tywingham. |
| Preſtonpans | | North Berwick. |
| | | Aberlady. |
| | | Port Seaton. |
| | | Muſſelburgh. |
| | | Friggatburn. |
| Leith | | Newhaven. |
| | | Royſton. |
| | | Muirhouſe Haven. |
| | | Cramond. |
| Borrowſtonneſs | —— | Queen's Ferry. |
| | | Blackneſs. |
| | | Aven Water. |
| | | Mouth of Carron. |
| | | New Mill-burn. |
| | Alloa | Airth. |
| | | Elphinſtone Pow. |
| | | Stirling |
| | —— | Clackmanna Pow. |
| | | Kincardin. |
| | | Culroſs. |
| | | Torryburn. |
| | | Limekilns. |
| | | North Ferry. |
| | | Innerkeithing. |
| | | Donny Point. |
| Kircaldy | —— | Aberdour. |
| | | Burnt Iſland. |
| | | Kinghorne. |
| | | Dyſert. |
| | | Weſter Weemys. |
| | | Eaſter Weemys. |
| | | Buck Haven. |
| | | Mithill. |
| | | Levan. |
| | | Largo. |
| | Anſtruther | Ely. |
| | | St. Minants. |
| | | Pitten Weemys. |
| | | Crail. |
| | | Fife Neſs. |

| Ports. | Members. | Creeks. |
|---|---|---|
| Kircaldy | Anſtruther | Bindorſon. |
| | | Kingkill. |
| | | St. Andrew's. |
| | | Eden's Mouth. |
| Dundee | | Ferry of Portincraig. |
| | | Wood Haven. |
| | | Balmerino. |
| | | Pow Lindores. |
| | | Pow Garry. |
| | | North Ferry, or Brughtie. |
| | | Mony Fouth. |
| | | Button Neſs. |
| | | Inder Gowry. |
| Perth | | Mouth of Ern. |
| | | Inch Sherry. |
| | | Pow of Errol. |
| | | Pow Cavy. |
| Montroſs | | Mant's Haven. |
| | | Abertbrothick. |
| | | Auch Muty. |
| | | Lunan Water. |
| | | Uſan. |
| | | Ferry Den. |
| | | Mather. |
| | | John's Haven. |
| | | Gurdon. |
| | | Berrie. |
| | | Tod Head. |
| Aberdeen | | Dunnotyr. |
| | | Cartallan. |
| | | Cratoun. |
| | | Stone Hive or Haven. |
| | | Sketraw. |
| | | Finin, or Port Lethim. |
| | | Coves. |
| | | Don, or Old Town. |
| | | Newburgh. |
| | | The Slains. |
| | | Bottom. |
| | | Peter Head. |
| | | Rattero. |
| | | Cairn Bulg. |
| | | Frazerſburgh. |
| | | Roſarty, |
| | | Auchmedden. |
| | | Bamff. |
| | | Port Soy. |
| | | Cullen Harbour. |
| Inverneſs | | Crooked Haven. |
| | | Garmouth. |
| | | Loſſymouth, or Newport Elgin. |
| | | Findorn. |
| | | Brough Head. |
| | | Nairn. |
| | | Dalneſs. |
| | | Channerie. |
| | | Cromerty. |
| | | Port Mahomack. |
| | | Tain and Ferry. |
| | | Dornock. |
| | | Ferry Ends. |
| | | Dunrobin. |
| | | Helmſdale. |
| Dumfries | | Water of Sark. |
| | | Annan. |
| | | Cumber Trees. |
| | | Ridwath. |
| | | Keltoun Thorn. |
| | | Cars Thorn. |
| | | Burhanry Bay. |
| | Kirkudbright | Eaſt-ſide River Orr. |
| | | Balcary Bay. |
| | | Balmangan Bay. |
| | | Cat-Craig on Fleet. |
| | | Burn of Carſloth. |
| Wigtoun | | Entry of Fleet. |
| | | Ferry toun. |
| | | Cars Know. |
| | | Newtoun Stewart. |
| | | Inverwall. |

| Ports. | Members. | Creeks. |
|---|---|---|
| Wigtoun | | So Bay Poul toun. |
| | | Iſle of Whitehorn. |
| | | Burn of Monreith. |
| | | Burn of Gilleſſey. |
| Stranraer | Port Patrick | Glen Luce. |
| | | Drummore |
| | | Portneſſoch. |
| | | Flott. |
| | | Garvillan. |
| | | Wick of Scarr. |
| | | Bay of Cairn. |
| | | Bay of Finnard. |
| | | Ballantree. |
| | | Sand Houſe. |
| Air | | Girvan. |
| | | Turenberry. |
| | | Dunmure Caſtle. |
| | | Turn Point. |
| Irving | | Salt Coats. |
| | | Port in Croſs. |
| | | Largs. |
| PortGlaſgow | Greenoch. | Skelminly. |
| | | Inverkip. |
| | | Cleugh Stone. |
| | | Gouroch. |
| | | Erſkine. |
| | | Renfrew. |
| | | Patrick. |
| | | Scots Town. |
| | | Kilpatrick. |
| | | Dunbarton. |
| Campbel Toun | | Hill of Ardmore. |
| | | Roſeneath. |
| | | Holy Lock. |
| | | Dunnine. |
| | | Point of Toward. |
| | | Kyles Bute. |
| | | Tarbet of Kintyre. |
| | | Skipneſs Point. |
| | | Cruſage Bay. |
| | | Carradale Bay. |
| | | Sorrall. |
| | | Dunnaverty Bay. |
| | | Mule of Kintyre. |

PORT-CRAION, a caſe for a pencil, uſually four or five inches long, wherein a pencil ſlides up and down by means of a ſpring and button. Its outſide is filled in eight faces, whereon are drawn the ſector lines; its inſide is round, &c.

PORTAGE. *See* PACKAGE.

PORTER. There are in London two ſorts of regular porters, who go of errands and carry burdens. The *tackle porters*, who are employed about the keys and wharfs, and aſſiſt in loading and unloading goods from the ſhips; and *ticket porters*, who have a pewter or ſilver badge, with their names upon it, hanging to their breaſts or aprons. Both theſe claſſes have the honour of being city fraternities; and the laſt muſt not only be free of the city, but give two ſureties in a hundred pounds for their honeſty. They are generally employed in carrying goods from the wholeſale dealers to their cuſtomers; and very heavy burdens to the country waggons. There are other ticket porters who never carry burdens, but are ſolely employed in carrying letters, notes, and ſmall parcels; theſe are entruſted with large ſums of money, which they are frequently ſent to receive. All the porters in general, however ſlaviſh and ſervile their employment, get more money than many of the moſt ingenious artificers; and will not be employed by the day, without being paid a crown for their labour. They take no apprentices.

*Porters rates, for landing, &c. of ſome ſorts of goods.*

Merchants employ that company's porters they beſt approve at the keys, ſuch as fiſhmongers, &c. whoſe charges on the following goods are, as is here expreſſed, and on all other ſorts in proportion.

Sugar,

| | Shipping. | Landing. | Loading | Houſing. | Weighing. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. | s. d. |
| Sugar, the hogſhead | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 4 |
| Ditto, the tierce or barrel | 0 2 | 0 2 | 0 2 | 0 2 | 0 3 |
| Ditto, the butt | 0 6 | 0 6 | 0 6 | 0 6 | 0 8 |
| Cotton wool, the bag | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 |
| Ginger, the bag | 0 1 | 0 1 | 0 1 | 0 1 | 0 1 |
| Molaſſes, the hogſhead | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 3 | 0 4 |
| Logwood, the ton | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Fuſtic, the ton | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Braziletto, the ton | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 |
| Young fuſtic, the ton | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 |
| Lignum Rhodium, the ton | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 | 1 6 |
| Lignum vitæ, the ton | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Tobacco, the hogſhead | 0 3 | 0 2 | 0 2 | 0 2 | 0 2 |
| Ditto, the bundle | 0 1 | 0 1 | 0 1 | 0 1 | 0 1 |
| Daniſh, or Swediſh iron, the ton | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 | 1 0 |
| Hemp, Narva and Riga, the bundle | 0 6 | 0 6 | 0 6 | 0 6 | 0 6 |

*See the article* PACKAGE *ſub finem*, for other rates of *portage*.

PORTO-BELLO is no ancient city, having been built in 1584, to ſerve as a retreat for the galleons, inſtead of Nombre de Dios, ſeated leſs advantageouſly, and where bad air expoſed both the Europeans and American merchants to many diſorders, when their traffic called them to meet at this unhealthful place; though the former is but ſmall, and almoſt as unwholeſome as the other. It is here that the fair is held, for a month or ſix weeks, the time of the galleons ſtay, when the principal dealers return to Panama, where they reſide all the reſt of the year. The concourſe is ſo great at Porto Bello, during the fair, that the ſmalleſt ſhop often lets for a thouſand, and a middling chamber for a hundred and twenty dollars, only for the ſpace it laſts; proviſions alſo augment proportionably, and commonly two thouſand mules are employed in bringing the goods from Panama, and returning with thoſe from Europe, the diſtance between the two places being about eighteen or twenty leagues; the chief of what they bring from Panama on the ſaid two thouſand mules, is gold and ſilver, which is delivered at the place of the fair, and after being there weighed and marked by the proper officers, is thrown by with ſo much neglect (till embarked) in the corner of ſome warehouſes, as pigs of lead are, in the countries where they abound.

The returns from Porto Bello are in the aforeſaid precious metals, indigo, cochineal, cacao, (now brought only by the Caraccas, or Guipuſcoa company) ſugar, tobacco, hides, &c. The king's revenues (being one-fifth of all gold and ſilver) are generally ſent home by the galleons, as well as what appertains to particulars, and which is delivered to theſe latter at Cadiz, after payment of ſuch duties as the king thinks proper to impoſe.

PORTO CAVALLO is the place where all the trade carried on between Spain and the North Sea with Guatamala (a large province of Mexico in the South Sea) is tranſacted. Its inhabitants are almoſt all factors to the merchants of Guatamala, and their houſes magazines for the reception of their goods, being a port of greater commerce than any in the gulf of Honduras, at whoſe bottom it is ſeated pretty near to Rio-Dulce, called alſo the river of Guatamala. The Spaniſh ſhip that brings the European merchandizes here, is one of the Regiſter's, commonly of ſeven or eight hundred tons burthen, loaded with iron, ſteel, paper (for writing and print) linens, fine cloths, ſilks, ſaffron, oil, ſerges, ribbons, thread, and ſome ſmall hardwares, mercceries, and glaſs-beads for the Indians.

The goods which come from Guatamala, are gold, ſilver, cochineal, indigo, hides, ſarſaparilla, jalap, mechoachan, cotton, balm, a ſpecie of petrole oil, &c.

PORTO RICO is ſituated fifteen leagues to the weſtward of Hiſpaniola, being from thirty to thirty-five leagues long, by twenty broad, and was named, either from the port of its capital, which is one of the moſt ſpacious, commodious, and ſecure of America, or from the quantity of gold, at that time extracted from the mines of this iſle.

Now but little of this precious ore appears in the commercial tranſactions of the iſle, the mines having been either exhauſted, or neglected for want of workmen: here is however always ſome little collected in the rivers ſand, and particularly in the torrents, that fall from the mountains, and moſt abundantly in thoſe of Manatnabow and Cecubo.

The chief trade carried on at preſent here, conſiſts in ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton, wool, and thread; caſſia, maſtic, guaiacum, mais, ſalt (of which here are excellent ponds) oranges and lemons, freſh or preſerved, and all ſorts of cattle. Its principal cities are Porto Rico, (the capital) St. Germain, Arezibo, and Guddiamila, though the firſt is where all the buſineſs of the iſle is carried on.

PORTRAIT-PAINTER. The ingenious youth, who is deſirous of embracing this genteel profeſſion, ought to have a genteel education, an engaging addreſs, and a natural taſte for drawing and painting, improved by early practice and the ableſt maſters. He ſhould have money ſufficient to enable him to ſubſiſt like a gentleman, till he can make his merit known, or, in the room of it, the patronage and friendſhip of ſome of the great. The fine portrait-painters take no apprentices; and therefore the youth, after firſt drawing from prints, and then from ſtatues, muſt proceed to copy the human face, and then make his way in the world by the aſſiſtance of his friends and his own genius; and if he is able to get much employment among perſons of diſtinction, he may live happily, and raiſe a handſome fortune.

PORTUGAL. There is hardly a ſtate in Europe, with the title of a kingdom, and whoſe king has no additional territories, that is of leſs extent than that of Portugal; and yet not one has puſhed trade farther, or has maintained it with a ſuperior reputation. Its great conqueſts in both the Indies, its eſtabliſhments in many places on the coaſts of Africa, and the poſſeſſion of the Azores, Madeira, and Cape de Verd iſlands, for a long time ſupported the ſaid commerce, which it might probably have yet preſerved, had the union between it and Spain never happened.

This union, ſo fatal to the Portugueze trade, was agreed on in 1580, after the death of Cardinal Henry, ſucceſſor to the unfortunate Sebaſtian, who was killed at the battle of Alcacer in Barbary, the fourth of Auguſt, 1578; and thereby becoming ſubject to the Spaniſh monarchy, it found a very formidable enemy in the Dutch, who were combating for liberty, almoſt at the ſame time that the others began to ſuffer the yoke which they were ſhaking off.

Brazil was ſoon loſt, and their new enemies became maſters of a part in their Eaſt-Indian conqueſts; and being likewiſe bereaved of a ſhare of their colonies on the Guinea coaſt, they had barely power left, to ſupport the remaining part of their African trade, which had formerly been equally glorious and profitable to them. It is true, that after a conſtrained union, or rather ſervitude of ſixty years, Portugal recovered its primitive power or liberty, and all the ſtates, which it had remaining in the other three parts of the globe, were unanimous with it, in electing John, duke of Braganza for their king, and who was accordingly proclaimed on the firſt of December, 1640.

But the fatal blow to the Portugueſe commerce was ſtruck; for although they afterwards re-poſſeſſed Brazil, and their forts and eſtabliſhments on the African coaſt, were reſtored them, thoſe of the Eaſt-Indies were never again ſettled; inſomuch, that the trade ſince carried on at Liſbon, is nothing in compariſon with what it formerly drove; when the riches of Perſia, Arabia, the ſtates of the Mogul, the coaſts of India, China, Japan, and all the iſles of that vaſt part of the Ocean beyond the line, came to be united at Goa, the capital of their Eaſt-Indian conqueſts, and were by numerous fleets brought to Liſbon, for their diſtribution to all the nations of Europe, by the hands only of theſe their ſole importers.

The preſent trade of Portugal is principally carried on by foreigners; and the chief places for it are Liſbon, Porto Port, Ulla de Conda, St. Ubes, and Faro in Europe; though in the commerce of their American, and other ſettlements, none but the ſubjects can openly be concerned. The Dutch ſend to Liſbon, all ſorts of linen, woollen, and ſilk manufactures; ſuch as printed cottons, and chints, muſlins, and Cambricks, Holland, Oſnabrug, and Sileſia linens, black ſilk, and others, Delft ſerges, men and womens clothes ready made, wigs, hats, and gloves, ſilk and worſted ſtock-

ings, Ruſſia hides, copper pans and kettles, ſteel, mercery, and hardwares, powder, cannon balls, hemp, and flax, corn, paper, and cards, beſides which, moſt of the merchandizes ſent from Holland to Cadiz are proper for Liſbon or the Brazils.

And in return they take from the Portugueſe, Brazil ſugar, tobacco, and ſnuffs; Fernambuc, Campeche, and Brazil wood, hides, cotton, ginger, diverſe drugs, ſweetmeats, indigo, cochineal, ſumack, anniſeeds, wool, oil and olives, figs, raiſins and almonds, oranges and lemons, pearls, diamonds and other precious ſtones, gold and ſilver ingots and coin.

The French trade with Portugal is but ſmall, as his moſt chriſtian majeſty brought it to this low ebb, by prohibiting the importation to his dominions of Portugueſe ſugars and tobacco; there is however a ſale for ſome of the French brocades, perukes, &c. though to no very great value.

The commerce with Italy furniſhes them with paper, and ſome linens from Genoa; glaſs works from Venice; and ſilk from theſe and moſt other parts of this country; who carry back with them ſugar, hides, tobacco, &c.

From the northern powers are brought here hemp, flax, tar, pitch, iron, and all naval ſtores for the king's yards and otherwiſe; beſides copper, ſome linens, &c. and the ſhips bringing theſe commodities (of which the Swedes are always moſt) reload with wine, brandy, oil, ſalt, oranges, lemons, cork, ſumack, and ſome few other commodities.

The American trade employs a great number of ſhips; as there ſail annually from Liſbon and Oporto twenty to twenty-two merchant veſſels for Rio Janeiro; thirty for the Bay of all Saints; as many for Pernambuc, and ſeven or eight for Paraiba; thoſe for the two firſt places, of five hundred tons burthen; but for the latter, not above half as big.

All the ſhips deſtined for the ſame part ſail together, and obſerve the ſame method in their return; thoſe of Oporto joining them of Liſbon. The Paraiba and Pernambuc fleets depart all in company, and come back in like manner: and the king grants five men of war yearly to convoy theſe fleets, viz. two for Rio Janeiro, two for All Saints Bay, and one for Pernambuc; ſending ſome veſſels to meet them on their return in the latitude of the Azores. The departure of all theſe ſhips for Brazil is commonly in March, and their return in September or October; and formerly it was permitted to carry ſilver with them for trade; but now this is prohibited, and their cargoes reſtrained to be goods, of which the following ones are the chief, viz. flour, wine, brandy, oil, ordinary worſted ſtuffs, linen and thread of the country; ſilk ſtockings, hats, bays, ſerges, and other woollens from England and Holland; of whitened linen called *panicos*, and raw ditto named *aniages* and *groga*; copper plates, and other requiſites for the ſugar engines and mills from Hamburgh; ſome linens from Bretagne; a few druggets, ſerges, and clouded brocades of all ſorts of colours from France; and tabbies, taffeties, ſewing ſilk, paper, &c. from Italy. The Engliſh goods however make up the beſt half, and generally find the beſt diſpatch. From the bay of All Saints the ſhips come loaded with tobacco, ſugar, ſugar-candy, indigo, whale oil and fins (which come aſhore here in great quantities from June to September) cotton, oil, and balſam of capaiva, ipecacuanha, pareira brava (or the wild vine; affirmed by Mr. Savary in his dictionary to come from hence, though denied by Dr. James, in his diſpenſatory, to be a native of this country, as he ſays that it is of the Eaſt-India growth; both allow it to be a good diuretic; and the former reports that the Portugueſe regard it as a ſpecific for the ſtone and gravel) ſome cinnamon, long pepper, ginger, elephants teeth (from the coaſt of Africk) copper (from Angola) hides, ſilk, dying and ſweet ſcented woods, ſaffron, rocou, laque, rock cryſtal, cocos, ambergris (that the ſea ſometimes throws aſhore) amethiſts (of which here is a mine) gold (found in the gravel of a river near a place called St. Paul, of which the king's fifth may nearly amount to eight or nine hundred marks) and all ſorts of ſweetmeats wet and dry.

The ſhips that touch here from Goa, in their way to Europe, furniſh the inhabitants of Brazil with ſpice, drugs, and other Eaſtern merchandize; and by thoſe from Angola and Congo they receive their negroes (at leaſt fifteen thouſand yearly) ivory, wax, honey, civet, gold, and all other commodities that thoſe parts produce; but theſe goods (the ſlaves excepted) are moſtly ſent to Portugal in the Liſbon fleet.

Pernambuc produces only ſugar, and Brazil (or Fernambuc) wood, being ſteril in the neceſſaries of life; and the inhabitants (which are more numerous than in any other part of the Brazil) would hardly be able to ſubſiſt without the foreign ſupplies the ſhips bring them; on the contrary, Rio Janeiro is extremely fertile in ſugar, indigo and cotton, as it would be in tobacco, was the growth of more than what ſuffices for the inhabitants uſe not prohibited; it likewiſe brings wheat to perfection, and has Brazil wood, hides, and fiſh oil in plenty.

It is particularly with the Portugueſe of this part that the Spaniards of Buenos Ayres carry on their trade; theſe furniſhing them with flour, biſcuit, ſalt, or dried meat; and the Portugueſe giving in exchange, ſugar, tobacco, indigo, wine, brandy, rum, and ſeveral other merchandiſes that they receive from Europe.

The only company which the Portugueſe have, is that trading to the coaſt of Africa, of which we ſhall give ſome account.

### *The Portugueſe African Company.*

The true object of this company's trade is the furniſhing Brazil with negroes; and their patent bears date from the beginning of the year 1724, under the following articles:

1. The new company engages to build a fortreſs at their own expence at the mouth of the river Angre, over againſt the iſle of Coriſco, which belongs to the king of Benin, near the coaſt of Gabon, otherwiſe called Pongo, in one degree thirty minutes ſouth latitude.

2. That they ſhall furniſh as many negroes as the Portugueſe plantations in America ſhall have occaſion for.

3. That it ſhall not be permitted either to Portugueſe or foreign ſhips, to traffick on the ſaid coaſt, on penalty of forfeiting ſhip and cargo.

4. Nevertheleſs, if any ſhips are forced thither, either by ſtorm or ſome other neceſſity, the company's factors may permit them to water, and likewiſe ſell them the proviſions they may ſtand in need of, without permitting them, however, to tranſact any buſineſs.

5. That this conceſſion ſhall laſt for fifteen years, after which it ſhall be lawful for his Portugueſe majeſty to prolong the term, or to re-enter into poſſeſſion of the country granted.

6. In this laſt caſe, his majeſty may take poſſeſſion of the forts, artillery, ſhips, and other effects of the company, on paying ready money for them, according to a valuation.

Some time after this grant was made public, the new company fixed up at Liſbon billets, declaring the conditions under which an intereſt might be had therein, the funds it would conſiſt of, and the price of the actions. Theſe conditions were couched in twelve articles, of which the principal ones are,

That the fund ſhould only be one million of cruſades.

That the actions ſhould be worth a thouſand cruſades each, of which the proprietors ſhould pay three hundred cruſades at ſubſcribing; the ſame ſum in the month of December, 1724; and the remaining four hundred cruſades whenever the company thinks proper, after ſix months notice.

That thoſe proprietors, who ſhall not comply with the payments at the time preſcribed, ſhall forfeit what they have already advanced.

That the company ſhall pay the proprietors, a year after the firſt undertaking, a dividend of five *per cent.* on the capital ſum they ſhall have paid in, and this taken from the profits, which the company ſhall make by their trade.

In fine, that the chief or general commander, who has undertaken to form this company, ſhall have fourteen *per cent.* upon the profits that it ſhall make, on which he undertakes to pay the factors, and other perſons that he ſhall deem neceſſary to be employed on the coaſt of Africk, at Liſbon, Brazil, or elſewhere.

### *Trade between Great-Britain and Portugal.*

Our trade with this kingdom is generally eſteemed of great value, and the importance of it to both nations is very conſiderable, as the Portugueſe take off a large quantity

of our native commodities, and we in return, confume a greater one of theirs than all the nations in Europe put together; though that people appear in fome meafure inſenſible of the advantages ariſing to them from this commerce, and ſeem to have forgot the little diſpatch they had for their wines (the greateſt product of their country) when peace and low duties made thoſe of France to be the general conſumption.

The Engliſh factory at Liſbon publiſhed a memorial in the month of July 1729, by which it appears, and ſeemingly beyond contradiction, that the ballance of trade with that kingdom was againſt us; and as we have no reaſon to think there has been any favourable alteration in it ſince, we ſhall give our readers a copy of the ſaid memorial, as it was communicated by one of the gentlemen principally concerned in drawing it up, with the remarks made by that conſiderable and judicious body of traders on it.

*An eſtimate of the yearly conſumption in the Portugueſe dominions, of the commodities which are of the growth and manufactures of the Engliſh dominions, calculated by the annual ſales of the merchants reſiding in Liſbon, and by the beſt informations taken from them and from other parts.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Sales in Liſbon, computed by ſeveral Engliſh and other merchants houſes ſettled there | Rs. | 1,620,000,000 |
| Sales in Porto | | 600,000,000 |
| Sales in Coimbra and Figueira | | 120,000,000 |
| Sales in Madeira, and the other iſlands, about | | 100,000,000 |
| Bacalboa, 50,000 quintals, at 4000 | Rs. | 200,000,000 |
| | | 2,640,000,000 |
| Duties paid for cuſtoms might be reckoned at 15 *per cent.* on the ſales | | 396,000,000 |
| Small charges in and out the cuſtom-houſe, and at the ſale 1 *per cent.* | | 26,400,000 |
| Port charges (conſulage excepted) of all the Engliſh ſhips, expences of the captains and ſailors, and of all the Engliſh in Portugal, at a moderate computation | | 50,000,000 |
| | | 572,400,000 |
| Remains net to the Britiſh nation | | 2,067,600,000 |

*An eſtimate of the yearly conſumption by the Engliſh, of the product of the Portugueſe dominions, calculated by the exportation from them to Great-Britain, Ireland, and the Engliſh poſſeſſions in America.*

WINES.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| From Lisbon | 3000 pipes, white, at 40000 | 120,000,000 | |
| | 2000 ditto, red | 50000 | 100,000,000 |
| From Porto | 25000 ditto, | 50000 | 1,250,000,000 |
| From Figueira | 1500 ditto, | 45000 | 67,500,000 |
| From Madeira | 10000 ditto, | 28000 | 280,000,000 |
| | | | 1,817,500,000 |
| 41500 pipes. | | | |
| Oils, from Liſbon, Porto, and Algarve, 2000 pipes, at 40000 | | | 80,000,000 |
| Figs, almonds, raiſins, brooms, canes, ſhumach, cork, &c. from Algarve | | | 20,000,000 |
| Fifty thouſand cheſts of fruit, from Liſbon, Porto, &c. at 3000 Rs. | | | 150,000,000 |
| Four thouſand moys of ſalt from Liſbon, St. Uval, &c. at 1400 Rs. | | | 56,000,000 |
| The exportation by the Engliſh, for their own conſumption of the Portugueſe commodities, annually amounts to | | | 2,123,500,000 |
| The net proceeds belonging to the Engliſh, of the conſumption of their commodities in the Portugueſe dominions as above, amounts to | | | 2,067,600,000 |
| Conſequently the ballance in favour of Portugal, and loſt by England, is | | | 55,900,000 |
| | | | 2,123,500,000 |
| Portugal loſes by her trade with the ſeveral other nations from whom ſhe receives commodities, *extra* of the Engliſh | | | 2,964,000,000 |
| The Engliſh pay for the ballance of their trade with Portugal, as *per* the above eſtimate | | | 55,900,000 |
| | | | 2,908,100,000 |

Part of which goes directly to Italy, and the reſt moſtly, by the way of England, on account of the conveniency of the exchange, and of ſhipping.

By the preceding eſtimates, made favourable to the Engliſh trade, as the conſumption of their commodities is ſet down rather more than leſs, and their exportation of the Portugueſe products as moderately computed as is poſſible both in quantity and price, it plainly appears,

1ſt. That the ballance of trade between Great-Britain and Portugal, is in favour of Portugal, who annually gains by the ſame, and the Engliſh loſe Rs. 55,900,000.

2dly. That conſequently that trade cannot occaſion the extraction of gold from Portugal, ſince the liquid produce of all the commodities conſumed there, are not ſufficient to pay for thoſe which they take from Portugal.

3dly. That therefore the gold, which annually goes from thence, is for to pay other foreign nations the ballance of their trade, ſince the Portugueſe cannot pay them in the product of their own country much above the quarter part of the value of what they conſume of thoſe foreign ones.

4thly. That the king of Portugal receives every year a very conſiderable ſum by the duties on the Engliſh trade, which are much higher in proportion than thoſe on the commodities of other nations, being on the importation Rs. 396,000,000, and on the exportation 212,350,000, which amounts annually to Rs. 608,350,000.

Beſides theſe truths ſo clearly demonſtrated, there are many others which well deſerve to be conſidered; ſuch are the following:

No nation, beſides the Engliſh, take off the Portugueſe wines, nor can be ſuppoſed ever to do it, ſince thoſe who want this commodity are ſupplied much better from France, and from other parts, and at more moderate prices; and ſhould England reduce the duties on the French wines to an equality with thoſe on the Portuguefe, this branch of trade, which is ſo advantageous to them as to amount yearly to above one million eight hundred thouſand mill-reis, paid them in ready money, by the Engliſh, would be entirely loſt to them: the ſame thing, a little more or leſs, is evident with reſpect to other fruits, ſince the Engliſh take off above ten times the quantity which all other nations together do.

And though this branch of trade is much leſs, conſiderable, yet it amounts by the eſtimate to 170,000,000 reis, and being (the ſame with their wines) the growth of their country, that whole ſum which the Engliſh pay for it, is juſt ſo much gain to Portugal. It is remarkable, that notwithſtanding the conſiderable ſum of money, which the commodities exported by the Engliſh amount to, they are never indebted to the Portugueze, paying them always ready money; whereas, on the contrary, theſe laſt are always indebted to the Engliſh; and this truth naturally leads to the following conſiderations: that Portugal has always in poſſeſſion a very large ſtock belonging to the Engliſh, which (conſidering the nature of the ſales in this country, and the cuſtom and method of the ſhopkeeper's payments) may ſafely be computed (allowance being made for what is ſold for ready money) to amount to above the import of one year's ſales, ſo that by a moderate computation the Engliſh have conſtantly a dead ſtock in Portugal, conſiſting of goods in the cuſtom-houſe and their warehouſes, and in debts outſtanding, of 2,500,000,000 reis or upwards. The Engliſh certainly furniſh the Portugueze with the moſt uſeful and neceſſary goods (their own corn for the preſent excepted) and at ſuch moderate prices as no other nation can afford to do. If at this time they bring them none of their corn (there being a ſcarcity of it) they have done it formerly, and no doubt will do it again when they can ſpare it; and ſince Portugal cannot ſubſiſt without a conſtant ſupply of that commodity from abroad, ſhould there happen to be a bad harveſt in Spain, or a rupture between thoſe two crowns, the Engliſh by the power of their navy, and the quantity of their trading ſhips, are the only nation which can at all times effectually furniſh

niſh and ſecure what foreign corn is neceſſary to Portugal.

To the above remarks on the trade of Portugal, we ſhall take the liberty to add the following ones, as conſequential to thoſe made by the merchants there. And,

1ſt. If they are ſuch as may be relied on, Mr. King's calculations on that commerce muſt have been very erroneous, or it muſt have been greatly altered in the few intervening years, between his eſtimate and the Liſbon merchants; as he ſuppoſes (in his dedication, p. 3. vol. iii.) that our exports to Portugal were then encreaſed from about three hundred thouſand pounds a year to near a million and a half: whereas by the preceding eſtimate it may be ſeen, that in the year 1729, the net produce of every thing ſold in that kingdom did amount to but little more than one-third part of the foregoing ſum.

2dly. But if Mr. King's calculations are right, as we are inclined to believe, when we conſider they were made by ſome gentlemen eminent both for their capacities and honour, we muſt conclude ſo great a difference in ſo ſhort a ſpace, muſt have proceeded from large quantities of our woollens, &c. being carried into Portugal, with the view of introducing them afterwards, through that channel, into Spain, and we cannot otherwiſe account for the diſparity between two eſtimates made by different ſets of gentlemen, equally to be credited and relied on.

It is however certain, that our trade with that kingdom was in the laſt century almoſt deſtrnyed by the encouragement given to manufactures of their own; though indeed the blow came from hence at firſt; as one Courteen, an Iriſhman, and a ſervant in the then queen of England's family (afterwards queen dowager) carried over in the year 1681 ſeveral clothiers and bay-makers into Portugal, who immediately began to exerciſe their profeſſions (particularly at Port Alegre and Covillhan) though with various ſucceſs, as the latter were ſoon diſmiſſed, on its being found that the ſtaple of their wool was too ſhort for the manufacturing of bays, but the others were continued, and brought the fabric of their cloths to ſuch perfection, that in June or July of 1684 (among ſome ſumptuary laws then made) his Portugueze majeſty prohibited the importation of any foreign ones, which continued in force, till by the treaty of 1703 with that crown, it was agreed to reſcind the prohibitory decree, and permit the free importation of all woollens, as before the making it; which the ſubſequent abſtract of the ſaid treaty will demonſtrate.

### Article I.

His ſacred majeſty of Portugal promiſes, both in his own name, and that of his ſucceſſors, to admit for ever hereafter into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the woollen manufactures of the Britains, as was accoſtomed till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheleſs upon this condition,

### Article II.

That is to ſay, that her ſacred royal majeſty of Great-Britain ſhall, in her own name, and that of her ſucceſſors, be obliged for ever hereafter, to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britain; ſo that at no time, whether there ſhall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, any thing more ſhall be demanded for theſe wines by the name of cuſtom or duty, or by whatſoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they ſhall be imported into Great-Britain in pipes or hogſheads, or other caſks, than what ſhall be demanded from the like quantity or meaſure of French wine, deducting or abating a third part of the cuſtom or duty. But if at any time this deduction, or abatement of cuſtoms, which is to be made as aforeſaid, ſhall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it ſhall be juſt and lawful for his ſacred royal majeſty of Portugal again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the reſt of the Britiſh woollen manufactures.

### Article III.

The moſt excellent lords the plenipotentiaries promiſe, that their above-named maſters ſhall ratify this treaty.

(L. S.) John Methuen.

In conſequence of this treaty, our woollens have ever ſince been currently admitted into Portugal, and we now ſend there, cloths of all ſorts, bays, perpets, ſtuffs, hats, hoſe, &c. We ſend likewiſe iron, wrought braſs, lead, pewter, ſhot, ſtained paper, and other ſtationary wares, ſail cloth, linen, glaſs, earthen and cabinet wares, gun flints, toys, millinery and turnery wares, painters colours, butter and cheeſe, gunpowder, cordage, wrought and mixt ſilk, clockwork and watches, garters, haberdaſhery ware, all ſorts of corn and meal, wrought plate, lanthorn leaves, leather, logwood, copperas, apothecary's ſtuffs, drugs, glue, rice, bees-wax, &c. And our imports from thence are thoſe mentioned in the laſt quoted eſtimate.

POSITION, *falſe poſition*, or *rule of falſhood*, in arithmetic, conſiſts in calculating on ſeveral falſe numbers taken at random, and, from the differences found therein, determining the number ſought.

Poſition is either ſingle or double.

*Single poſition* is when there happens in the proportion ſome partition of numbers into parts proportional, and then, by one operation, the queſtion may be reſolved by this rule:

Imagine a number at pleaſure, and work therewith, according to the tenour of the queſtion, as if it were the true number, and what proportion there is between the falſe concluſion and falſe poſition, ſuch proportion hath the given number to the number ſought; therefore the number found by augmentation ſhall be the firſt term of the rule of three, and the number ſuppoſed ſhall be the ſecond term, and the given number ſhall be the third term.

*Double poſition*, is when there can be no partition in the numbers to make a proportion: therefore, you muſt make a ſuppoſition twice, proceeding therein according to the tenor of the queſtion; and, if either of the ſuppoſed numbers happens to ſolve the propoſition, the work is done; but, if not, obſerve the errors, and whether they be greater or leſs than the reſolution requireth; and mark the errors accordingly with the ſigns + or —.

Then multiply contrariwiſe the one poſition by the other error, and if the errors be both too great, or both too little, ſubtract the one product from the other, and divide the difference of the products by the difference of the errors.

But if the errors be unlike, as the one + and the other —, add the products, and divide the ſum thereof by the ſum of the errors added together: for the proportion of the errors is the ſame with the proportion of the exceſſes or defects of the numbers ſuppoſed to the number ſought.

POST. *See* Post-Office.

POST-ENTRIES. *See* Bill *of Entry* and Certificate.

POSTING, in book-keeping, is the bringing an account forward from one book to another, as from the journal or waſte-book into the ledger. *See* Book-Keeping.

POSTNATI. In the ſeventh year of king James, after many arguments and long debates, it was by all the judges reſolved, that ſuch as were born in Scotland after the deſcent of the crown of England to king James, were no aliens in England: but the *antenati*, that is, ſuch as were born before that deſcent, were aliens in regard of the time of their birth. *Co.* 7. *Rep. Calvin's caſe.*

POST-*Office*. A general poſt-office erected, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 35. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. Made perpetual and part of the general fund, 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7.

Packet-boats not to carry merchandize, without leave from the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 22.

The king's eſtate-tail and reverſinn in fee in the poſt-office revenue conſolidated, 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 12.

Carriers prohibited to carry letters. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 3.

How horſes are to be provided. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 5, 20, 21, 27, 28.

Penalty of ſending ſhips letters to general poſt-office. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 15.

Penalty of carrying the mail in any ſhip which is not free. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 24.

Small debts for poſtage recoverable as ſmall tithes. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 30.

Saving of the privileges of the univerſities. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 32.

Officers

Officers not to influence elections. 9 *Ann. c.* 10. *f.* 44.

Bills of exchange, &c. to pay diſtinct poſtage. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *f.* 51.

Penny allowed for the delivery of penny-poſt letters in the country. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33.

Poſt-chaiſes may be furniſhed by any perſon. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25.

Writs to pay poſtage as letters. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *f.* 7.

Pattern incloſed to pay as a double letter. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *f.* 8.

Offences againſt the acts concerning the poſt-office, to be excepted out of the general pardon. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *f.* 28.

For preventing frauds and abuſes, in relation to the ſending and receiving letters and packets free from the duty of poſtage, 4 *Geo.* III. To alter certain rates of poſtage, 5 *Geo.* III. but as this laſt act is of ſome conſequence, we ſhall here give an abſtract of it.

*Abſtract of an act to alter certain rates of poſtage, and to amend, explain, and enlarge, ſeveral proviſions in an act made in the ninth year of the reign of queen Anne, and in other acts relating to the revenue of the poſt-office.*

The preamble to this act ſets forth, that the ſecurity and improvement of correſpondence, throughout his majeſty's dominions, being a matter of great concernment, and highly neceſſary for the preſervation and extenſion of trade and commerce; and likewiſe, that by the vaſt acceſſion of territory gained by the late treaty of peace, ſeveral communications having been opened, and new poſts eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral parts of his majeſty's dominions in America, for which the rates of poſtage cannot, under the preſent laws, be properly aſcertained; it is therefore enacted, that ſo much of the act of 9 *Ann.* as eſtabliſhes the rates of poſtage of letters between London and the Britiſh dominions in America, and places within the ſaid dominions, be repealed, and from and after the tenth of October, 1765, inſtead of the rates thereby eſtabliſhed, the following take place.

For all letters and packets paſſing from London to any port within the Britiſh dominions in America, and from any ſuch port unto London, for every ſingle letter, one ſhilling; for every double letter, two ſhillings; for every treble letter, three ſhillings; and for every ounce, four ſhillings; and ſo in proportion for every packet of deeds, writs, or other things; and from any port in the ſaid dominions, to any other port therein, by ſea, for every ſingle letter, four-pence; and ſo in proportion as above.

The rates of inland poſtage in America, for any diſtance not exceeding ſixty miles, are, for every ſingle letter, four-pence, and all others in proportion; for upwards of ſixty, and not exceeding one hundred miles, every ſingle letter, ſix-pence, others in proportion; for upwards of one hundred, and not exceeding two hundred miles, every ſingle letter, eight pence, others in proportion; and for upwards of two hundred, and not exceeding one hundred miles farther, for every ſuch farther diſtance, every ſingle letter, two-pence, and others in proportion.

From and after the tenth of October, 1765, no veſſel is to be admitted to make entry, or break bulk, till the letters on board are delivered to the poſt-office; except in ſuch caſes where they are to be delivered to the ſuperintendant of the quarentine, to be diſpatched by him to the poſt-office. Perſons, refuſing to deliver up ſuch letters, forfeit twenty pounds; one moiety to the king, and the other to the proſecutor; with full coſts; and one-penny extra is charged on all ſhip-letters not brought by the packet-boats.

From and after the tenth of October, 1765, the preſent rates of poſtage by the general poſt, not exceeding one poſt-ſtage in Great-Britain and Ireland, and not exceeding two in England, are to ceaſe, and the following rates are to take place, viz. rates for poſtage not exceeding one poſt-ſtage, the ſum of one-penny; for every double letter, two-pence; for every treble letter, three-pence; and for every ounce, four-pence; and ſo in proportion for every packet of deeds, writs, or other things. Above one, and not exceeding two poſt-ſtages, the ſum of two-pence, and other letters in proportion; but theſe regulations are not to extend to the penny-poſt.

The rates of poſtage between England and Ireland, through Carliſle, Dumfries, Port Patrick, and Donaghadee, or other convenient ports, repeal ſo much of the act of 9 *Ann.* as directs the poſtage between Port Patrick and Donaghadee to be paid where the letters are delivered.

To prevent diſputes, poſt-roads may be meaſured by perſons appointed by the poſtmaſter-general for the time being; and a return is to be made thereof upon oath, and entered in the three chief poſt-offices in Great-Britain and Ireland, and the chief offices in America: fair ſurveys alſo are to be made out, and depoſited in the reſpective offices, ſigned by the perſons making the ſame, and atteſted upon oath, and certified by the poſtmaſter-general, or his deputies. Moreover, on ſuſpicion of error, new ſurveys may be made out, according to which poſtage is to be charged.

Power is likewiſe hereby given to ſettle penny-poſt-offices, where convenient, in any city or town, and the ſuburbs thereof, and places adjacent, within the kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the Britiſh dominions in America. Where ſuch offices are eſtabliſhed, no perſon may collect the letters without being duly licenſed. Letters, &c. brought by the inland or foreign poſt to the London offices, and directed beyond the department of the general-poſt, but within the delivery of the penny-poſt, may be ſent by the penny-poſt, and charged accordingly: and, from and after July 5, 1765, no packet exceeding four ounces (except thoſe ſent by the general poſt, &c.) may be ſent by the penny-poſt.

From July 5, 1765, the ſame rates of poſtage are to take place between London and Hamburgh, as between London and Germany; and the poſtage of letters to be ſent out of Great-Britain, may, if deemed neceſſary, be demanded upon their being put into the office.

The penalty of any officer of the poſt-office ſecreting or embezzling any letter with any bank-bill or note, &c. therein, or taking out any ſuch note or bill, is felony; the penalty of robbing mails is felony; and the penalty of any officer, &c. embezzling or miſapplying the poſtage money received by him, or deſtroying any letter or packet, or advancing the rates, and not accounting for the ſame, is alſo felony.

The poſt-boy quitting or deſerting the mail, or ſuffering any perſon (except the guard) to ride on the horſe or carriage, or loitering on the road, &c. is to be committed to hard labour; and unlawfully collecting, conveying, or delivering, letters or packets, he forfeits ten ſhillings for every letter, &c. and if not paid forthwith, he is to be committed to hard labour.

The clauſes, &c. in the act of 9 *Ann.* or in any other act touching the general or penny-poſt-office, not hereby altered or repealed, are extended to this act.

The rates and pecuniary penalties are to be deemed ſterling money.

The clerk of the parliaments, and clerk of the Houſe of Commons, are empowered to ſend and receive letters free of poſtage.

POTASH, in the manufactures, &c. an impure fixed alcaline ſalt, made by burning from vegetables. We have ſeveral kinds of it in uſe in the various manufactures; but what is beſt for medicinal purpoſes, and is now expected to be uſed in the ſhops, is the Ruſſian kind, which is made in a different manner from any of the others, and has therefore peculiar properties which they muſt neceſſarily want. It will be ſeen by the ſeveral analyſes of vegetables that one of their principles is an acid, and that this acid is volatile, and is ſent up in vapour in burning. It may ſeem odd to thoſe who look upon potaſh to be a mere fixed alcaline ſalt, to obſerve that the want of an admixture of this acid renders it defective: yet nothing is more certain, than that potaſh and pure fixed alkali differ; that pure fixed alkali will not anſwer the purpoſes of potaſh in many of the manufactures, and that no good potaſh can be made without an admixture of this acid. It is evident that this volatile principle muſt be loſt in the calcination, nay in the very reducing the wood to aſhes; it is for this reaſon that all the potaſh in the world made only by burning and lixiviation wants it, and is therefore defective. The Swediſh and Ruſſian alone have it, and they are therefore, properly ſpeaking, alone true and perfect potaſh, fit for the purpoſes of our manufactures of ſeveral kinds. Theſe

Swediſh

Swediſh and Ruſſian kinds are diveſted of their native acid in the firſt proceſs of burning; but it is peculiar, in the after management of the works, that it is reſtored to them again from other wood: this will be evident in the proceſs itſelf; but, before that is delivered, it will be proper to obſerve what are the ſeveral kinds of this ſalt now in uſe: theſe are principally five. 1. The German. 2. The Spaniſh. 3. The home-made. 4. The Swediſh, and, 5. The Ruſſian kind.

The German potaſh is a tolerably white ſalt, very pure, not very hard, of a very acrid taſte, and growing damp if kept in a moiſt air.

The Spaniſh is a ſomewhat leſs pure ſalt than the German, moderately hard, often of a bluiſh colour, and of a leſs acrid taſte.

The home-made, or Engliſh potaſh, is a coarſe brown or blackiſh kind, harder than either of the former, and yet more eaſily growing damp in a moiſt air.

The Swediſh is blacker and fouler than the Engliſh, and of a much greater hardneſs. It alſo turns eaſily in a damp air, and is principally diſtinguiſhed from it, by wanting certain long and black ſtreaks ſeen in the other, which are owing to ſtraws mixed in the making with the ſalt.

The Ruſſian potaſh is the hardeſt and darkeſt coloured of all. It is brought to us in large maſſes, almoſt as hard as ſtones, and yet of all the kinds, is the ſooneſt affected by a damp air, and runs into the thinneſt fluid by means of it.

The German kind is what is commonly ſold among us under the name of pearl-aſhes. The manner of making it is this: large quantities of the wood are burnt, and the aſhes produced by them are boiled in water; the water, when it has thus taken up the fixed ſalt they abound with, is ſet by to ſettle till very clear, and is then evaporated to a dryneſs, and the ſalt we meet with under the name of pearl-aſhes is left behind. They uſe all ſorts of trees indiſcriminately for this, except the reſinous kinds, which yield little or no ſalt. This is a good aleali, and anſwers very well for ſeveral purpoſes. But where what is properly called potaſh is required, that is, where a ſalt ſated with the volatile acid and oil of the wood is wanted, there it cannot do.

The Spaniſh potaſh, called burilia, is made by one operation; and without the trouble of boiling and evaporating; the plant it is made from is a ſpecies of kali, the *kali Hiſpanicum ſupinum annuum ſedi folliis brevibus*. They ſow this plant in fields as we do corn, and at a proper ſeaſon cut and dry it. They then build up certain kilns of ſtone for preparing the potaſh; they throw in a handful of the herb, and ſet it on fire; they throw more upon it, and, as this burns away, they add more, and this they continue to do till the kiln will hold no more; they then cover it up and leave the fire to do all it can by itſelf; when all this is cool, they open the kilns, and find the aſhes calcined, and as it were vitrified, being conereted together in a hard maſs at the bottom of the kiln, which they dig out and ſend to market. There is in many other parts of the world a kind of potaſh made in the ſame manner from the common kali of the ſea-coaſts; but this is much inferior to the Spaniſh kind.

The home-made potaſh is more like the German in its preparation, than it is to the latter, but it is very different in its colour, and in ſome of its qualities; fern, and other uſeleſs plants, are collected in large quantities and burnt to aſhes; theſe aſhes are boiled in water, and when that liquor has taken up the whole quantity of ſalt contained in them, it is poured off and ſet by to ſettle; it is then poured clear into a large tub, placed near a hearth for burning on, and a parcel of ſtraw being laid by it, a looſe handful is dipped into the liquor, and immediately ſet on fire, and left on the hearth to burn; this is covered, while flaming, with another handful of the ſtraw, and others dipped in the ſame liquor are added, as the former burn away, till by this means all the liquor has been taken up by the ſtraw, and the whole burnt. They then find the ſalt that was in the liquor concreted into a ſort of hard cake upon the hearth, and full of the fragments of black or half burnt ſtraws; they take this up, and pack it in cloſe barrels for ſale.

Both theſe latter kinds contain ſomething of the neceſſary volatile part of vegetable matter; the one is preſerved in the burning, by covering up the kiln before it is quite carried off, the other by the addition of freſh matter from the ſtraw, but this is in ſmall quantity. The Swediſh and Ruſſian are the only kinds that have this volatile acid matter properly combined with them; they are diveſted of it like the others in a great meaſure in the firſt burning, but it is added to them afterwards, from freſh vegetable matter which they are calcined with. The method of making the potaſh of theſe two countries need not be laid down ſeparate; the only difference is that the Swedes uſe decayed wood, which yields leſs ſalt, and uſe common water in the latter part of the proceſs, in which the Ruſſians uſe a lye; by theſe means the Ruſſian potaſh is produced in larger quantities, and is ſtronger than that of Sweden, which otherwiſe reſembles it. The proceſs is this:

They cut down all kinds of trees that their woods afford, except the reſinous ones, ſuch as the pine and fir kinds, and the like: they pile up a heap of new cut wood, which they cover on the ſurface with turfs of earth pretty thick, leaving only certain apertures at the top and in the ſides; they then ſet fire to the bottom of the pile, and watching it to ſtop up any crack that may happen in the covering, which they do with wetted clay, they reduce the whole to aſhes, of which they have by this means conſiderably more than double the quantity they would have had if the wood had been burnt in the open air. When all is cool, they take away the turfs, and with a kind of fine rakes of iron they ſeparate the coarſer matter, the imperfectly burnt coals, &c. from the fine aſhes: they then, with a ſomewhat coarſer rake, ſeparate from this foul matter the larger coals, clods of earth, &c. and the remainder, which is principally aſhes, though too foul to mix with the fine quantity, they boil in large veſſels of water, making a very ſtrong lixivium.

With this lixivium they work up the potaſhes, from which the coarſe ones were ſeparated, into a kind of ſtiff paſte, by treading and beating them with wooden inſtruments. When the whole is thus perfectly mixed, they cut down a large quantity of fir, pine, or ſome other reſinous wood, which has the double advantage for them of burning eaſily, and of containing a large quantity of acid. They cut this new wood into long pieces, and lay a row of theſe upon the ground for the baſe of the new pile, and over this they lay a ſecond row croſs-wiſe. This chequered foundation they cover a foot thick with the paſte they have made of their aſhes and the lye; they then lay another bed of wood, and cover this in the ſame manner with a bed of the paſte; and when they have continued this till their whole quantity of paſte is expended, which ſometimes ſerves to raiſe a pile of thirty or forty feet high, they ſet fire to the wood at the bottom, which ſoon communicates through the beds of paſte, and the whole pile is ſeen to be one maſs of terrible fire; the extreme force of this heat ſoon makes the beds of aſhes melt and run; when the whole is in this ſtate, which always happens before the wood is reduced to aſhes, they, with long poles, throw down the pile, and ſpread the whole upon the ground; they then gather round it, while burning, and the ſalt running among it, and with long poles of a green and pliant, but tough wood, they beat it in every part, which at once puts out the fire, and more perfectly mixes the running ſalt with the leſs melted part. They then find the potaſh collected in cakes as hard as a ſtone about the logs of wood, and ſeparating it, by ſtriking with large hammers, they pack it up for exportation.

This is the Ruſſian potaſh, ſo greatly preferable for many purpoſes to all the other kinds; it is evident, that this recovers again that volatile acid, and oily matter, of which the aſhes were diveſted, in great part, by the firſt burning, from the freſh wood employed in calcining it; and this wood, being of the reſinous kind, has more of it to add, than was originally in the matter it was formed of.

The Swedes have much the ſame method of working in the making of potaſh, and, probably, the ſecret has been carried from one of theſe parts to the other by the workmen; but the Swedes are not ſuffered to cut down any wood but ſuch as is in a decaying ſtate, which yields leſs ſalt than if it were ſound; and they not only perform the proceſs in a very imperfect manner, but want ſome of the eſſential parts of it.

The uſe of potaſh, in the manufactures, is very great. The ſoap and glaſs trade conſume a vaſt deal of it; and the bleachers,

bleachers, dyers, &c. much more. In medicine, the German kind, or pearl-aſhes, ſerve our chemiſts in the place of alcali ſalts, that would come dearer. The Ruſſian kind ſerves to make the medicinal lees, ſoap, and the common cauſtic; and no other ſort ought to be uſed for either of theſe purpoſes.

Potaſhes, in what ſhips to be imported, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 8. Not to be imported from the Netherlands or Germany, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 23. *See* PLANTATIONS.

POTTER. The youth deſigned for this buſineſs, if he propoſes to ſet up for himſelf, and to have the neceſſary qualifications for carrying the work to the greateſt perfection, ought to have a fortune of at leaſt one thouſand pounds, and to be a tolerable maſter of the art of drawing, previous to his going apprentice; and, if it be practicable, he may find it worth his while when out of his time, to work a twelvemonth as a journeyman in Holland. In the making of all earthen veſſels, the workman has the clay purified, moulded to a proper ſtiffneſs, and made up in lumps, according to the ſize of the veſſel to be formed. The artiſt ſits before a bench, in which is fixed a piece of level wood not unlike a trencher; upon this piece of wood he places one of the ſoft lumps of clay, and placing his knuckles, or only his finger and thumb upon it, whirls it round by means of a wheel worked by his foot, and in a minute raiſes the clay into the form deſired; then by clapping a piece of wood to the outſide, he in a moment gives it what circular mouldings he pleaſes. After having finiſhed a great number of veſſels, they are ſet to dry; and afterwards, if they are deſigned to be painted, the colours are laid on, which muſt be of the metallic kind. The veſſels are then waſhed over with a large bruſh dipped in a preparation of lead mixed with water, in order to form the glazing; and, when dry, placed in the furnace, and burnt; when, what is thus waſhed of the veſſel, vitrifying by the intenſe heat, the paint is ſeen through it. The maſters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who works from ſix till nine: a good hand earns, by being a journeyman, from fifteen to twenty ſhillings a week; and the maſters employ from one thouſand to four thouſand pounds and upwards in trade.

POTTLE, an Engliſh meaſure containing two quarts.

Two pottles in liquid meaſure make a gallon; but, in dry, three go to a gallon.

POULO-AY *and* POULO-RHON. *See* BANDA *Iſles.*

POULTERER. The whole myſtery of this buſineſs conſiſts in knowing how to buy fowls to the beſt advantage; in picking and drawing them; and in gaining a profit by ſelling them. It therefore requires no extraordinary genius; and nothing but an obliging behaviour, and the common learning of reading, writing, and a little arithmetic. The poulterer takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; and pays a journeyman ten or twelve ſhillings a week. About twenty pounds will enable a young man to become maſter.

POUND, *libra*, a certain weight uſed as a ſtandard to determine the gravity and quantity of bodies.

In England there are two different pounds, the pound troy, and the pound avoirdupois. The pound troy conſiſts of twelve ounces, each ounce of twenty penny-weights, and each penny-weight of twenty-four grains. This pound is uſed in the weighing of ſilver, gold, precious ſtones, all kinds of grains, &c.

It is alſo uſed by the apothecaries, though differently divided, twenty four grains making a ſcruple, three ſcruples a drachm, eight drachms an ounce, and twelve ounces a pound.

The pound avoirdupois conſiſts of ſixteen ounces; but then the avoirdupois ounce is leſs by forty-two grains than the troy ounce. One hundred and twelve avoirdupois pounds make the hundred weight, or quintal.

By this pound are weighed all large and coarſe commodities, as fleſh, butter, cheeſe, iron, hemp, lead, ſteel, &c.

An avoirdupois pound is equal to fourteen ounces five-eighths of a Paris pound, ſo that one hundred of the former make ninety-one of the latter.

The French pound contains ſixteen ounces; but a French pound is equal to one pound one ounce, three-eighths of an avoirdupois pound: ſo that one hundred Paris pounds make one hundred and nine Engliſh avoirdupois weight. The Paris pound is divided two ways; the firſt into two marcs, the marc into eight ounces, the ounce into eight gros, the gros into three deniers, the denier into twenty-four grains, each weighing a grain of wheat.

The ſecond diviſion is into two half-pounds, the half-pound into quarters, the quarters into demi-quarters, the demi-quarters into two ounces; the ounce into two half-ounces, &c.

The firſt diviſion is followed in weighing gold, ſilver, and other precious wares; and the latter in thoſe of leſs value. *See* WEIGHT.

POUND, alſo denotes a money of account, containing more or leſs, according to the ſeveral names added thereto, and the different countries it is uſed in: as in England a pound ſterling; in France, a pound or livre Tournois and Pariſis; in Holland and Franders, a pound or livre de gros, &c.

The pound ſterling contains twenty-ſhillings, the ſhilling twelve pence, and the penny four farthings.

The French pound, franc, or livre Tournois, twelve deniers, or contains twenty ſols or ſhillings, and the ſol twelve deniers or pence Tournois.

It in like manner contains twenty ſols; the ſol twelve deniers or pence Pariſis. Each ſol Pariſis is equal to fifteen deniers Tournois; ſo that a pound Pariſis is equal to twenty-five ſols Tournois.

The pound or livre de gros of Holland is divided into twenty ſhillings gros, and the ſhilling into twelve pence gros: it is equal to ſix florins, the florin valued at twenty-four ſols Tournois, ſuppoſing the exchange on the foot of one hundred pence gros for a French crown of three livres Tournois: ſo that the pound gros amounts to ten ſhillings and eleven-pence ſterling. The pound gros of Flanders and Brabant is divided like that of Holland, and like that too is equal to ſix florins; but the florin is equal to twenty-five ſols Tournois, ſo that the Flanders pound is equal to ſeven livres ten ſols Tournois, or eleven ſhillings and three-pence ſterling.

Merchants, factors, &c. uſe initial letters, as L. or L. St. for pounds ſterling, L. G. for pounds gros, and L. or lb. for pounds Tournois.

POUNDAGE. *See* TONNAGE.

POURVEYANCE, is the providing corn, fuel, victual, and other neceſſaries for the king's houſe. By 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 24. it is provided, "that no perſon or perſons, by any warrant, commiſſion, or authority, under the great ſeal, or otherwiſe, by colour of buying or making proviſion or purveyance for his majeſty or any queen of England for the time being, or that ſhall be, or for his, their, or any of their houſhold, ſhall take any timber, fuel, cattle, corn, grain, malt, hay, ſtraw, victual, cart, carriage, or other thing whatſoever of any the ſubjects of his majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, without the full and free conſent of the owner or owners thereof, had or obtained without menace or enforcement, &c.

POWDER. To what duties liable. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 14.

Penalty on perſons mixing it with ſtarch or alabaſter, &c. or expoſing ſuch mixture to ſale. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 31. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 2. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 5.

And on powder-makers, &c. having alabaſter, &c. in their cuſtody. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 8.

Makers how to enter their places of abode and workhouſes. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 6.

The power of officers to ſearch ſuch workhouſes. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 7.

Penalties on thoſe that obſtruct them. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 9, 10. *See* STARCH.

POYNINGS LAW, is an act of parliament made in Ireland by Henry VII. and ſo called, becauſe Sir Edward Poynings was lieutenant there when it was made, whereby all the ſtatutes in England were made of force in Ireland, which, before that time were not; neither are any now in force which were made in England ſince that time. See *Coke's* 12 *Rep. fol.* 190. *Hill.* 10 *Jac.*

POZZOLANA, a reddiſh kind of earth uſed in Italy for ſand. It takes its name from Pozzoli in the kingdom of Naples.

This, mixed with lime, makes the beſt mortar in the world; for it petrifies in water, penetrates black flints, &c.

PRACTICE, in arithmetic, *practica Italica*, or *Italian uſages*, certain compendious ways of working the rule of proportion, or golden rule, eſpecially where the firſt term is one or unity. They were thus called from their expediting of practice and buſineſs, and becauſe firſt introduced by the merchants and negociants of Italy.

The moſt uſeful of theſe practices are as follows: 1. Since the uſe of the rule of three is to find a fourth proportional to three given numbers, divide the firſt and ſecond, or the firſt and third, by ſome common number, if that can be done exactly; and work with the quantities in their ſtead; as in the following example:

Price of 3 lb. is 9 ſhillings: what is the price of 7 lb.?

3)1 3 3

*facit* 21 ſhillings.

Price of 14 lb. is 26 ſhillings: what is the price of 7 lb.?

7)2 2)—

*facit* 13 ſhillings.

2. If the firſt term be 1, and the ſecond an aliquot part of a pound, ſhilling, or penny; divide the third by the aliquot part, the quotient is the anſwer.

Note, To find the aliquot part, thoſe who cannot do it otherwiſe, may ſee the table of aliquot parts of a pound in table hereafter.

E. gr. If 1 ell coſt 10 ſhillings: what coſt 957 ells?

*facit* 478 lb.—10 ſhillings.

3. If the firſt of third number be 1; the other not exceeding large; and the middle term a compound, i. e. conſiſt of ſeveral demonſtrations; it may be wrought without reduction thus:

Price of 1 lb. is 3s. 8d. 3q. what is the price of 5 lb.?

5

18s. 7d 3q.

For, four farthings making a penny, 5 times 3 farthings make 3d. 3 q. and 12 d. making 1 s. 5 times 8 pence make 3s. 4d. which, with the three pence from the place of farthings, make 3s. 7 d. Laſtly, 5 times 3s. make 15, and with the three ſhillings from the place of pence is 18s: the price required therefore is 18 s. 7d. 3q.

4. If the middle term be not an aliquot, but an aliquant part, reſolve the aliquant part into its aliquot parts; divide the middle term by the ſeveral aliquots, the ſum of the quotients is the anſwer. To find the aliquot parts contained in an aliquant, ſee the table of aliquant parts of a pound, hereafter.

For an inſtance of this rule:

If 1 ell coſt 15 ſhillings: what coſt 124 ells?

$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$) 62

$\frac{1}{4}$ 31

*facit* 93l.

5. If the firſt or ſecond term be 1, and in the former caſe the ſecond or third, in the latter the firſt, be reſolvable in factors; the whole operation may be performed in the mind, without writing down any figures; as in the following example:

Price of 1 lb. is 24 ſhillings: what is the price of 20 lb.

4 4

6

80

6

*facit* 481. 0s—24l.

6, Where one of the given numbers is 1, we have ſeveral compendious uſages, to ſave multiplication and diviſion. E. gr. If 9 lb. coſt 20 ſhillings: what does 1 lb. coſt? It is obvious the ſum required is had by adding to the tenth part of 20s. viz. 2s. the ninth part of the tenth, viz. 3d. $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{2}{9}$ of a penny; the anſwer therefore is 2s. 3d. $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{2}{9}$.

Again, if 5 lb. coſt 64 s. what coſt 1 lb?

Since 5 is half of 10, the double of the tenth part of the given price, viz. 10s. 9d. 3q. is the ſum required.

Again, if 1 lb. coſt 18 d. what will 19 lb. coſt?

Since 19=20—1; from the given price doubled and increaſed by a cypher, viz. 360, ſubtract the ſimple 18; the remainder is 342 pence =28 s. 6d. the ſum required.

7. If two terms of the ſame denomination differ by an unit, we have a peculiar kind of compound which will be clear from the following examples. E. gr. If 5 lb. coſts 30 s. what will 4 lb. coſt?

Since the price of 4 lb. is $\frac{1}{5}$ part ſhort of that of 5 lb. divide the given price 30 by 5; the quotient 6 being ſubtracted from the dividend, the remainder, viz. 24 s. is the ſum required.

Again, if 8 lb. coſt 24 s. what coſt 9 lb.?

Since the price of 9 lb. exceeds that of 8 by $\frac{1}{8}$ part, divide the given price 24 by 8, and add the quotient 3 to the dividend; the ſum 27 is the anſwer.

8. Sometimes one may uſe ſeveral of theſe compends or practices in the ſame queſtion.

E. gr. If 100 lb. coſt 30 s. 4 d. what coſt 50 lb.?

50)2.2. —

*facit* 15s. 2d.

Again, if 60 lb. coſt 4 s. what coſts 2520 lb.?

6 42

24 6

7 7

168 l.

A table of the aliquot parts of a pound or 20s. are,

| | |
|---|---|
| 10 s. makes half of 20 s. | 2s. 6d. an eighth. |
| 5s. a fourth. | 1s. 8d. a twelfth. |
| 4s. a fifth. | 1 s. 4d. a fifteenth. |
| 2s. a tenth. | 1s. 3d. a ſixteenth. |
| 1 s. a twentieth. | 10d. a twenty-fourth. |
| 6s. 8d. a third. | 5d. a forty-eighth. |
| 3s. 4d. a ſixth. | |

A table of the aliquant parts of a pound or 20s. are,

| | |
|---|---|
| 3s. an aliquant part compoſed of a 10th and 20th. | 14s. of a half and a fifth. |
| 6s. of a fifth and tenth. | 15s. of a half and a fourth. |
| 7s. of a fourth and tenth. | 16s. of a half, a 5th, and 10th. |
| 8s. of two-fifths. | 17s. of a half a fourth and tenth. |
| 9s. of a fourth and fifth. | 18s. of a half and two-fifths. |
| 11s. of a half and a 20th. | 19s. of a half, a fourth, and a fifth. |
| 12s. of a half and a tenth. | |

PRECIOUS *ſtone*, *gem*, or *jewel*, an extraordinary hard, durable, and tranſparent ſtone, of a beautiful colour.

Dr. Woodward divides precious ſtones into opaque, ſemi-opaque, and tranſparent.

The opaque are either of one colour, as the turquois; or of various colours, as lazuli and jaſper.

Semi-opaque either have their colours permanent, as the agate, chalcedony, onyx, ſardonyx, cornelian, and beryl; or their colours vary according to the poſition of the light, as the oculus cati, and opal.

Tranſparent ſtones are either with colours, as the topaz and hyacinth yellow, or partaking thereof; granate, ruby, and amethyſt, red; ſapphire, water ſapphire, and aquamarine, blue; and the emerald or chryſolite, green, or partaking thereof; or without colours, as the cryſtal, ſeudo-diamond, white ſapphire, and diamond.

Precious ſtones, may be imported or exported duty free. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

PREMIUM, *præmium*, among merchants, denotes that ſum of money, namely, 8, 12, 13, &c. *per cent.* which is given to an uſurer for inſuring the ſafe return of a ſhip or merchandize.

In the money or paper-trade, it denotes what is given for a thing above a par, or the prime coſt. *See* NAVAL-STORES.

PRESCRIPTION, is a title aequired by uſe and time, and allowed by the law, which is beyond the memory of man.

PRESS, *prælum*, in the mechanic arts, a machine made of wood or iron, in order to ſqueeze any body very cloſe.

Preſſes conſiſt of ſix pieces; two flat ſmooth planks, between which the things to be preſſed are laid; two ſcrews or worms faſtened to the lower plank, and paſſing through two holes in the upper; and two nuts in form of an S, that

that ſerve to drive the upper plank, which is moveable, againſt the lower, which is fixed.

*Preſſes* uſed for expreſſing liquors, are generally the ſame with the common preſſes, only the under plank is perforated with a great number of holes for the juice to run through.

Others have only one ſcrew or arbor, paſſing through the middle of the moveable plank, which deſcends into a kind of ſquare box, full of holes, through which the juices flow, as the arbor is turned.

*Preſs* uſed by joiners, to keep cloſe the panels, &c. of wainſcot; it conſiſts of two ſcrews, and two pieces of wood four or five inches ſquare, and two or three feet long, whereof the holes at the two ends ſerve for nuts to the ſcrews.

*Preſs* uſed by inlayers, reſembles the joiners preſs, only the pieces of wood are thicker, and only one of them moveable; the other, which is in form of a treſſel, being ſuſtained by two legs joined into it at each end.

This ſerves for ſawing and cleaving the pieces of wood required in marquetry.

*Founders preſs*, is a ſtrong ſquare frame, conſiſting of four pieces of wood firmly joined together with tenons, &c. It is of various ſizes: two of them are required to each mould, at the two extremes whereof they are placed; ſo as that, by driving wooden wedges between the mould and ſides of the preſs, the two parts of the mould for the metal may be preſſed cloſe together.

*Printing-preſs*. *See* PRINTING-PRESS.

*Rolling-preſs*, a machine uſed for the taking off prints for copper-plates. *See* ROLLING-PRESS PRINTING.

*Preſs*, in coining, a machine uſed in ſtriking of money, having only one iron bar to give it motion, and preſs the moulds of coins. *See* COINING.

*Binders preſs*, or *cutting-preſs*, a machine uſed by bookbinders, ſtationers, and paſteboard-makers, conſiſting of two large wooden cheeks joined by two ſtrong wooden ſcrews; which, being turned by an iron bar, draw together or ſet aſunder the cheeks at pleaſure.

The cheeks are placed flat on a wooden ſtand, in form of a cheſt, into which the cuttings fall. Aſide of the cheeks are two pieces of wood of the ſame length with the ſcrews, ſerving to direct the cheeks. Upon the cheeks is the ſhaft or fuſt, to which the cutting-knife is faſtened by a ſcrew, which has its key to diſmount it on occaſion.

The ſhaft conſiſts of ſeveral parts; a wooden ſcrew, which, catching within the nut of the two feet that ſuſtain it, brings the knife to the paper, which is faſtened in the preſs. This ſcrew, which is pretty long, has two directories, which reſemble thoſe of the ſcrew of the cheeks. To make the ſhaft ſlide ſquare, that foot of the ſhaft where the knife is not fixed, has a kind of groove directed by a thread faſtened along one of the cheeks. Laſtly, the knife is a piece of ſteel ſix or ſeven inches long, pointed at top, and ſquare all the reſt.

*Preſs*, in the woollen manufactory, a large wooden machine that ſerves to preſs cloths, ſerges, &c. to render them ſmooth, and give them a gloſs.

The principal parts of the machine are the cheeks, the nut, and the ſcrew, accompanied with its bar to turn it round, and make it fall on a thick wooden plank, under which the ſtuffs are placed.

Another kind of preſs for linens, ſilks, &c. is called a calender.

PRESSING, in the manufactures, the action of violently ſqueezing a cloth, ſtuff, &c. to render it ſmooth and gloſſy. This, in the linen and ſilken manufactures, is properly called calendering.

There are two manners of preſſing; the one cold, and the other hot.

*Method of preſſing cold.* After the ſtuff has been ſcoured, ſulled, and ſhorn, it is folded ſquare in equal plaits, and a ſkin of vellum, or paſteboard, put between each plate. Over the whole is laid a ſquare wooden plank, and ſo put into the preſs; which is ſcrewed down tight by means of a lever. After it has lain a ſufficient time in the preſs, they take it out, removing the paſteboards, and lay it up to keep.

Some only lay the ſtuff on a firm table, after plaiting and paſteboarding, cover the whole with a wooden plank, and load it with a proper weight.

*Method of preſſing hot.* When the ſtuff has received the above preparations, it is ſprinkled a little with water, ſometimes gum-water, then plaited equally, and between each two plaits are put leaves of paſteboard; and between every ſixth or ſeventh plate, as well as over the whole, an iron or braſs plate well heated in a kind of furnace. This done, it is laid upon the preſs, and forcibly ſcrewed down.

Under this preſs are laid five, ſix, &c. pieces at the ſame time, all furniſhed with their paſteboards and iron-plates. When the plates are well cold, the ſtuffs are taken out, and ſtitched a little together to keep them in the plaits.

This manner of preſſing was only invented to cover the defects of the ſtuffs; and, accordingly, it has been frequently prohibited.

PRESS-MAKER. Thoſe of this buſineſs make preſſes of various kinds, for the uſe of different artificers, as the packers, book-binders, &c. The preſs-makers are divided into different claſſes; ſome working for one or more trades, and others only making preſſes for the uſe of other trades, that require a different conſtruction. This buſineſs requires ſome ingenuity, eſpecially in the turning of large wooden ſcrews, and in finiſhing all their work with the neceſſary exactneſs. They take about ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn fifteen or eighteen ſhillings a week; or, if he has one hundred pounds, he may become maſter.

PREVAT, a place of ſome note in the Levant, but takes off no European goods, ſo that all the commerce is carried on in Dutch dollars, the Poliſh abra, the izelotes of the empire, Venetian ſequins, hongres of Hungary, the Egyptian cherif, aſpers, and parats, all which ſpecies are commonly taken here at fifteen or twenty *per cent.* higher than in Conſtantinople. Here is made in a common year from twenty to twenty-five thouſand buff-ſkins, and ſome wax is alſo ſhipped off.

PRICKING, in the ſea-language, is to make a point on the plat or chart, near about where the ſhip then is, or is to be at ſuch a time, in order to find the courſe they are to ſteer.

PRIMAGE, is a duty due to the mariners and ſailors, for the loading of any ſhip at the ſetting forth from any haven (mentioned in *ſtat.* 32 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14.) which in ſome places, is a penny in the pound; in others ſix-pence for every pack, or bale, or otherwiſe, according to the cuſtom of the place.

PRINCIPAL, in commerce, the capital of a ſum due or lent in oppoſition to intereſt.

It alſo denotes the firſt fund put by partners into a common ſtock, by which it is diſtinguiſhed from the calls or acceſſions afterwards required.

PRINTER *of ſtuffs*. This is a hot laborious buſineſs, that requires no great ingenuity in the workman. The impreſſing figures on woollen ſtuffs is performed by a rolling-preſs, in the manner of copper-plate printing, only the upper roller, which is large, is wrapped round with a copper-plate, on which the figures to be repreſented on the ſtuff are deeply engraven. The inſide of this roller is hollow, and filled with fire, which is put in at one end, where there is a grate. The journeymen earn from twelve to fifteen ſhillings a week; and it requires four or five hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

PRINTER *of books*, &c. This buſineſs is in London divided into two branches, both under the care and management of the ſame maſter, who takes apprentices to each branch: theſe are the compoſitors, who compoſe or ſet the letters; and the preſſmen, who work off the ſheets at the preſs. Under the article LETTER-FOUNDER, we have given ſome deſcription of theſe letters, and have obſerved, that they are pieces of metal with the impreſſion caſt in relief at the end. Beſides theſe letters, there are alſo ſpaces, which having no impreſſion at the end, and being ſhorter than the types, are placed to form the diſtances between the words; and little blocks of metal, called quadrats, which alſo ſtanding lower than the letters, form the breaks at the end of paragraphs, and filling vacant ſpaces, ſupport the letters, which, ſtanding on an end, would eaſily fall down; and the whole page would be unavoidably thrown into confuſion, were it not rendered ſquare and ſolid, by every vacancy ſeen in the print being filled up with great exactneſs.

Theſe

Theſe letters are diſpoſed in two caſes conſiſting of ſquare diviſions, placed ſloping one above the other. The uppermoſt contains the capitals and ſmall capitals, laid in alphabetical order, with the figures, and marks of reference, *, †, &c. In the lower caſe are all the ſmaller letters; thoſe moſt uſed having the largeſt boxes, and being placed neareſt the hand; here are alſo boxes for the ſpaces, &c. The compoſitor, having diſtributed the letters into the proper boxes, lays the written copy before him, and taking a ſmall frame of iron or braſs, called a compoſing-ſtick, which by a ſlide is made to the exact length of the line, he holds it in his left hand, and beginning to read, picks up the letters one by one, places them in the compoſing-ſtick, and having finiſhed a word puts in a ſpace, and proceeds to the next; in this manner he goes on till he has finiſhed the line, which he fills up to the exact length, by altering the ſpaces between the words. When the compoſing-ſtick is full of lines, he empties it carefully into a wooden frame ſurrounded with a ledge, about half the height of the letter. This frame is called a galley; and having finiſhed a page, he carefully ties it up with a piece of ſtrong twine, and placing it upon a piece of paper on a bench under his caſes, proceeds to the next page. Having finiſhed as many pages as will make a ſheet, he places them in the proper order upon a ſmooth level ſtone, and puts over them an iron frame, called a chaſe. Round theſe pages are placed ſlips of wood to ſupport the pages at exact diſtances, ſo that the pages on each ſide of the ſheet may fall exactly on the other. The pages on both ſides of the ſheet, being thus incloſed in iron frames are faſtened in them by the help of wedges; when each form being lifted off the ſtone is carried to the printing-preſs, and laid upon a ſtone fixed in it. The preſſman then takes two large balls of leather ſtuffed with wool, with each a wooden handle; with one of theſe balls he touches a thick glutinous ink, made of lamp-black and boiled linſeed oil, ſpread on the ink-block, which is faſtened to the cheek of the preſs, and then working the two balls together, diſtributes the ink equally upon each, which having done, he beats both the balls with a ſwift and regular motion over the face of the letter in the preſs, lays a ſheet of moiſtened paper on the letter, throws a double piece of fine blanket ſmooth upon it, and then rolls the carriage of the preſs, which contains the ſtone, form, ſheet of paper, and flannel, under the platten, a ſquare block of ſmooth wood, moved up and down by means of a worm-ſcrew, and pulling the handle faſtened to his ſcrew, the flannel preſſes the paper upon the face of the letter, and makes it take off the ink. If the form is too large to be covered by the platten at once, the platten is raiſed by putting back the handle, and the form being turned a little farther under it, another pull is given to the bar or handle; and then the carriage being turned out, the blankets are taken away, and the pulled ſheet off, one ſide being printed. The impreſſion of the other form is taken off the ſame manner on the other ſide of the ſheet; and then this ſheet, which is called the firſt proof, is ſent to the maſter or corrector, who reads it by the copy, and marks the compoſitor's miſtakes or overſights in the margin. This being done, the proof is returned to the compoſitor, who placing one form at a time on the impoſing ſtone, looſens the letters; and having corrected all the errors, faſtens the letters as before; and the forms being again carried ſeparately to the preſs, another proof is printed, and ſent to the author; who having returned it back with his corrections, theſe are rectified, and this laſt proof reviſed. After this, the whole impreſſion is worked off, much in the ſame manner as that in which a proof is pulled, only, inſtead of laying the ſheet upon the letter, it is placed upon a ſheet of paper faſtened on a frame, on which is ſtretched a ſkin of parchment, which is now moiſtened, and is called a tympan, from τυμπανον, a drum; on the backſide of this parchment is a double piece of fine flannel ſmoothly ſpread, which is faſtened in by another frame of parchment not wetted. To the top of this tympan is fixed, by a hinge, a ſlight iron frame, on which paper is paſted, to preſerve the ſheets from being dirted, and is called a friſket. In working this tympan is ſwiftly turned down upon the ſheet, and the ſheet with the tympan, &c. are at the ſame inſtant turned down upon the letter, which is firſt made black by beating with the balls, and being rolled under the platten, the impreſſion of the ſide of the whole ſheet is made by two pulls as before, and being inſtantly drawn back, and the tympan and friſket taken up, the printed ſheet is taken off, another clean ſheet of paper placed in its room, and printed like the other; all which is done with ſo much ſwiftneſs that three or four ſheets are conſtantly printed on one ſide in the ſhort ſpace of a minute, by two men; one of whom blacks the face of the letter, and the other performs the reſt of the work.

The boy, deſigned to be a compoſitor, ought to have a taſte for literature; and if he is well acquainted with the Latin, Greek, and French tongues, it will be greatly to his advantage, both as an apprentice, a journeyman, and a maſter: but it is abſolutely neceſſary that he ſhould be able to read thoſe languages; for, by barely reading them, he may make a ſhift to compoſe, but not with half ſo much eaſe, accuracy, or ſatisfaction to himſelf; and, without he is thoroughly acquainted with the grammar of his native tongue, he can make but a very poor compoſitor.

The boy, who is deſigned to be a preſſman, ſhould be ſtrong and active; for his buſineſs will be very laborious; ſome ingenuity is alſo neceſſary; as he ought not only to learn to work at preſs, but to obtain a perfect knowledge of the preſs, and be able to take it to pieces, ſet it up again, and rectify it, when any part is out of order. The maſters take with an apprentice, who is to be a compoſitor, from twenty to forty pounds, and with a preſſman from ten to twenty pounds. The profits of each in general are from fourteen ſhillings to about a guinea a week: but they cannot ſet up as maſter, in a genteel way, with leſs than ſeven or eight hundred pounds to buy materials, &c. *See* Books.

PRINTERS INKMAN. This buſineſs requires neither ingenuity nor learning. It is ſaid, there are not above two of this trade in London; and theſe being capable of making printing-ink to ſupply the whole nation, they take no apprentices. Printing-ink is made by boiling a veſſel of linſeed oil, and ſetting it on a fire till it becomes of a proper thickneſs; a little roſin is generally put into it when boiling. After it is cold, it is mixed with a ſufficient quantity of lamp-black.

PRINTERS JOINER. This buſineſs requires great ingenuity, as they perform all the wood work belonging to the printers; as caſes for the compoſitors, the wood work of the preſs, ſlips of wood of the exact depth of every ſize of letter, braſs rules for lines, and, in ſhort, a great variety of things that ought to be made with the utmoſt truth and exactneſs. There are but three or four in London, who ſeldom or never take apprentices.

PRINTERS SMITH. No branch of the ſmith's buſineſs requires ſuch exactneſs or perfection as this; it therefore requires great ingenuity and ſkill. The printer's ſmith makes all the ſteel and iron work belonging to the preſs, compoſing ſticks for the compoſitors, and iron frames, or chaſes, for holding forms of letter. There are not more of theſe in London than of the printer's joiners; but as they perform other work, they take apprentices upon the ſame terms as thoſe in other branches of the ſmithery.

PRINTSELLER. The printſellers are very often engravers; and when this is the caſe, the boy who has the proper qualifications for that ingenious art is well qualified to keep a printſhop. But when a youth is to be put apprentice to one who is not an engraver, it will even then be of the greateſt advantage to him to have a taſte for the fine arts, and to be well verſed in drawing, and in perſpective. During his apprenticeſhip, he ſhould make uſe of his leiſure hours in rendering himſelf an able deſigner, and in becoming acquainted both with the works of the moſt famous engravers, ancient and modern, and with the celebrated paintings of the great maſters. With theſe advantages he will be able, when he ſets up for himſelf, to copy the moſt admired works of a Correggio, or a Rubens, or to form elegant deſigns of his own; and, by getting them engraved, have a conſtant ſucceſſion of new prints, that will not fail, if finely executed, to engage the attention of the public. The printſellers take from twenty to forty guineas with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will be able to earn a genteel living by the above accompliſhments. If he ſets up for himſelf, it will require from a hundred to a thouſand pounds, according to the figure he would make in trade.

PRIORITY *of debts and ſuits.* A prior ſuit depending may be pleaded in abatement of a ſubſequent action or proſecution. A prior mortgage ought to be firſt paid off, and debts

debts firſt due ſhould be firſt ſatisfied; for as the firſt creditor advances his money before his debtor is incumbered, it is but reaſonable he ſhould be paid his debt before the diſcharge of the ſubſequent incumbrances: but debts firſt due muſt likewiſe be firſt proſecuted; otherwiſe in ſome caſes priority will not be allowed. *Comp. Attorn.* 120. There is no priority of time in judgments; for the judgment firſt executed ſhall be firſt paid.

PRISAGE, is that cuſtom or ſhare that belongs to the king, out of ſuch merchandizes as are taken at ſea by way of lawful prize. *Anno.* 13 *Eliz. c.* 5.

PRISAGE *of wines*, (mentioned in *ſtat.* 1 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 5.) is a word almoſt out of uſe, being now called *butlerage* (becauſe the king's chief butler receives it.) It is a cuſtom whereby the prince challengeth out of every bark laden with wine, containing leſs than forty ton, twu ton of wine; the one before, the other behind the maſt, at his own price, which is twenty ſhillings a ton; yet this varies according to the cuſtom of the place: for at Boſton, every bark laden with ten tons of wine or above, pays priſage. *See* BUTLERAGE.

PRIVATEERS and CAPERS are ſynonimous terms for the ſame thing, with this only difference, that the latter are ſmaller veſſels than the others; they are generally eſteemed private ſhips of war, fitted out by particulars, in order to annoy the enemy; though the commiſſion is neither ſo laſting nor ſo honourable as that given to the commander of a king's ſhip, the one being certain, and continued whilſt his behaviour is unexceptionable, the other only temporary and occaſional; the one appointed by his majeſty, the other by a ſubject, (with the prince's approbation) and liable to be turned out at the owners pleaſure; and, though ſuch appointments are ancient, and very uſeful in a war, by diſtreſſing the enemy, yet many eſteem the action but one remove from piracy; as the undertakers are ſuppoſed to have no immediate injury done them, nor have any other motive but the hopes of gain, to animate them to the engagement, or to induce their commencing a trade of rapine and ſpoil on the perſons and goods of innocent traders; and, by theſe means, encreaſe the horrors and calamities which war naturally brings with it, and inſpires; but whoſoever reflects, that every individual is injured, when the nation in general is ſo; and that, if this has a right to vindicate or revenge its wrongs, particulars muſt be juſtified in affurding their aſſiſtance: we muſt conclude, that, in ſo doing, they only comply as good ſubjects, whilſt their proceedings remain directed by authority, and their ſucceſſes againſt the enemy are managed with that humanity our own naturcs and the laws of nations enjoin.

However, leaving theſe diſputes to be determined by caſuiſts, we ſhall proceed to inform our reader of the nature and power of ſuch armed veſſels, and on what footing they have generally been fitted out in the late and former wars; and this has been under two different and diſtinct commiſſions, as will hereafter be ſhewn.

The one of them is cuſtomarily granted to the petitioners for it, after they, at their own expence, have fitted out a privateer; and impowers them to appropriate to their own uſe whatever prize they make, after a legal condemnation, and the government allows them beſides five pounds, by 13 and 17 *Geo.* II. for every man aboard a man of war or privateer taken or deſtruyed at the beginning of the engagement, and ten pounds by 4 and 5 *Will.* and *Mar.* for every gun ſhe had mounted, with liberty of cruizing where they pleaſe; and, in caſe we are at war with more potentates than one (as lately with the French and Spaniards) they muſt have commiſſions for acting againſt them both, otherwiſe a captain carrying only one againſt the Spaniards, and in his courſe meets with and takes a Frenchman, this prize is not good, but would be taken from him by any man of war he met, and could not be condemned (for him) in the admiralty, as many experienced in the late war.

The manner of fitting out theſe privateers has commonly been at the joint expence of feveral merchants, and is always very expenſive, as warlike ſtores are at all times coſtly, and their prices more eſpecially raiſed on theſe occaſions, when the demand for them is conſiderably encreaſed.

In ſome of theſe adventures, the men on board go on the terms of no purchaſe no pay; and in this caſe the produce of whatever is taken goes half to the ſhip, (for the owners) and half to the men, divided to them according to the articles of agreement; but, when the men fail for wages, the captures appertain entirely to the owners, except a ſmall part, which is commonly ſtipulated to be given the ſailors, extra of their wages, in order to animate them in their behaviour; and both ways of arming are regulated by the articles entered into between the owners and mariners, of which a copy may be ſeen under the title ARTICLES.

The other commiſſion aforementioned is granted to privateers taken into the king's ſervice, which notwithſtanding are fitted out at the expence of private perſons, and then let out to the government, who generally pay them ſo much *per* month for their hire, and engage to repair them, in caſe of damage, and to pay the value agreed for in caſe of loſs.

In his late majeſty king William's reign many large private ſhips were engaged for in this manner, and ſent abroad as convoys, &c. but ſince our marine is ſo greatly increaſed, the government does not ſo much ſtand in need of the merchants aſſiſtance in this ſhape, as they formerly did, and conſequently do not ſo often call for it.

No privateer may attempt any thing againſt the law of nations, as to aſſault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, be he friend, ally, or neuter; for the peace of ſuch place muſt be kept inviolable. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 49. *ſ.* 7.

And at the time of granting theſe private commiſſions, great care is always taken (by bond) to preſerve the leagues, with our allies, neuters and friends, according to the various and ſeveral treaties ſubſiſting between us, and it is for this reaſon that ſecurity is demanded, and given by reſponſible men, (not concerned in the ſhip) to the value of fifteen hundred pounds, for all ſhips carrying leſs than one hundred and fifty men, and three thouſand pounds for every ſhip carrying more, that they will give full ſatisfaction for any damage or injury that they ſhall commit in their courſes at ſea, contrary to, and in breach of, the aforeſaid treaties, and alſo under the penalties of forfeiting their commiſſions, and for which their ſhips are likewiſe made liable. *Treaty Marine with Holland at London, Dec.* 1, 1674 *art.* 10. *Treaty Marine with France, at St. Germains en Laye, Feb.* 24, 1676-7. *art.* 10.

If a ſuit be commenced between the captor of a prize and the claimer, and there is a ſentence or decree given for the party reclaiming, ſuch ſentence or decree (upon ſecurity given) ſhall be put in execution, notwithſtanding the appeal made by him that touk the prize, which ſhall not be obſerved, in caſe the ſentence ſhall be given againſt the claimers. *Ditto art.* 13.

And whereas the maſters of merchant ſhips, and likewiſe the mariners and paſſengers, do ſometimes ſuffer many cruelties and barbarous uſages when they are brought under the power of ſhips, which take prizes in the time of war, the takers, in an inhuman manner, tormenting them, thereby to extort from them ſuch confeſſions as they would have to be made: it is agreed, that both his majeſty and the ſtates general, ſhall, by the ſevereſt proclamations, forbid all ſuch heinous and inhuman offences, and as many as they ſhall, by lawful proofs, find guilty of ſuch acts, they ſhall take care that they be puniſhed with due and juſt puniſhment, and which may be a terror to others; and ſhall command that all the captains and officers of ſhips, who ſhall be proved to have committed ſuch heinous practices, either themſelves, or by inſtigating others to act the ſame, or by conniving while they were done, ſhall (beſides other puniſhments to be inflicted proportionally to their offences) be forthwith deprived of their offices reſpectively: and every ſhip brought up as a prize, whuſe mariners or paſſengers ſhall have ſuffered any torture, ſhall forthwith be diſmiſſed and freed, with all her lading, from all further proceedings and examinations againſt her, as well judicial as otherwiſe. *Ditto art.* 14. *Treaty of Commerce with Spain May* 13, 1667, *art.* 21, 22. *Ditto with Holland, July* 21, 1667, *art.* 26, 27. *Ditto Feb.* 7, 1667,8, *art.* 1, 2. *Ditto with Denmark, July* 11, 1670, *art.* 16. *Treaty Marine with Holland, Dec.* 1, 1674, *art.* 1, 2. *Ditto with France, Feb.* 24, 1676-7. *art.* 1, 2. *Ditto with Spain, May* 13, 1667, *art.* 24. *Ditto with Holland, July* 21, 1667. *art.* 28. *Ditto Feb.* 7, 1667-8, *art.* 3. *Treaty Marine with Ditto Dec.* 1, 1674. *art.* 3. *Treaty Marine with France, Feb.* 24, 1676-7. *art.* 3. *Ditto with Holland, London, Dec.* 1, 1674. *art.* 7.

Ships may freely ſail to and trade with all kingdoms, countries and eſtates, which ſhall be in peace, amity, or neu-

neutrality, with the prince whose flag they carry, and who is at present at peace with us, and are not to be molested by us, on account of any hostilities that may at present subsist, or hereafter may happen, between his Britannick majesty and those estates, provided such ships are not bearers of contraband goods.

And to avoid disputes about the understanding the term of contraband goods, they are expressly determined to be only arms, pieces of ordnance, with all implements belonging to them, fireballs, powder, matches, bullets, pikes, swords, lances, spears, halberds, guns, mortar pieces, petardes, bombs, granadoes, fire-crancels, pitched hoops, carriages, musquet rests, bandeliers, saltpetre, musquets, musquet shot, helmets, corslets, breast-plates, coats of mail, and the like kind of armature, soldiers, horses, and all things necessary for the furniture of horses, holsters, belts, and all other warlike instruments whatsoever.

All other goods whatsoever are (by the aforementioned treaties) permitted freely to be carried, except to places besieged; and therefore a privateer, has no right to put any hindrance thereto; but, if he makes a prize of a ship, loaden entirely with the abovementioned contraband goods, both ship and loading will be condemned; and, if part be prohibited goods, and the other part not, the former only shall become prize, and the ship and the remainder be set free; and, in case the captain and the merchant ship will deliver to the captor, that part of his cargo which is prohibited, the other shall receive it without compelling the merchantman to go out of her course, to any port he thinks fit, but shall forthwith dismiss her, and upon no account hinder her from freely prosecuting her designed voyage.

If such ships shall be attacked in order to be examined, and shall refuse submitting thereto, they may be assaulted and entered by force, and if the persons aboard do not yield and surrender, those that resist may be slain. *Molloy de Jure Mar. p.* 52. *f.* 13. *See Ditto on Reprisals, f.* 20.

But if any privateer wilfully commits any spoil, depredations, or any other injuries, either on the ships of friends or neuters, or on the ships and goods of their fellow subjects, they will be punished in proportion to their crimes, either with death or otherwise, and their vessels may likewise be subject to forfeiture. *Ditto f.* 14.

Whether a ship taken be a lawful prize or not, shall be tried in the Admiralty; and no prohibition shall be granted. In the last war between us and Denmark, a Scotch privateer took a ship as prize, being a Danish one, and she was condemned as a lawful prize by the Admiralty in Scotland, and brought her upon the land; and S. libelled in the Admiralty of England, suggesting that she was not a Denmarker, but a ship of London. *Per curiam*, In as much that the matter is prize, or not prize, no prohibition. *Thompson* a *Smith*, 1 *Sid.* 320. 2 *Keeble* 158, 176.

One who had letters of marque in the last Dutch war, took an Ostender for a Dutch ship, and brought her into harbour, and libelled against her as a prize, and the Ostender libelled in the Admiralty against the captor for damages sustained, by hurt the ship had received in port, and a prohibition was prayed, because the suit was for damage done in port, for which an action lies at the common law; but the prohibition was denied, as the original was a caption at sea, and the bringing her into port, in order to have her condemned as a prize, is but a consequence of it, and not only the original, but also the consequences shall be tried there. *Raymond* 473 *Hughs* a *Cornelius* & alios, *Turner* and *Cary* cont. *Neele*, 1 *Lev.* 243. 1 *Sid.* 367, 2 *Keeble* 360, 364. 1 *Vent.* 173.

And therefore if he who hath letters of marque or reprisal, takes the ships and goods of that nation, against whom the same are awarded, and carries them into the port of any neuter nation; the owners may there seize her, or there the admiral may lawfully make restitution, as well of the ships and goods to the owners, as the captive persons to their liberty, for that the same ought first to have been brought *infra præsidia* of that prince or state, by whose subjects, and under whose commission, the same was taken. *Barthol. in Lege si quid Bello D. de Cap. Ang. & Salic. in Leg. ab Hostibus C. de Capt. Const. Gall.* 20. *Tit.* 13. *art.* 24. *Consul Maris* 287.

And this is entirely agreeable to the common law; for a Dunkirker, having taken a French vessel, was driven into Weymouth, and sold her there, before she was brought *infra præsidia Dom. Regis Hisp.* and in this case it was ruled, that if a ship be taken by piracy or letter of marque and reprisal, and is not brought *infra præsidia* of that prince or state, by whose subjects the same was taken; it could not become a lawful prize, nor were the owners by such a capture divested of their property; but, if the caption be by king's ships, the property will be immediately in the captors, and never be divested, unless afterwards it be recovered by its former proprietors, or be in battle regained. *Trin.* 17 *Car.* I. in B. R. *March Rep.* 110. 2 *Keeble* 441. *Norris* a *Barcley.*

If two ships with letters of marque accidentally meet with a prize at sea, and though only one attacks and takes her, yet the other being in sight shall have an equal share of the prize, though he afforded no assistance in her capture; because his presence, however, struck a terror in the enemy; and made him yield, which perhaps he would not have done, had his conqueror been single; so that all ships that are in sight, though they cannot come up to assist in the engagement, are intitled by the common law to an equal distribution in the spoil. *Mich.* 32 *Eliz. Somers* and *Sir Richard Bulkley's Case.* - *Leonard* 2. *p.* 182.

But if those to whom letters of marque are granted, should, instead of taking the ship and goods, appertaining to that nation, against which the said letters are awarded, wilfully take, or spoil the goods of another nation in amity, this would amount to a downright piracy, and the persons so offending would, for such fault, forfeit their vessel, (and the penalties in which their securities are according to late custom bound on taking out such letters) notwithstanding their commission; but this must be understood, where such a capture is done in a piratical manner; for if it is made upon a strong presumption, supported by many circumstances and appearances, that the caption is just, as belonging to him against whom the reprisals are granted, though, if on examination it proves otherwise, and the suffering parties have their ship and goods restored, yet the captors are not liable to punishment, though sometimes they may be to damages. On the contrary, they are justified in endeavouring to recover their right, or distress the enemy, (for which the letters were granted them) though in effecting it they may be mistaken, as it is natural for the enemy to cover their effects in the best manner they can: it would be impossible always to determine the affair at sea, therefore it is allowable to bring a dubious capture into port, in order to a more nice and just scrutiny and inspection, otherwise the goods of an enemy would often escape, as has frequently happened in the late rupture. However, to guard against unlawful seizures, the government have wisely directed sufficient caution to be given (as beforementioned) for the due observance of the letters according to law, before they permit their issuing; and where there is a breach committed, the penalties are inflicted. *Rolls Abr. f.* 530. *Moor* 776.

And in order to avoid all illegal proceedings, but to act with due regularity and conformity with the tenour of the letters granted, whenever a prize is taken, and brought *infra præsidia*, the captor must exhibit all the ship's papers and captivated mariners to be examined in order to adjudication, till when bulk ought not to be broken, nor may the captain of the captor suffer any embezzlement of the lading, or sell, barter, or dispose of any part without commission, as the subsequent acts will shew.

The use of these sorts of vessels we were taught by our neighbours, and obliged by their example to encourage them, who, in the first long war, almost covered the seas, and, like locusts, devoured every thing they could overpower; and, in the late embroils, we sufficiently experienced their utility, if distressing the enemy may be termed so, as they advantageously inculcated the lesson on the original teachers, and almost ruined the trade of the first inventors of these annoyances, so destructive to the peaceful mercantile employ; and, that we might not be tardy in encountering the enemy at their weapons, the legislature have thought proper to encourage this way of molesting them, in the following acts, of 13, 17, 19, 20, 29, and 32 *Geo.* II. which we insert at length, though a great part being only temporary, is now expired, but will, in all probability, be revived in any future war.

The lord high admiral, commissioners of the admiralty, or any three of them, or their deputies elsewhere, shall, after

after the fourth day of January, 1739, grant commiſſions, or letters of marque (on requeſt of any owners of veſſels, on their giving the uſual ſecurity) to any perſon whom ſuch owner ſhall nominate commander, or, in caſe of death, ſucceſſive commanders, of ſuch veſſels (except only for the payment of the tenths of the prizes to the lord high admiral, or commiſſioners of the admiralty) for the attacking and taking any fortreſs by land, or any ſhip, ſtores, merchandizes, &c. poſſeſſed by the enemy, in any ſea, creek, haven, or river, and that ſuch ſhip, &c. (being firſt adjudged lawful prize) ſhall wholly belong to the owners of ſuch privateers, and the captors in ſuch proportion as ſhall have been beforehand agreed on between themſelves, paying the duties hereafter mentioned.

The judge, &c. of ſuch court of admiralty ſhall, if requeſted thereto, finiſh, within five days, the uſual preparatory examination for trial of prizes, and the proper monition ſhall be iſſued and executed in three days after requeſt; and, in caſe no claim of ſuch capture ſhall be duly entered, and atteſted on oath, giving twenty days notice after the execution of ſuch monition; or, if there be ſuch claim, and the claimants ſhall not, within five days, give ſecurity (to be approved of by ſuch court of admiralty) to pay double coſts to the captors, in caſe the ſame be judged lawful prize; that then the judge, &c. of ſuch court of admiralty, on producing to him the examination, or copies thereof, and producing on oath all papers taken in ſuch capture, or on oath made that no ſuch papers were found, ſhall immediately acquit ſuch capture, or condemn it as lawful prize. And, in caſe ſuch claim be duly entered, and ſecurity given, and no occaſion appears to examine diſtant witneſſes, then ſuch judge, &c. ſhall examine the preſent witneſſes, and, within ten days after claim and ſecurity, proceed to ſentence the capture, as aforeſaid. But, if the matter appears doubtful to the judge, &c. and it be found neceſſary to examine witneſſes remote from ſuch court of admiralty, and ſuch examination be deſired, and an abſolute determination inſiſted on, on both ſides, then the capture ſhall be appraiſed forthwith, by ſworn appraiſers, on the part of the captor; for which purpoſe the judge ſhall cauſe the goods found on board to be unladen, and put into proper warehouſes, with ſeparate locks, of the collector and comptroller of the Cuſtoms, and, where there is no comptroller of the naval officer, and the agents of the captors and claimants, at the charge of the parties deſiring the ſame; the claimants giving ſecurity within fourteen days after making ſuch claim, to pay the captors the full value appraiſed, if adjudged lawful prize; after which ſecurity, the judge ſhall order the ſaid prize to be delivered to the claimants, or their agents.

And if the claimants refuſe to give ſecurity, the judge ſhall take ſecurity of the captors, to be approved by the claimants, to pay the claiments the appraiſed value, if it be adjudged not lawful prize; and the judge ſhall proceed thereupon to make an interlocutory order, for delivering the ſame to the captors or their agents.

All captures brought into any of our American colonies ſhall ſtay there without breaking bulk, under the joint care of the collector and comptroller of the Cuſtoms; or where there is no comptroller of the naval officer of that port, and the captors and their agents, till the ſame ſhall be cleared or condemned by final ſentence; and, on condemnation as lawful prize, if taken by a privateer, ſhall be immediately delivered to the captors and their agents, ſubject to their own diſpoſal.

If any judges, or other officers in his majeſty's dominions abroad, neglect to perform any of the matters to them referred, relating to diſcharging or condemning the captures, as aforeſaid, ſhall forfeit five hundred pounds, &c.

There ſhall not be paid above ten pounds to all the judges and officers of any court of admiralty abroad, for condemnation of any capture under one hundred tons burden, nor above fifteen pounds if the capture be of that, or any greater burden; and, on payment of either of the ſaid ſums, the judges, &c. ſhall be liable to all the ſeveral penalties impoſed by this act, if they neglect to do their duties within the reſpective time limited.

If any captors or claimers ſhall not be ſatisfied with the ſentence given, in ſuch court of admiralty abroad, they may appeal to commiſſioners appointed under the great ſeal of Great-Britain, for determining ſuch appeals; to be allowed as appeals to ſuch commiſſioners are now allowed from the court of admiralty in England, if it be made within fourteen days after ſentence, and ſecurity given to proſecute with effect, and pay treble coſts, if the ſentence be affirmed; provided the execution of any ſentence appealed from, ſhall not be ſuſpended, if the parties appellate give ſecurity to the court who paſſed ſentence, to reſtore the ſhip, &c. or the value, to the appellants, if the ſentence be reverſed.

Any commanders, officers, &c. who ſhall embezzle any part of the capture, ſhall forfeit treble the value of ſuch embezzlement, &c.

Provided that nothing in this act contained ſhall exempt any prizes from paying the uſual cuſtoms, or being ſubject to the laws in being, in any of his majeſty's dominions.

His majeſty, his heirs, &c. are impowered to grant charters, commiſſions, &c. in this, or any future war, to enable any ſocieties, or particular perſons, to join in any adventures by ſea or land in America, to ſurprize, take, or deſtroy, any moveables or immoveables belonging to the enemy, and to veſt the property of all things ſo taken in any parts of America, whether ſhips, goods, ſtores of war, ſettlements, factories, places of ſtrength, &c. together with all profits and advantages accruing from the ſame, in what manner, and under ſuch regulations, as his majeſty, his heirs, &c. ſhall think fit, and to confirm the ſaid benefits by any farther grants.

Provided that no charter, &c. ſhall reſtrain any of his majeſty's ſubjects from having a free trade to any part of America.

There ſhall be paid by the treaſurer of the navy, on bills made forth by the commiſſioners, to be paid according to courſe, without fee, to the officers, ſeamen, &c. that ſhall have been on board ſuch privateers, in any action where any ſhips of war or privateer ſhall be taken from the enemy, or deſtroyed, five pounds; for every man which was living on board any ſhip ſo taken or deſtroyed, at the beginning of the engagement between them; the numbers to be proved by the oaths of three or more of the chief officers or men belonging to ſuch ſhips of the enemy, at the time of their being taken or deſtroyed, before the mayor, or other chief magiſtrate of the port whereto ſuch prize, or the men of any ſhip deſtroyed, ſhall be brought; which oaths the ſaid mayor, &c. is hereby required to adminiſter, and grant a certificate thereof, without fee, directed to the commiſſioners of the navy; upon producing which certificate, with an authentic copy of the condemnation of ſuch ſhip ſo taken, or, if deſtroyed, on producing a certificate from the mayor, &c. the commiſſioners or their agents ſhall, within fifteen days, make out bills for the amount of ſuch bounty, directed to the treaſurer of the navy, payable to, and to be divided among, the owners, officers, &c. of any privateer, as by written agreement among themſelves ſhall be directed.

The bills made out for the bounty aforeſaid ſhall be payable to the agents of owners, &c. of privateers, to be divided as by written contract, &c.

All captures, commonly called *flota ſhips*, or *galleons*, or any regiſter ſhips, bound from Buenos Ayres, or Honduras, or any goods on board the ſaid ſhips, ſhall be adjudged in his majeſty's high court of admiralty, and not by any courts of admiralty out of Great-Britain.

If any ſhips, &c. belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be taken by the enemy, and afterwards retaken by any men of war, or privateers, under his majeſty's protection, the ſaid ſhips. &c. ſo retaken, ſhall be reſtored to their proper owners, paying, in lieu of ſalvage, an eigth part of the value, after having been in poſſeſſion of the enemy twenty-four hours; and, if above twenty-four hours, and under forty-eight hours, a fifth part; and, if above forty-eight hours, and under ninety-ſix hours, a third part; and, if above ninety-ſix hours, a moiety thereof: all which payments ſhall be made without deduction; and if any ſhip, ſo retaken, ſhall appear to have been ſet forth by the enemy, while in their cuſtody, as a man of war, the owners of ſuch ſhip retaken, ſhall pay a full moiety of the real value, without deduction.

If any ſhip, &c. be taken by any privateer, through conſent or connivance; ſuch ſhip, &c. as alſo the tackle, apparel,

apparel, furniture, and ammunition of ſuch privateer, ſhall be judged good prize; and the bond given by the captain ſhall be forfeited to his majeſty, &c.

No privateer, touching at any of the American plantations, ſhall carry from thence any ſervant, without conſent of the owner, or any other perſon without his ticket of leave to depart, but in all caſes be ſubject to the laws of the country.

For the encouragement of the officers and ſeamen of his majeſty's ſhips of war, and of all other Britiſh ſhips, having commiſſions or letters of marque; and for inducing all Britiſh ſeamen, who may be in any foreign ſervice, to return into this kingdom, and become ſerviceable to his majeſty, and for the more effectually ſecuring and extending the trade of his majeſty's ſubjects, it is enacted, (the ſame as the preceding act intire, with the following additions, viz.) that all commanders of private ſhips of war, or merchant ſhips having letters of marque, ſhall, on going into any of thoſe ports or harbours, be ſubject to the ſeveral directions and forfeitures by ſuch laws made and provided.

Some doubts having ariſen upon the conſtruction of ſeveral clauſes in the foregoing act of 13 *G.* II. It is therefore enacted, that, after the firſt day of July, 1744, all proceedings in any of his majeſty's courts of admiralty, concerning the adjudication and condemnation of prizes taken from the Spaniards, ſhall be according to the method directed and preſcribed by this preſent act.

Nothing in this act contained ſhall reſtrain his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, from giving ſuch farther rules and directions to his reſpective courts of admiralty, for the adjudication and condemnation of prizes, as by his majeſty, &c. with advice of his privy council, ſhall be thought neceſſary.

And, as in all private ſhips of war or merchant ſhips, that ſhall take out letters of marque, it is expedient for the better diſcipline and government of ſuch ſhips, that all perſons who ſhall enter themſelves on board, ſhould be under proper regulations, to pay obedience to the lawful commands of the chief commanders of the ſaid ſhips: it is therefore enacted, that all offences committed by any officer or ſeaman, on board any privateer or merchant ſhip, taking letters of marque, during the preſent war with Spain or France ſhall be puniſhed in ſuch manner as the like offences are puniſhable on board his majeſty's ſhips of war.

All offenders who ſhall be accuſed of ſuch crimes as are cognizable only by a court martial, ſhall be confined on board ſuch privateer, &c. in which ſuch offence ſhall be committed, until they ſhall arrive in ſome port in Great-Britain or Ireland, or can meet with ſuch a number of his majeſty's ſhips of war abroad, as are ſufficient to make a court martial; and, upon application made by the commander of ſuch privateer to the lord high admiral of Great-Britain, or the commander in chief of his majeſty's ſaid ſhips of war abroad; they are hereby authorized and required to call a court martial, for trying and puniſhing the ſaid offences.

For advancement of the trade of Great-Britain, to, and in, the ſeveral Britiſh ſugar colonies in the Weſt-Indies in America, for the better encouragement of his majeſty's ſhips, and private ſhips of war, and the annoying and diminiſhing the power and wealth of his majeſty's enemies in thoſe parts; and, for the increaſe of ſhipping and ſeamen, for theſe and other ſervices, it is enacted, that no mariner, or other perſon, who ſhall ſerve, or be retained to ſerve on board any privateer, or trading veſſel, that ſhall be employed in any of the Britiſh ſugar colonies in the Weſt-Indies in America, &c. ſhall be impreſſed or taken away by any officer belonging to any of his majeſty's ſhips of war, unleſs ſuch mariner ſhall have before deſerted from ſuch ſhip of war, at any time after the 24th of June, 1746, upon pain that the officer ſo impreſſing, &c. contrary to the tenor and true meaning of this act, ſhall forfeit to the maſter or owners of ſuch veſſel, fifty pounds for every man he ſhall take, with full coſts of ſuit, &c.

Every maſter or commander of a privateer, or trading veſſel, before he ſhall receive in any of the parts aforeſaid, any ſeaman, &c. to ſerve on board, ſhall endeavour, by all the means he reaſonably can, to diſcover whether ſueh perſon hath deſerted from any man of war; and in caſe any commander ſhall receive any mariner on board, without firſt having made ſuch endeavour towards a diſcovery, or if he ſhall know ſuch a one to be a deſerter, he ſhall forfeit fifty pounds for every man he ſhall ſo entertain, &c.

And every maſter of a merchantſhip, or commander of a privateer, before he ſhall ſet ſail from any port belonging to any of the ſaid Britiſh ſugar colonies, ſhall deliver to the chief officer of the Cuſtoms of the port he ſails from, an exact liſt of all the men belonging to ſuch veſſel, containing their names, ages, and deſcription of their perſons, upon pain of forfeiting ten pounds for every man he ſhall receive on board, &c.

Upon the death or alteration of any ſeaman, the liſt muſt be altered, and ſhewn to captains of men of war; and, in caſe any man belonging to his majeſty's ſhips of war ſhall be found on board, whoſe name is not in the liſt, the maſter or commander ſhall forfeit fifty pounds for every ſuch man, &c.

The preamble ſets forth, that by the preceding act of 13 *Geo.* II. the ſole property of all veſſels and merchandizes taken from the Spaniards, is given to the officers, &c. on board every privateer (being firſt adjudged lawful prize) and divers rules are therein eſtabliſhed for the condemnation of ſuch prizes; and by the ſaid act, a bounty is given to the officers and ſeamen, on their taking or deſtroying the enemy's ſhips, and that by the foregoing act of 17 *Geo.* II. it was found neceſſary that the ſame encouragement ſhould be given to the captors of French ſhips, &c.

All ſales, bills of ſale, contracts, agreements, and aſſignments of ſhares of prizes, &c. taken from the enemy by ſhips of war, or having letters of marque, which ſhall be made at any time, after the ſaid firſt of June, ſhall be void and of none effect.

The agents are to pay the reſpective ſhares of prizes and bounty money to all ſeamen, &c. as ſhall appear in perſon, or, in their abſence, to their lawful attornies, impowered by them, in manner hereinafter directed, or to their executors, &c. without any regard to bargain or ſale whatſoever, concerning the ſame.

After the ſaid firſt of June, no letter of attorney, made by any ſeaman, &c. in any ſhip of war, or having letters of marque, or by their executors, &c. in order to impower any perſon to receive any ſhare of prizes or bounty money, ſhall be valid, unleſs the ſame be made revocable, and for the uſe of ſuch ſeamen, and be ſigned and executed before, and atteſted by, the captain and one other of the ſigning officers of the ſhip, or the mayor or chief magiſtrate of ſome corporation.

As every war produces alterations, the following have been made ſince the late, commencing in 1756.

If any captor or claimant ſhall not reſt ſatisfied with the ſentence given in the Admiralty court abroad, the party aggrieved may appeal to the commiſſioners of appeals in cauſes of prizes, in Great-Britain; the ſame to be allowed in like manner as appeals from the court of Admiralty in this kingdom, ſo as the ſame be made within fourteen days after ſentence, and ſecurity be given to proſecute ſuch appeals, and anſwer the condemnation, and to pay treble coſts in caſe the ſentence be affirmed.

The exeeution of any ſentence ſhall not be ſuſpended by reaſon of ſuch appeal, in caſe the party appellate give ſecurity to be approved of by the court, to reſtore the ſhip or effects, or the full value thereof, to the appellant, in caſe the ſentence ſhall be reverſed.

If any perſon, who was not a party in the firſt inſtance ſhall interpoſe an appeal from a ſentence given in any admiralty court, ſuch perſon, or his agent, ſhall, at the ſame time, enter his claim, otherwiſe ſuch appeals ſhall be null and void.

All appraiſements and ſales of ſhips or merchandizes, taken by his majeſty's ſhips of wars, are to be made by agents appointed in equal numbers by the flag officers, captains, officers, ſhip's company, and others intitled thereunto, viz. if the flag officers, or flag-officer, of any fleet or ſquadron, which ſhall take any prize, (or the majority of ſuch flag officers, if more than one) ſhall appoint one or more agents, to ſell or appraiſe the ſame, then the captains and commanders ſhall nominate the like number to act for them, and all the other officers ſhall appoint the like number to act for them; and all the crews of the ſeveral

veral ſhips companies intitled thereto, ſhall appoint the ſame number of agents to act on their behalf.

But nothing herein is to extend to alter any agreement between the owners, officers and ſeamen of privateers.

All agents for receiving the bounty for head-money are to exhibit and regiſter in the court of admiralty, where the prize ſhall be condemned, their letters of attorney appointing them agents; and if any agents ſhall refuſe or neglect ſo to do for ſix months after condemnation, he is to forfeit five hundred pounds, to be recovered by the proſecutor.

If any agent is appointed after condemnation, he muſt make the ſame regiſtry under the ſame penalty.

After the ſale of any prize taken by any of his majeſty's ſhips of war, public notice is to be given by the agents of the day appointed for payment of the ſhares to the captors; after which, if any men's ſhares ſhall remain in their hands, either belonging to ſuch men as ſhall be run from his majeſty's ſervice, or not be legally demanded in three years, the ſame are to go to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital.

If any veſſel ſhall be taken by colluſion by a man of war, the commander or captain ſhall forfeit one thouſand pounds; one moiety to the uſe of his majeſty, the other to the proſecutor; and he ſhall forfeit his employment, and be incapable of any office under his majeſty, during the ſpace of ſeven years, and the goods, ſhip, tackle, &c. ſo taken by colluſion, ſhall be judged good prize to his majeſty.

Perſons belonging to his majeſty's ſervice, who ſhall run away from their ſhips before notification of the payment of prizes or bounty money, are not intitled to their ſhares, but the ſame ſhall go to Greenwich hoſpital.

And, if they run away after notification given, they forfeit ſuch part of their ſhares as ſhall remain in the agents hands.

All agents, &c. who ſhall diſpoſe of any prize, are, within three months after the day of the firſt payment to the captors, to tranſmit to the treaſurer of Greenwich hoſpital, &c. a true ſtate of the produce of ſuch prizes, together with an account of the payment of the ſeveral ſhares to the captors, as ſhall then have been made; and all perſons authorized to receive bounty bills are, in like manner, to tranſmit an account of the payment of the ſhares; and all agents, &c. who ſhall diſpoſe of any prizes taken by any of his majeſty's ſhips of war, or that ſhall have received or diſpoſed of any bills for bounty, are, within three months after the term of three years, limited by this act, to make out an exact account of the produce of ſuch prize and bills for bounty; as alſo of the payments of the ſeveral ſhares to the captors, together with a true account upon oath, to be taken before the treaſurer of the ſaid hoſpital, &c. in writing under his hand and ſeal, of all ſums then remaining in their hands, which money and accounts they are at the ſame time to deliver, taking an acquittance for the ſame.

The perſons directed to deliver the accounts before-mentioned, and to pay the money within the time before limited and appointed; on neglect are to forfeit one hundred pounds, excluſive of the money then in their hands; one third to his majeſty, the other two thirds to the ſaid hoſpital, with coſts of ſuits.

If any fraud ſhall appear in the accounts, every perſon, his aiders and abetters are to forfeit one hundred pounds over and above the aforeſaid penalties; one-third to his majeſty, one-third to the hoſpital, and the other to the informer, with coſts of ſuit.

No agent may be ſued by any perſon who ſhall be made run from his majeſty's ſervice, in the liſts certified of the names of the officers, ſeamen, &c. actually on board any of his majeſty's ſhips of war at the taking of any prize, until the end of three months after the expiration of the three years limited for the claiming of prizes and bounty money, unleſs ſuch perſon ſhall, before any action brought, obtain a certificate of his R being taken off, and the forfeiture of his ſhare of ſuch prize and bounty money diſcharged by the commiſſioners of the navy, who ſubſcribed the ſaid liſts, and ſhall produce ſuch certificates to the agents, and unleſs the agent ſhall refuſe thereupon to pay the ſaid prize and bounty money within two months after ſuch demand and certificate produced.

The preamble ſets forth, that repeated complaints having been made of piracy and robbery being committed on board ſmall ſhips and boats being, or pretending to be, Engliſh privateers; and that it is apprehended that moſt of the acts of piracy and robbery have ariſen from the obligation on the lords of the admiralty, to grant commiſſions to all commanders of ſhips or veſſels of what burden ſoever, without diſtinction: to remedy which inconveniency it is enacted, that ſuch commiſſions ſhall be abſolutely repealed and made void.

But it is further enacted, that from and after the firſt of June, 1759, commiſſions ſhall be iſſued at the requeſt of any owner or owners, they giving ſuch ſecurity as is herein after-mentioned; and that all ſhips, veſſels, goods, &c. taken by any ſuch privateer, (being firſt adjudged lawful prize) ſhall wholly belong to the owners and captors, in ſuch manner as ſhall be agreed on among themſelves, and neither to his majeſty, or any admiral, vice-admiral, governor, or other perſon whatſoever, except as to the cuſtoms and duties.

No commiſſion ſhall be granted, if in Europe, except the veſſel be of one hundred tons bundren, carrying ten carriage guns, being three pounders, and forty men at leaſt; or unleſs the lords of the Admiralty, or perſons authorized by them, ſhall think fit to grant the ſame to any veſſel of inferior force or burden.

The lords of the Admiralty may at any time, by an order in writing, revoke any commiſſion.

In ſuch caſe, the ſecretary of the Admiralty is required, with all convenient ſpeed, after any commiſſion ſhall be ſo revoked, to give notice in writing to the owners, agents, or ſureties of the ſhip or veſſel, named in ſuch order of revocation: and, if ſuch ſhip ſhall be in the channel, the order of revocation ſhall be effectual to ſuperſede the ſaid commiſſion, at the expiration of twenty days from ſuch notice, or ſooner, if the notice ſhall be given to the commander of the veſſel: if ſhe ſhall be in the Northern Seas, at the expiration of twenty days, and, if to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, or in the Mediterranean, at the end of ſix weeks: if in North-America or the Weſt-Indies, at the expiration of three months; and, in the Eaſt-Indies, at the end of ſix months: and the perſon concerned may complain of ſuch revocation to his majeſty in council, within thirty days after the notice is given, and the determination of his majeſty in council ſhall be final.

If the order of revocation ſhall be ſuperſeded, the commiſſions ſhall be deemed to have continued in force, in the ſame manner as if no ſuch revocation had been made.

No perſon ſhall be liable to be puniſhed for doing any matter or thing before he ſhall have received perſonal notice of ſuch revocation.

Before the granting any commiſſion, uſual bail or ſecurity ſhall be taken, each perſon being ſecurity making oath before the judge of the Admiralty, &c. that, at the time of their being ſworn, they were worth more money than the ſum for which they are then bound, excluſive of their juſt debts: and the marſhal of the court, &c. is directed to make inquiry of the ſufficiency of ſuch ſecurity, and report the ſame to the judge, or his ſurrogate, before ſuch commiſſion ſhall be granted.

All perſons applying for commiſſions, are to make application in writing, and ſet forth therein a particular and exact deſcription of the ſhip or veſſel, ſpecifying the burden, and the number and the nature of the guns on board, to what place belonging, and the names of the principal owners, and the number of the men, (all which particulars are to be inſerted in the commiſſion) and every commander ſhall produce ſuch commiſſion to the collector, &c. of the port from whence ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall be firſt fitted out, or to the lawful deputy of ſuch collectors, &c. who are required to inſpect the ſaid ſhip, without fee or reward, ſo as to aſcertain the burden, number of men, and number and nature of her guns: and if they ſhall find the ſame to anſwer the tenor of the deſcription in the commiſſion, or be of greater force, they are immediately, upon the requeſt of the commander, to give him a certificate *gratis*, which ſhall be deemed a neceſſary clearance, before ſuch veſſel ſhall be permitted to ſail from that port: and if the commander ſhall depart without ſuch certificate, or proceed upon a cruize with a force inferior to that mentioned in his commiſſion, or required by this act, the commiſſion ſhall

from thenceforth be null and void; and the commander, being convicted before any court of Admiralty, shall be imprisoned without bail or mainprize, for such space as the court shall direct, not exceeding one year for any one offence.

If any collector, &c. shall grant a certificate for any vessel which shall not be of the burden and force specified in the commission, or of greater burden and force than shall be mentioned therein, he shall forfeit his office, and be for ever after incapable of holding any office in the Customs; and shall also forfeit one hundred pounds; one half to the informer, and the other to the corporation for the relief of sick and disabled seamen in the merchants service; or, if the forfeiture shall be incurred in an outport, where there is a corporation for relief of seamen, then to the trustees of such corporation.

The tonage of vessels to be ascertained according to the rules laid down by the act 8 *Annæ*, for making a dock at Liverpoole.

If the commander of any private ship of war shall agree to ransom any neutral vessel, or the cargo, or any part thereof, after the same shall have been taken as prize, and, in pursuance of such agreement, discharge such prize without bringing the same into some port belonging to his majesty's dominions, he shall be deemed guilty of piracy, felony, and robbery; and, upon conviction, shall suffer pains of death, loss of lands, goods, and chattels accordingly.

But the commander of any private ship of war, upon the capture of any neutral ship, which shall be liable only to the forfeiture of such contraband goods as shall be on board, may receive such goods from such ship, in case the commander thereof is willing to deliver the same, and may thereupon set such neutral ship at liberty; and if any person shall purloin or embezzle any contraband goods before condemnation, he shall suffer such pains and penalties as are inflicted by law on persons purloining or embezzling goods out of any captured ship.

All books, papers, and writings, found in any vessel, taken as prize, shall be brought into the registry of the court of Admiralty, wherein such vessel may be proceeded against in order for condemnation; but such only translated as shall be agreed or insisted upon by the proctors of the several parties, captors, or claimants; or, in case of no claim, by the captor or register, to be necessary for ascertaining the property of such vessel and her cargo.

No judge, register, or deputy register, marshal or deputy marshal, or any other officer belonging to any court of admiralty or vice admiralty in Great-Britain, or Ireland, or the plantations, or elsewhere; nor any advocate or proctor shall be concerned in any privateer, having commission aforesaid, on penalty of forfeiting their office, and also one hundred pounds to his majesty; and every advocate or proctor to be rendered incapable of practising for the future.

No register, or deputy register, nor any marshal, nor deputy marshal, of any admiralty or vice admiralty court, shall act or be concerned, either directly or indirectly, as advocate or proctor in such courts to which they belong, or, on non-observance of this clause, shall forfeit his respective office and employment in such court.

If any appeal shall be interposed from a sentence given in an admiralty court in pursuance of the act 29 *Geo.* II. the judge of such court shall, at the request and charge, either of the captor or claimant, (or of the claimant only, in case where the privilege is reserved in favour of the claimant by any treaty now subsisting) make an order to have such capture appraised, (unless the parties agree upon the value) and an inventory taken, and then take security for the full value thereof, and cause such capture to be delivered to the party giving such security, in the same manner by the former act, such judge ought or could have done before sentence given, notwithstanding such appeal; and if there shall be any difficulty or objection to the giving or taking security, the judge shall, at the request of either of the parties, order such goods and effects to be entered, landed, and sold by public auction, as prize goods now are, under the care and custody of the officers of the Customs, and under the direction and inspection of such persons as shall be appointed by the claimants and captors; the produce to be deposited in the bank of England, or in some public securities, in the names of such trustees as the captors and claimants shall appoint, and the court shall approve, for the use and benefit of the parties who shall be adjudged to be intitled thereto; and, if such security shall be given by the claimants, then the judge shall give such capture a pass, to prevent its being taken again by his majesty's subjects in its destined voyage.

This act to continue in force during the present war with France, and no longer.

The expence at the Admiralty-office of a letter of marque or a commission, is one pound two shillings and six-pence, and at the Commons nine pounds fourteen shillings and six-pence; but proctors (when employed) generally charge fifteen guineas.

*An order from the lords of the Admiralty to the judge of the High Court of Admiralty, to make out the commission.*

By the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c.

Whereas by his majesty's commission under the great seal of Great-Britain, bearing date the
We are required and authorized to issue forth and grant commissions to any of his majesty's subjects, or others, whom we shall deem fitly qualified in that behalf, for the apprehending, seizing, and taking the ships, vessels, and goods belonging to or the vassals and subjects of the king, or others inhabiting within any of his countries, territories, and dominions, and such other ships, vessels, and goods, as are or shall be liable to confiscation, pursuant to the respective treaties between his majesty and other princes, states, and potentates, and to bring the same to judgment in his majesty's high court of Admiralty of England, or such other court of Admiralty, as shall be lawfully authorized in that behalf, for proceedings and adjudication and condemnation to be thereupon had, according to the course of admiralty and laws of nations, with other powers in the said commission expressed; a copy whereof, together with his majesty's instructions, under his royal signet and sign manual, remains with you: these are therefore to will and require you forthwith to cause a commission or letter of marque to be issued out of the high court of Admiralty unto commander of the ship called the burden about tons, mounted with guns, and navigated with men, to set forth, in warlike manner, the said ship called the whereof the said is commander, and to apprehend, seize, and take the ships, vessels, and goods, belonging to or the vassals and subjects of the king, or others inhabiting within any of his countries, territories, and dominions, and such other ships, vessels and goods, as are or shall be liable to confiscation, pursuant to the respective treaties between his majesty and other princes, states, and potentates, according to his majesty's commission and instructions aforesaid. And you are to insert therein a clause, enjoining the said to keep an exact journal of his proceedings, and therein particularly to take notice of all prizes which shall he taken by him, the nature of such prizes, the time and place of their being taken, and the value of them as near as he can judge; as also the station, motion, and strength of the enemy as well as he can discover, by the best intelligence he can get; of which he is, from time to time, as he shall have opportunity to transmit an account to our secretary, and to keep correspondence with him by all opportunities that shall present. Provided always, that before you issue such commission, security be given thereupon, according as is directed by his majesty's instructions aforementioned, and hath been used in such cases. The said commission to continue in force until further order: for which this shall be your warrant. Given under our hands, and the seal of the office of Admiralty, this day of 174

*To Sir Henry Penrice, knight, judge of the high court of Admiralty.*

*By command of their lordships.*

*The commiſſion.*

George the Second, by the grace of God king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith; to all people to whom theſe preſents ſhall come greeting: whereas we, by our declaration of the nineteenth day of October, in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-nine, for the reaſons therein contained, have declared war againſt Spain; and whereas we, by our declaration of the twenty-ninth day of March, in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty-four, for the reaſons therein contained, have declared war againſt France. And whereas we, by our commiſſion under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, bearing date the eighteenth day of June following, have willed, required, and authorized our high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c. for the time being, and our commiſſioners for executing the office of our high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c. and the commiſſioners for executing the ſaid office for the time being, or any three or more of them, to iſſue forth and grant commiſſions to any of our loving ſubjects or others, whom our high admiral aforeſaid, or our ſaid commiſſioners for executing the ſaid office, and the commiſſioners for executing the ſame for the time being, ſhall deem fitly qualified in that behalf, for the apprehending, ſeizing, and taking the ſhips, veſſels, and goods, belonging to France and Spain, or the vaſſals and ſubjects of the French king or king of Spain, or either of them, or others inhabiting within any of their or either of their countries, territories, and dominions, and ſuch other ſhips, veſſels, and goods, as are or ſhall be liable to confiſcation, purſuant to the reſpective treaties between us and other princes, ſtates, and potentates, and to bring the ſame to judgment in our high court of Admiralty of England, or ſuch other court of Admiralty as ſhall be lawfully authorized in that behalf for proceedings and adjudications, and condemnation to be thereupon had according to the courſe of admiralty and laws of nations, and with ſuch clauſes to be therein inſerted, and in ſuch manner, as by our ſaid commiſſion more at large appeareth. And whereas our ſaid commiſſioners for executing the office of our high admiral aforeſaid, have thought fitly qualified, who hath equipped, furniſhed, and victualled a ſhip called of the burden of about tons, whereof he the ſaid is commander. And whereas the ſaid hath given ſufficient bail, with ſureties, to us in our ſaid high court of Admiralty, according to the effect and form ſet down in our inſtructions made the ſaid eighteenth day of June, one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty-four, and in the eighteenth year of our reign, a copy whereof is given to the ſaid captain Know ye therefore, that we do by theſe preſents grant commiſſion to, and do licenſe and authorize the ſaid to ſet forth in warlike manner the ſaid ſhip called the under his own command, and therewith, by force of arms, to apprehend, ſeize, and take, the ſhips, veſſels, and goods, belonging to France and Spain, or the vaſſals and ſubjects of the French king or king of Spain, or either of them, or others inhabiting within any of their or either of their countries, territories, and dominions, and ſuch other ſhips, veſſels, and goods, as are or ſhall be liable to confiſcation, purſuant to the reſpective treaties between us and other princes, ſtates, and potentates, and to bring the ſame to ſuch ports as ſhall be moſt convenient, in order to have them legally adjudged in our ſaid high court of Admiralty of England, or before the judges of ſuch other Admiralty court as ſhall be lawfully authorized within our dominions, which being condemned, it ſhall and may be lawful for the ſaid to ſell and diſpoſe of ſuch ſhips, veſſels, and goods, ſo adjudged and condemned in ſuch ſort or manner as by the courſe of admiralty hath been accuſtomed, except in ſuch caſes where it is otherwiſe directed by our ſaid inſtructions. Provided always, that the ſaid keep an exact journal of his proceedings, and therein particularly take notice of all prizes which ſhall be taken by him, the nature of ſuch prizes, the times and places of their being taken, and the values of them, as near as he can judge; as alſo of the ſtation, motion, and ſtrength of the enemies, as well as he or his mariners can diſcover by the beſt intelligence he can get, and alſo of whatſoever elſe ſhall occur unto him, or any of his officers or mariners, or be diſcovered or diſcloſed unto him or them, or found out by examination or conference with any mariners or paſſengers of, or in, any the ſhips or veſſels taken, or by any other perſon or perſons, or by any other ways and means whatſoever, touching or concerning the deſigns of the enemies, or any of their fleets, veſſels, or parties, and of their ſtations, ports, and places, and of their intents therein, and of what merchant ſhips or veſſels of the enemies bound out or home, or to any other place, as he or his officers or mariners ſhall hear of, and of what elſe material in thoſe caſes may arrive to his or their knowledge; of all which he ſhall, from time to time, as he ſhall or may have opportunity, tranſmit an account to our high admiral of Great-Britain for the time being, or our ſaid commiſſioners for executing the office of our high admiral aforeſaid, or the commiſſioners for executing that office for the time being, or their ſecretary, and to keep a correſpondence with him or them by all opportunities that ſhall preſent. And further provided, that nothing be done by the ſaid or any of his officers, mariners, and company, contrary to the true meaning of our aforeſaid inſtructions, but that the ſaid inſtructions ſhall be by them, and each and every of them, as far as they or any of them are therein concerned, in all particulars well and duly performed and obſerved. And we pray and deſire all kings, princes, potentates, eſtates, and republics, being our friends and allies, and all others to whom it ſhall appertain, to give the ſaid all aid, aſſiſtance, and ſuccour, in their ports, with his ſaid ſhip, company, and prizes, without doing or ſuffering to be done to him any wrong, trouble, or hindrance, we offering to do the like when we ſhall be by them thereunto deſired. And we will and require all our officers whatſoever, to give him ſuccour and aſſiſtance as occaſion ſhall require. In witneſs whereof we have cauſed the great ſeal of our high court of admiralty of England to be hereunto affixed. Given at London the day of in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty-four, and in the eighteenth year of our reign.

Extracted from the regiſtry of the high court of Admiralty of England.

GEORGE R.

*Inſtructions for the commanders of ſuch merchant ſhips and veſſels as may have letters of marque, or commiſſions for private men of war againſt the king of Spain, his vaſſals and ſubjects, or others inhabiting within any of his countries, territories, or dominions, by virtue of our commiſſion granted under the great ſeal of Great-Britain, bearing date the thirtieth day of November*, 1739. *Given at our court at St. James's, the thirtieth day of November*, 1739, *in the thirteenth year of our reign.*

I. That it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid commanders of merchant ſhips and veſſels authorized by letters of marque, or commiſſions for private men of war, to ſet upon by force of arms, and ſubdue and take the men of war, ſhips, and other veſſels whatſoever; as alſo the goods, monies, and merchandizes, belonging to the king of Spain, his vaſſals and ſubjects, and others inhabiting within any of his countries, territories, and dominions, and ſuch other ſhips, veſſels, and goods, as are, or ſhall be, liable to confiſcation, purſuant to the treaties between us and other princes, ſtates, and potentates: but ſo as that no hoſtility be committed, nor prize attacked, ſeized, or taken, within the harbours of princes and ſtates in amity with us, or in their rivers or roads, within ſhot of their cannon.

II. That all ſhips, of what nation ſoever, carrying any ſoldiers, arms, powder, ammunition, or any other contraband goods, to any of the territories, lands, plantations, or countries of the king of Spain, ſhall be ſeized as prizes.

III. That the ſaid commanders of ſuch merchant ſhips and veſſels ſhall bring ſuch ſhips and goods as they have ſeized,

ſeized, or ſhall ſo ſeize and take, to ſuch port of this our realm of England, or ſome other port of our dominions as ſhall be moſt convenient for them, in order to have the ſame legally adjudged in our high court of Admiralty of England, or before the judges of ſuch other Admiralty court, as ſhall be lawfully authorized within our dominions: but if ſuch prize be taken in the Mediterranean, or within the Streights of Gibraltar, then the captor may, if he doth not think fit to bring the ſame to ſome port of England, or other our dominions, carry ſuch ſhip and goods into the ports of ſuch princes or ſtates as are in alliance or amity with us.

IV. That after ſuch ſhip ſhall be taken and brought into any port, the taker ſhall be obliged to bring or ſend, as ſoon as poſſibly may be, three or four of the principal of the company (whereof the maſter and the pilot to be always two) of every ſhip ſo brought into port, before the judge of the Admiralty of England, or his ſurrogate, or before the judge of ſuch other Admiralty court, within our dominions, as ſhall be lawfully authorized as aforeſaid, or ſuch as ſhall be lawfully commiſſioned in that behalf, to be ſworn and examined upon ſuch interrogatories as ſhall tend to the diſcovery of the truth, touching the intereſt or property of ſuch ſhip or ſhips, and of the goods and merchandizes found therein: and the taker ſhall be further obliged at the time he produceth the company to be examined, to bring and deliver into the hands of the judge of the Admiralty of England, his ſurrogate, or the judge of ſuch other Admiralty courts within our dominions, as ſhall be lawfully authorized, or others commiſſioned as aforeſaid, all ſuch paſſes, ſea-briefs, charter-parties, bills of lading, cockets, letters, and other documents and writings as ſhall be delivered up, or found on board any ſuch ſhip; the ſaid taker, or one of his chief officers, who was preſent, and ſaw the ſaid papers and writings delivered up, or otherwiſe found on board at the time of the capture, making oath, that the ſaid papers and writings are brought and delivered in, as they were received or taken, without any fraud, addition, ſubduction, or embezzlement.

V. That ſuch ſhips, goods, and merchandizes, taken by virtue of letters of marque, or commiſſions, for private men of war, ſhall be kept and preſerved, and no part of them ſhall be ſold, ſpoiled, waſted, or diminiſhed, and that the bulk thereof ſhall not be broken before judgment be given in the high court of Admiralty of England, or ſome other court of Admiralty lawfully authorized in that behalf, that the ſhips, goods, and merchandizes are lawful prize; and that no perſon or perſons taken or ſurprized in any ſhip or veſſel, as aforeſaid, though known to be of the enemy's party, ſhall be in cold blood killed, maimed, or by torture or cruelty inhumanly treated, contrary to the common uſages and juſt permiſſion of war; and whoſoever ſhall offend in any of the premiſes, ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed.

VI. That the ſaid commanders of ſuch merchant ſhips and veſſels, who ſhall obtain the ſaid letters of marque or commiſſions, as aforeſaid, for private men of war, ſhall not do or attempt any thing againſt the true meaning of any article or articles, treaty or treaties, depending between us and any of our allies, touching the freedom of commerce in the time of war, and the authority of the paſſports, or certificates under a certain form in ſome one of the articles or treaties ſo depending between us and our allies, as as aforeſaid, when produced and ſhewed by any of the ſubjects of our ſaid allies, and ſhall not do or attempt any thing againſt our loving ſubjects, or the ſubjects of any prince or ſtate in amity with us, nor againſt their ſhips, veſſels, or goods, but only againſt the king of Spain, his vaſſals and ſubjects, and others inhabiting within his countries, territories, or dominions, their ſhips, veſſels, and goods, except as before excepted; and againſt ſuch other ſhips, veſſels, and goods, as are or ſhall be liable to confiſcation.

VII. That after condemnation of any prize, it ſhall or may be lawful for the commanders of ſuch merchant ſhips or veſſels, or the owners of the ſame, to keep ſuch and ſo many ſhips, veſſels, goods, and merchandizes, as ſhall be condemned to them, for lawful prize, in their own poſſeſſion, to make ſale or diſpoſe thereof in open market, or otherwiſe, to their beſt advantage, in as ample manner as at any time heretofore has been accuſtomed in caſes of letters of marque, or of juſt prize in time of war; other than wrought ſilks, bengals, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufactures of Perſia, China, or Eaſt-India, or callicoes painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there, which are to be depoſited for exportation, according to the directions of an act made in the eleventh year of the reign of the late king William, entitled, An Act for the more Effectual Employing the Poor by encouraging the manufactures of this Kingdom: and that it ſhall be lawful for all manner of perſons, as well our ſubjects as others, according to law, to buy the ſaid ſhips, veſſels, goods, and merchandizes, ſo taken and condemned for lawful prize, without any damage or moleſtation to enſue thereupon to the ſaid buyers, or any of them, by reaſon of the contracting or dealing for the ſame.

VIII. That if any ſhip or veſſel, belonging to us or our ſubjects, or to our allies or their ſubjects, ſhall be found in diſtreſs, by being in fight, ſet upon, or taken by the enemy, the captain, officers, and company, who ſhall have ſuch letters of marque or commiſſions, as aforeſaid, ſhall uſe their beſt endeavours to give aid and ſuccour to all ſuch ſhip or ſhips, and ſhall, to the utmoſt of their power, labour to free the ſame from the enemy.

IX. That our ſubjects, and all other perſons whatſoever, who ſhall either in their own perſons ſerve, or bear any charge, or adventure, or in any ſort further or ſet forward the ſaid adventure, according to theſe articles, ſhall ſtand and be freed by virtue of the ſaid commiſſion; and that no perſon be in any wiſe reputed or challenged for an offender againſt our laws, but ſhall be freed, under our protection, of and from all trouble and vexation that might in any wiſe grow thereby, in the ſame manner as any other our ſubjects ought to be by law, in their aiding and aſſiſting us, either in their own perſons, or otherwiſe, in a lawful war againſt our declared enemies.

X. That the ſaid commanders of ſuch merchant ſhips and veſſels, or their owners or agents, before the taking out commiſſions, ſhall give notice in writing, ſubſcribed with their hands, to our high admiral of Great-Britain, for the time being, or our commiſſioners for executing the office of our high admiral, or the commiſſioners for executing that office for the time being, or the lieutenant or judge of the ſaid high court of Admiralty, or his ſurrogate, of the name of their ſhip, and of the tonnage and burthen, and the names of the captain, owners or fetters out of the ſaid ſhip, with the number of men, and the names of the officers in her, and for what time they are victualled, and alſo of their ordnance, furniture and ammunition, to the end the ſame may be regiſtered in the ſaid court of Admiralty.

XI. That thoſe commanders of ſuch merchant ſhips and veſſels, who ſhall have ſuch letters of marque, or commiſſions, as aforeſaid, ſhall hold and keep, and are hereby enjoined to hold and keep, a correſpondence, by all conveniences, and upon all occaſions, from time to time, with our high admiral of Great-Britain for the time being, or our commiſſioners for executing the office of our high admiral, or the commiſſioners for executing that office for the time being, or their ſecretary, ſo as, from time to time, to render and give unto him or them, not only an account or intelligence of their captures or proceedings, by virtue of ſuch their ſaid letters of marque, or commiſſions, as aforeſaid; but alſo, of whatſoever elſe ſhall occur unto them, or be diſcovered and declared unto them, or found out by them, by examination of, or conference with, any mariners, or paſſengers of or in the ſhips or veſſels taken, or by any other ways or means whatſoever, touching or concerning the deſigns of the enemy, or any of their fleets, ſhips, veſſels, or parties; and of the ſtations, ſeas, ports and places, and of their intents therein; and of what merchant ſhips or veſſels of the enemy, bound out or home, as they ſhall hear of; and of what elſe material in theſe caſes may arrive to their knowledge, to the end ſuch courſe may be thereupon taken, and ſuch orders given, as may be requiſite.

XII. That no commander of a merchant ſhip, or veſſel who ſhall have a letter of marque or commiſſion as aforeſaid, ſhall preſume, as they will anſwer it at their peril, to wear any jack, pendant, or any other enſign or colour uſually borne by our ſhips, but that, beſides the colours borne uſually by merchant ſhips, they do wear a red jack with the union-jack, deſcribed in the canton at the upper corner thereof near the ſtaff; and that one third part of the whole company of every ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſo fitted out as aforeſaid, ſhall be land-men.

XIII. That ſuch commanders of merchant ſhips and veſſels who ſhall obtain ſuch letters of marque or commiſſions,

as aforesaid, shall also, from time to time, upon due notice being given them, observe all such other instructions and orders as we shall think fit to direct, for the better carrying on of this service.

XIV. That all persons who shall violate these instructions shall be severely punished, and also required to make full reparation to persons injured, contrary to these instructions, for all damages they shall sustain by any capture, embezzlement, demurrage, or otherwise.

XV. That before any such letters of marque, or commissions, issued under seal, bail, with sureties, shall be given before the lieutenant and judge of our high court of Admiralty of England, or his surrogate, in the sum of three thousand pounds sterling, if the ship carries above one hundred and fifty men; and, if a lesser number, in the sum of fifteen hundred pounds sterling: which bail shall be to the effect, and in the form following:

Which day, time and place personally appeared

who submitting themselves to the jurisdiction of the high court of Admiralty of England, obliged themselves, their heirs, executors and administrators, to our sovereign lord the king, in the sum of
pounds of lawful money of Great-Britain, to this effect; that is to say, that whereas
is authorized by letters of marque, or a commission for a private man of war, to arm, equip, and set forth to sea, the ship called the of the burthen of about tons, whereof he the said goeth captain, with men, ordnance, ammunition, and victuals, to set upon by force of arms, and to subdue, seize, and take the men of war, ships, and other vessels whatsoever, together with the goods, monies, and merchandizes, belonging to the king of Spain, or to any of his vassals and subjects, or others inhabiting within any of his countries, territories, or dominions whatsoever, and such other ships, vessels, and goods, as are or shall be liable to confiscation, excepting only within the harbours or roads within shot of the cannon of princes and states in amity with his majesty. And whereas he, the said
has a copy of certain instructions, approved of, and passed by his majesty in council, delivered to him to govern himself therein, as by the tenour of the said commission, and of the instructions thereto relating, more at large appeareth. If therefore nothing be done by the said or any of his officers, mariners, or company, contrary to the true meaning of the said instructions, but that the commission aforesaid, and the said instructions, shall in all particulars be well and duly performed and observed as far as they shall the said ship, captain, and company, any way concern: and they, or any of them, shall give full satisfaction for any damages or injury which shall be done by them, or any of them, to any of his majesty's subjects or allies, or neuters, or their subjects: and also shall duly and truly pay, or cause to be paid, to his majesty, or the customers or officers appointed to receive the same for his majesty, the usual customs due to his majesty, of and for all ships and goods, so as aforesaid taken and adjudged for prize: and moreover, if the said
shall not take any ship or vessel, or any goods and merchandizes belonging to the enemy, or otherwise liable to confiscation through consent, or clandestinely, or by collusion, by virtue, colour, or pretence of this said commission; that then this bail shall be void, and of none effect: and unless they shall so do, they do all hereby severally consent that execution shall issue forth against them, their heirs, executors, and administrators, goods and chattels, wheresoever the same shall be found, to the value of the said sum of pounds, before mentioned. And, in testimony of the truth thereof, they have hereunto subscribed their names.

By his majesty's command,

*Harrington.*

Exam. S. Hill, Register.

*An additional instruction to all such as have or shall have letters of marque, or commissions for private men of war, in pursuance of a warrant from his majesty, dated the seventh day of April, 1743, directed to the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c. and of a warrant in pursuance thereupon, made by the right honourable the lords commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c. dated the ninth day of April, 1743, directed to Sir Henry Penrice, knight, judge of the high court of Admiralty of England.*

That all captains and commanders of ships, who have, or shall have letters of marque, or commissions for private men of war, are hereby required and enjoined to observe carefully and religiously the terms of the treaty marine, between his late majesty king Charles the Second, and their high mightinesses the states general of the united Netherlands, concluded at London the first of December, 1674, old style, and confirmed by subsequent treaties: and they are hereby required to give security pursuant to the tenth articles of the aforesaid treaty marine, for the due performance thereof.

Exam. Samuel Hill, Register.

The wording of ransom bills has been various, though the substance the same; we have therefore only added here the form of one, which we give our reader, both in French and English, as they are commonly printed for privateers to carry with them.

I John Stout, commander of the private ship of war, called the Success, by virtue of his Britannick majesty's commission, dated at London the twenty-fourth day of August, 1746, to seize all subjects and vassals, ships, goods, monies, and effects whatsoever, of the French king, and king of Spain, having taken a ship or vessel called the Malheureux of Nantes, whereof John Martel was commander, burthen about two hundred tons, bound from the said port to Cadiz, under French colours, laden with wheat, in the latitude of and
longitude from London, the said ship and cargo, belonging to Messrs. La Bourdonage and comp. of Nantes, subjects of the French king, which ship and wheat I have agreed to ransom for one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, to be paid in London, within two months from the date hereof, to the order of Mr. James Fillpurse; in consideration whereof, I have set the said ship and cargo at liberty, to proceed for the said port of Cadiz, where she shall be obliged to arrive within the space of thirty days from the date hereof, after the expiration of which time, this agreement shall not warrant her from being taken again by any English ship of war, or privateer; for the true payment of which ransom, I have received as hostage, Mr. Thomas Lecroy, belonging to the said ship, who is not to be set at liberty until the said ransom be fully and truly paid, as abovementioned; I therefore pray, and desire all friends and allies, to suffer the said ship Malheureux, to pass, and proceed to the said port of Cadiz, without any lett or molestation within the said covenanted time. And I the said John Martel, commander of the said ship the Malheureux, as well in my own name, as in the names of the aforesaid Messrs. La Bourdonage and comp. owners of the said ship and cargo, have voluntarily submitted myself to the payment of the said ransom of one thousand eight hundred pounds sterling, in London, as aforesaid; for which I have given the said Mr. Thomas Lecroy for hostage, (who upon the payment of the said sum as agreed, shall be immediately released and set free, and at full liberty to return to his own country, or wheresoever he shall think proper) hereby promising not to act contrary to the conditions of this agreement, whereunto we have (with the said hostage) interchangeably set our hands, on board the said private ship of war, this third day of September, 1746.

*John Stout.*
Signed and delivered in the presence of *John Martel.*
A. B. E. F. *Thomas Lecroy.*
C. D. G. H.

In French

Je Jean Stout, commandant de l'armateur nommé le Succes, en vertu d'une commission, ou lettre de marque de

ſa majeſté Britannique, ſigne á Londres le vingt quatriéme jour du mois de Août de l'an 1746, pour prendre & ſaiſir les vaiſſeaux, biens, & effets des ſujets de la France & d'Eſpagne, ayant ſaiſi ſur, & pris, le vaiſſeau nommé le Malheureux de Nantes, ſous le commandement de monſ. Jean Martel, autour du deux cent tonneaux de port, venant du dit port, & deſtiné pour celle la de Cadiz, ſous pavillon François chargé de blé, dans la latitude de & longitude de Londres, le dit vaiſſeau & cargaiſon appartenant à Meſſrs. La Bourdonage & comp. de Nantes, ſujets du roy François, lequel vaiſſeau & blé, je ſuis convenu de rançonner, moyenant la ſomme de mille & huit cent livres ſterlines, que doit être payée à Londres dans deux mois du date de ceci, à l'ordre du Monſ. Jaques Fillpurſe, & en conſideration du dit ſomme j'ai relaché & remis le dit vaiſſeau & cargaiſon en liberté pour aller au dit port de Cadiz, où il ſera tenu de ſe rendre dans le tems, & eſpace de trente jours, du date de celle ci, apres l'expiration du quel tems, le preſent traite, ne pourra le garantir d'etre arrété & pris, par aucun vaiſſeau de guerre ou armateur. Pour ſureté de la quelle rançon, j'ay reçeu en otage Monſ. Thomas Lecroy, appartenant au dit vaiſſeau, qui ne doit etre relache, que apres le payement de la dite rançon; donc je prie, & ſupplie à tous amis & alliez de laiſſer paſſer le dit vaiſſeau le Malheureux ſurement, & librement pour aller au dit port de Cadiz, ſans aucun trouble ou empechement quelconque, pendant le dit tems ſtipulé & convenú. Et je le dit Jean Martel, maitre du dit vaiſſeau le Malheureux, tant en mon nom, comme en celuy de les ſufdits Meſſrs. La Bourdonage and comp. proprietaires du dit vaiſſeau & charge, me ſuis voluntairement ſoûmis au payement de la dit rançon, de mil & huit cent livres ſterlines dans la ville de Londres comme ſudit; pour ſureté de laquelle j'ay donné en otage le dit Monſ. Thomas Lecroy (que immediatement apres le payement du dit ſomme convenu, ſera relaché et mais en entiere & pleine liberté de retourner dans ſon païs, ou partout ou il trouveras apropos) promettant de ne point contrevenir aux conditions du preſent traité, dont nous avons (avec les dit otage) reciprocament ſigné, abord du dit armateur, cè troſieme jour du Septembre de 1746.

PRIZES. The duty of poundage is payable (after the rate of *five per cent.* of the value upon oath) for ſhips taken as prize, and regularly condemned in the court of Admiralty; but it is the practice not to charge them with any other duty whatſoever.

Ships legally condemned are, to all intents and purpoſes, to be deemed Britiſh built ſhips, and to enjoy all the ſame rights, liberties, privileges, and advantages in all reſpects whatſoever. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 45. *f.* 9. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *f.* 18.

Ships and goods already taken, or which ſhall be taken (during the preſent war) and brought or imported into this kingdom, are not to be exempted from the payment of any cuſtoms or duties, nor from being ſubject to ſuch reſtrictions and regulations, to which the ſame are now, or ſhall hereafter be liable, by virtue of the laws of this kingdom. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *f.* 17.

All captures brought into any of his majeſty's colonies or plantations in America (during the preſent war) ſhall, without breaking bulk, be under the joint care and cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms, or naval-officers, and the captors, or their agents, until by final ſentence they are either cleared, or condemned as lawful prize, or delivered by interlocutory order from the court of Admiralty. 29 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 34. *ſect.* 5.

PROCTOR. The youth intended for this profeſſion ought to have a liberal education, and if he is not poſſeſſed of incorruptible integrity, founded upon the ſolid baſis of the amiable principles of virtue and piety, he ſhould not enter upon a ſtation where he will be ſurrounded with temptations, and where his complying with them may render him a very dangerous member of ſociety. A proctor is, in the ſpiritual court, what an attorney is in common law; and to qualify himſelf to give the beſt advice to his clients, he ſhould make himſelf acquainted with the principal branches of the civil and canon law, and ſhould be verſed in the writs and different methods of proceeding in different courts. He ſhould be able to take informations from the clients; to put their ſuits in motion; to prepare briefs for the counſel with conciſeneſs, and to place the facts in a ſtrong light; and it is his buſineſs to conduct the affair till it comes to a final iſſue. In ſhort, he ought to have money to prevent his being obliged to trouble his client upon every occaſion, and ſuch honeſty as not to ſpin out the proceſs to an unneceſſary length. With theſe qualifications, the proctor will have a much ſurer and ſafer way to ſucceſs, than he could meet with by practiſing all the baſe arts of chicanery.

PROHIBITED GOODS, in commerce, are ſuch goods as are not allowed to be either exported or imported.

PROMISE, is when, upon a valuable conſideration, we bind ourſelves by our words to do or perform ſuch an act as is agreed upon and concluded, upon which an action may be grounded; whereas, if it be without conſideration, it is called *nudum pactum*, *ex quo non oritur actio.*

If promiſes are executory on both ſides, performance need not be averred; becauſe it is the counter-promiſe, and not the performance, that raiſes the conſideration, 4 *Mod.* 189. Where a promiſe is made to do a thing, and there is no breach of it, the ſame may be diſcharged by parol; but if it be once broken, it cannot be diſcharged without releaſe in writing, being then a debt. 1 *Mod. Rep.* 206. 2 *Mod.* 44. And when an action is grounded on a promiſe, payment or ſome other legal diſcharge muſt be pleaded. 1 *Mod.* 210. If a promiſe be to pay a ſum of money by ſeveral monthly payments, the promiſe being intire, a breach of payment of the firſt month is a breach of the whole promiſe. 2 *Roll. Rep.* 47.

PROMISSORY NOTES. *See* NOTES.

PROOF, is the ſhewing the truth of any matter alledged. Bracton ſays, there is *probatio duplex*, viz. *viva*, as by witneſſes, *viva voce*; and *mortua*, by deeds, writings, &c. A wife cannot be produced either againſt or for her huſband.

Where a man ſpeaks generally of proof, it ſhall be intended of proof by a jury; as for inſtance, in debt on a bond conditioned to pay ſo much within ſix months after his return from Venice, and proving it, which he did under the hand of the doge himſelf; but it was held to be no good proof, for it ought to be by a jury. 3 *Bulſt.* 56. *Glemham* v. *Brown.* 6 *Rep.* 20. in *Gregory's Caſe*, S. P. *Moor* 113. *contra per Manwood.*

But where the defendant was bound to pay the plaintiff ten pounds within ten days after his return from Jeruſalem, he proving that he had been there; in this caſe it was adjudged, that the plaintiff need not make any proof before he brings his action; for it could not be done by jury in ſo ſhort a time as ten days after his return; for where a particular form of proof is directed, or how it ſhall be made, there the plaintiff may bring his action, and aver that the thing was done, and the defendant may take iſſue that it was not done, and then the plaintiff muſt prove the doing it. 1 *Brownl.* 57. *Sturges* v. *Dean.* *Brownl.* 33. S. P. *Paſch.* 14 *Jac. Cro. Eliz.* 205. 2 *Cro.* 232. S. P.

The condition of a bond was to pay all ſuch money, or make ſatisfaction within three months after due proof made, either by the confeſſion of the apprentice, or otherwiſe, for any wares or goods, that he ſhall waſte during his apprenticeſhip, &c. In an action of debt brought on this bond, the defendant pleaded that the plaintiff had not proved, that the apprentice had waſted any of his goods before this action brought; the plaintiff replied, that the apprentice, &c. had waſted four hundred pounds value of his goods, and that by a writing under his hand he had confeſſed the ſame, &c. And upon demurrer, it was objected, that the confeſſion ought to have been upon an action at law brought againſt the apprentice, or that the proof ought to have been upon a trial at law, becauſe the law regards no other proof, but that which is on record; but adjudged, and affirmed in error in the Exchequer-chamber, that though generally proof ſhall be intended to be made at a trial by the jury, yet in this caſe it being referred to the confeſſion of the party, it is ſufficient if he confeſſes it under his hand, which confeſſion ſhall not be binding to the obligee, but *prima facit*, it ſhall be a good proof. 2 *Cro.* 381. *Gold* v. *Death.* *Hab.* 92. S. C. *Moor* 145. S. C. 888. S. C. 1 *Rol. Rep.* 222, 261. 2 *Rol. Rep.* 40. *Lee* v. *Finch* S. P.

Debt was brought upon a bond, with the like condition as that before-mentioned; the defendant pleaded that no proof was made by the confeſſion of the apprentice, or otherwiſe, that

that he had embezzled any goods; the plaintiff replied, that ſuch a day proof was made, and that on the ſame day the plaintiff gave notice thereof to the defendant, but he had not made ſatisfaction; and upon demurrer to this replication, the defendant had judgment, becauſe the condition of the bond, being that if the apprentice embezzle the goods, &c. and it be ſufficiently proved, it is not ſufficient for the plaintiff to ſay that proof was made, but he ought to alledge *in facto*, that the apprentice did embezzle &c. beſides, he did not alledge how the proof was made; for, in truth, it ought to be in this action, becauſe the defendant had three months time to make ſatisfaction after proof made, and notice given thereof. 2 *Cro.* 488. *Leigh* v. *Fidges*. *Hab.* 217. *Crookhay* v. *Woodward*. S. P. 1 *Bulſt.* 40. S. C.

The plaintiff and defendant diſcourſing about a wager, the plaintiff ſaid it was won by deceit; the defendant replied, give me a ſhilling, and if you can prove that it was won by me by deceit, I will give you five pounds for it; in an action on the cauſe brought againſt the defendant upon his promiſe to pay the five pounds, the plaintiff alledged *in facto*, that he had got the wager by deceit; and it was adjudged, that he need not make any other proof of it, but in this action. 2 *Bulſt.* 56. *Cragg* v. *Griffin*.

The maſters and clothworkers of Ipſwich brought debt upon a by-law, which was, that no perſon ſhould exerciſe the art of a clothworker or taylor, within the ſaid town, unleſs he made proof before them, or any two of them, that he had been apprentice to the trade for ſeven years; it was adjudged, that this proof could not be upon oath, becauſe the corporation had not power to adminiſter an oath; and if ſo, then the proof muſt be by the indentures of apprenticeſhip and witneſſes; and probably the corporation may not allow ſuch proof, and there the party can have no remedy againſt the corporation, but an action at law, and in the mean time he muſt loſe his trade, which is his maintenance, for which reaſon the by-law was held void. *Godb.* 253. *Ipſwich Clothworkers Caſe.*

Debt for two hundred pounds, upon non-performance of articles, in which the plaintiff ſet forth the articles, &c. and for the due performance of all the agreements, we bind ourſelves (but did not ſay to whom) in two hundred pounds to be forfeited, upon due proof of any part of theſe articles on either ſide, but did not ſay upon the proof of the breach of the articles; upon demurrer to this declaration, it was objected, that there ought to be ſome collateral proof of a breach of theſe articles, and that the proof ought to be in the action now brought; as to this matter the law is, that where a man is bound to prove a thing generally, without referring to time, place, or perſon, as in the principal caſe, there it muſt be by a jury in the ſame action; but where the parties by any agreement among themſelves, allow another manner of proof, that ſhall prevail againſt the legal conſtruction of the word proof, (viz.) by jury. 2 *Lutw.* 436. *Watts* v. *Pitts.*

Debt on a bond, dated the 22d day of Auguſt, conditioned to pay ten ſhillings for every twenty ſhillings, which the plaintiff ſhall by ſufficient reaſon make appear to be owing to him from J. K. and to pay one-half of it on the 25th day of November following. The defendant pleaded, that the plaintiff did not make it appear that J. K. owed him any money; the plaintiff replied, that before the ſaid 25th day of November he and the ſaid J. K. accounted, who then acknowledged that he owed the plaintiff three hundred and ten pounds; and upon demurrer to this replication, it was objected, that this was not a legal proof of the debt, for the law knows no other proof, but before a jury in a judicial way: but adjudged, that the confeſſion, or acknowledgement of J. K. was a ſufficient proof, and that it would have been ſo, if the action had not been brought againſt J. K. himſelf.

PROPERTY, is the higheſt right that a man hath, or can have to any thing, and no ways depending upon any other man's courteſy. And there are three manner of rights of property, that is, property abſolute, property qualified, and property poſſeſſory.

If a man hires a horſe for a particular time to ride ſuch a journey, he hath a ſpecial property in the horſe during that time againſt all men, even againſt the right owner, who cannot juſtify the taking it during the time it was hired for, though upon a pretence of the other's intending to cozen him of his horſe, or to ride him to any other place than was agreed upon. *Cro. Jac.* 236. *pl.* 7. *Hill.* 7 *Jac.* B. R. *Lee* v. *Atkinſon* and *Brooks*. *Brownl.* 217. S. C. and P. *Yelv.* 72. S. C. and P.

A goldſmith has lottery-tickets of A. and B, and delivers A's tickets to B for his own. A may maintain trover againſt B. This was no change of the property, or any conſideration; for though the goldſmith had power from the owner to receive money for the tickets, yet he had no power to exchange them for other tickets. *Per Holt.* Ch. J. 1 *Salk.* 283. *Hill.* 12 *Will.* III. B. R. *Ford* v. *Hopkins.*

A by articles agrees to pay B thirty-five pounds for every hundred ſacks of wood lying in ſuch a wood, and ſo for as many more as ſhould be felled till Michaelmas following. Agreed *per cur.* that ſo much a hundred by retail was the ſame thing; and that here either party may tell them out, and that if he that told them had told them wrong, then the other might ſhew that, and join iſſue upon it; and that the property of every hundred that was cut at the time of the agreement did veſt in the plaintiff, and ſo of the reſt as they were cut down. *Farr.* 88. *Mich.* 1 *Ann.* B. R. *Grips* v. *Ingledew.* 2 *Salk.* 658. S. C.

If I requeſt B to buy a gelding for me, and promiſe to repay B again, and B buys the gelding for me accordingly; B may have an action againſt me for this money upon my promiſe, and I may take the gelding; and before my taking him, the property is not in B who bought him to my uſe, but in me, who requeſted B to buy the gelding for me. *Per tot. cur. Bulſt.* 169. *Trin.* 9 *Jac.* I. in caſe of *Moor* v. *Moor*. See 18 *Vin. Abr. Tit. Property.*

PROTECTION, hath a general and eſpecial ſignification: in the general, it is uſed for that benefit and ſafety, which every ſubject, denizen or alien, eſpecially ſecured, hath by the king's laws, and ſo it is uſed 25 *Ed.* III. *c.* 22. Protection in the ſpecial ſignification, is uſed for an exemption or immunity given by the king to a perſon againſt ſuits of law, or other vexations, upon reaſonable cauſes him thereunto moving, which is a branch of his prerogative.

Fines to be paid in the Exchequer for protections to perſons beyond ſea. *St. de Libert. perquir.* 27 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 2.

Protection may be challenged for that the party is out of the king's ſervice. *St. de Protect.* 33 *Edw.* I. *ſtat.* 1.

The king's debtor may be ſued by another creditor, notwithſtanding the king's protection, and if the plaintiff will undertake for the king's debt, he ſhall have execution. 25 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 5. *c.* 19.

Not to be allowed for debts contracted after the date. 1 *Rich.* II. *c.* 8. *See* PASSPORTS.

PROTEST, hath two divers applications; one is by way of caution, to call witneſſes (as it were) or openly affirm, that he doth either not at all, or but conditionally yield his conſent to any act, or unto the proceeding of a judge in a court, wherein his juriſdiction is doubtful, or to anſwer upon his oath further than by law he is bound. The other is by way of complaint, as to proteſt a man's bill. For example, if I give money to a merchant in France, taking his bill of exchange to be repaid in England, by one whom he aſſigneth; if at my coming, I find not myſelf ſatisfied, but either delayed or denied, then I go to the Exchange, or open concourſe of merchants, and proteſt, that I am not paid; and thereupon, if he hath any goods remaining in any man's hands within the realm, the law of merchants is, that I be paid out of them to my full ſatisfaction. *See* BILLS *of Exchange.*

PROTOTYPE, the original or model whereby a thing is formed.

It chiefly denotes the patterns of things to be engraved, caſt, &c.

PROVENCE. This province is very fertile in wine, olives, ſaffron, oranges, lemons, prunes, almonds, nuts, pomegranates, and all ſorts of excellent fruit; and here is alſo gathered a very great quantity of ſilk and wool: of the olives is made large quantities of the ſweeteſt oil, beſides thoſe pickled, for which the Provencials have the beſt method yet known. Their muſcatel wines of St. Laurent and Cioutat exceed any thing of that nature, and add to the delights of the beſt tables: the raiſins, wherewith theſe wines are made, and particularly thoſe gathered about Roquevaire and Auriol, are excellent in their kind, as the figs are dried here of two ſorts, and no part of the world comfit their fruits in that perfection as here. The great

number

number of the mulberry-trees, with which this province abounds, enables the natives to breed vaſt quantities of ſilk worms, and thereby procure large crops of their precious webs. The ſoap, particularly that of Marſeilles and Toulon, is in very good repute, though generally allowed to be inferior to that ſhipped at Alicante in Spain. There are in Provence ſixty paper-mills, where many ſorts of this commodity are made; and the tanneries are many and very conſiderable. The country wools are employed in divers manufactures of ſtuffs, and many fabrics of hats; the latter at Aix, Marſeilles, Toulon, and in the principality of Orange; and the former at Toulon, la Roque, Meuve, Solieres, Cuers, Pequanto, Camoulles, Luc, Draguignan, and at Lorgues, though a great part of theſe are made of Spaniſh wool, pure and unmixed: at Gordes, Apt, Ayquiers, Auriol, Signe, Colmars, and Digne, are likewiſe made ſome corded and other ſtuffs, as there are at Arles and Grignan, of other ſpecies: in this province alſo are many hammers for copper-work, which are all the commodities it furniſhes to trade.

PROW, *prora*, in navigation, denotes the head, or fore-part of a ſhip, particularly in a galley, being that which is oppoſite to the poop or ſtern.

In the middle of the prow is the beak that cuts the water, on the top of which is commonly ſome figure or hieroglyphic.

The prow is lower than the poop, and contains fewer decks.

PRUNELLÆ SAL, in pharmacy, a preparation of purified ſalt-petre, called alſo *lapis prunellæ*, and cryſtal mineral. It is done by throwing the thirtieth part of its weight of flower of brimſtone upon the ſaltpetre, when melted in a crucible over the fire, whereby ſome of the more volatile parts of the ſaltpetre are abſorbed.

It is given to cool and provoke urine in fevers and quinſies; though ſome think that ſaltpetre purified three or four times would be a better medicine.

PRUNES, *pruna*, plums dried and baked in an oven, or in the ſun.

The prunes chiefly uſed among us are black and large, brought from France, eſpecially Bourdeaux. The juice is eſteemed laxative.

PRUSSIA. *See* COURLAND, KONIGSBERG.

PUBLIC ACCOUNTS. Commiſſioners are to inquire of the accounts of ſheriffs, cuſtomers, and other the king's officers, after paſſed in the Exchequer, and if detected of any fraud, they ſhall pay treble damages, by *ſtat.* 6 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 1. and all the lands, tenements, and hereditaments, which any accountant hath, ſhall for the payment of debts to the crown, be liable, and put in execution in like manner as if he had ſtood bound by writing obligatory, having the effect of a ſtatute ſtaple, &c. *ſtat.* 13 *Eliz. c.* 4. and there have been ſeveral ſtatutes for taking the public accounts of the kingdom, and examining and determining the debts due to the army and navy; alſo corruptions in the management of the king's treaſure, &c. impowering commiſſioners for that purpoſe, who were to give an account of their proceedings to the king and parliament. *Stat.* 2 *Will.* and *Mar.* 1 *Ann.* 2 *Geo.* I. &c.

PUBLISHER. The publiſher advertiſes pamphlets, enters them at the ſtamp-office, folds, ſtitches, and publiſhes them for ſuch gentlemen as print them at their own expence, and for the bookſellers who do not chuſe to ſet their names to them. They alſo ſometimes publiſh bound books for the bookſellers, and ſome news-papers; they likewiſe purchaſe copies, and publiſh them at their own expence; but they ſeldom or never take apprentices.

PUGIL, *pugillus*, in phyſic, &c. ſuch a quantity of flowers, ſeeds, or the like, as may be taken up between the thumb and two fore-fingers.

It is eſteemed to be the eighth part of the manipule or handful.

PUMICE-STONE, in natural hiſtory, is generally ranked by authors among the native ſtones, but very erroneouſly; there are indeed native ſtones, which in their native ſtate are of a lax, ſpongy, and cavernous ſtructure, and which, reſembling pumices, have been by authors of no great accuracy confounded with them; but what we properly call the pumice, is evidently a ſlag or cinder of ſome foſſil originally bearing another form, and only reduced to this ſtate by the violent action of fire.

It is a lax and ſpongy matter, frequently of an obſcurely ſtriated texture in many parts, and always very cavernous and full of holes; it is hard and harſh to the touch, and is much lighter than any other body that comes under the claſs of ſtones. It is found in maſſes of different ſizes, and of a perfectly irregular ſhape; they are often roundiſh, but more uſually flatted, and are full of little holes and cavities, not only within, but on the ſurface. They are found from the bigneſs of a pigeon's egg to that of a buſhel; but the more uſual ſtandard is between the ſize of a man's fiſt, and eight or ten inches in diameter. In colour it is of a pale whitiſh grey, and in the purer pieces, when freſh broken, it looks very bright and ſilvery, eſpecially in thoſe parts where it appears ſtriated. It is moderately hard, but falls to pieces with a ſmart blow, and is eaſily reduced to powder. It is harſh and gritty between the teeth, and is of a manifeſtly ſaline taſte, but that it owes wholly to the ſalt it has imbibed from the ſea-water, what we have imported being always ſuch as has been collected about the ſea-ſhores.

The pumice will not ferment with any acid, nor ſuffer any change in the fire, it having already ſtood a much greater force of that element than we are able eaſily to expoſe it to. We ought to chuſe for medicinal purpoſes the paleſt coloured, cleaneſt, and lighteſt maſſes, and ſuch as moſt eaſily fall to powder in the mortar.

The pumice is found in many parts of the world, but particularly about the burning mountains, Ætna, Veſuvius, and Hecla. Many parts of Germany abound with it, and with a kind of tophus, a native ſtone of a ſpongy ſtructure, ſo very like the pumice, that it is frequently miſtaken for it, and ſold under its name. The difference, however, is very obvious, for this falſe pumice has nothing of that ſharpneſs between the fingers, which the true pumice always has. Beſides the places where the pumice is naturally produced, it is found in many others to which it has been carried by the winds and ſeas, when it has been thrown up in vaſt abundance in the eruptions of thoſe mountains, and by its lightneſs ſupported in the air, while carried into ſeas at ſome diſtance by the winds, and thence to very diſtant ſhores. Wherever there have been or are volcanos, there may be pumices left in large quantities; many of the places where heaps of them are found at great diſtances from any burning mountain, may have been heretofore the places of eruptions, and even many of thoſe, found in the moſt diſtant ſeas, may have been thrown up by volcanos burſting from the bottom of the ſea itſelf, as in the formation of the new iſland near Santorim, where an immenſe quantity of calcined matter, much of the nature of the pumice, was raiſed by ſuch an event about the ſurface of the ſea, and remains an iſland to this time.

That all true genuine pumices have been reduced to the ſtate in which we find them by the action of fire, ſeems very evident. Indeed, when we conſider the force of the fire in the places where they are found, it is not eaſy to conceive how any foſſil that comes in its way ſhould ſtand it, ſo little altered from its nature as the pumice ſhews itſelf to be: but, though it is eaſy to determine that the pumice is a calcined ſtone, it is not ſo eaſy to ſay what ſtone it is under that ſtate. The ancient Grecks, who were at leaſt as well acquainted with the nature of the pumice as we are, ſuppoſed it to be the *lapis Arabicus*, a kind of ſtriated ſtone of a cryſtalline baſis, found at this time in the iſlands of the Archipelago, and in the Eaſt-Indies, reduced to this ſtate by ſubterranean fire. But we cannot conceive how any ſtone of a cryſtalline baſis could be altered ſo much, without being altered much more by fire. It rather ſeems probable, that, deep in the earth from whence theſe volcanos burſt forth, there are maſſes of a ſtony matter approaching to the aſbeſtus kind, and that theſe, after having been calcined in theſe terrible fires, at length are thrown up in this form.

The Greeks were well acquainted with this ſtone; they knew ſo much of its hiſtory, as that it was no where found ſo abundantly as in the openings of the burning mountains; and they preferred the pumices, found there, to thoſe met with on our ſhores.

The great uſe of the pumice among the ancients ſeems to have been as a dentifice, and at preſent it is retained in the ſhops principally on the ſame account, though it were to be wiſhed that this, and every thing of the ſame kind, were baniſhed from all compoſitions of this intention, as they

they cut off the enamel of the teeth, which renders them liable much ſooner to decay.

PUMP-MAKER. Thoſe of this buſineſs make pumps and wooden pipes for the conveyance of water from one place to another. The common pump conſiſts of a cylinder or pipe, a ſucker, and handle; but will not raiſe water above thirty-two feet. The pump-maker forms only thoſe of wood bored, for the uſe of diſtillers, brewers, ſhipping, &c. It is hard work, and requires more ſtrength than ingenuity or learning. The maſters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; the journeymen, who work from ſix to ſix, have twelve or fifteen ſhillings a week. They may ſet up maſter with fifty pounds, though ſome employ above two hundred pounds in the buſineſs.

PUNCH, an inſtrument of ſteel uſed in ſeveral arts for the piercing or ſtamping holes in plates of metal, &c. being ſo contrived as generally not only to perforate, but to cut the piece.

It alſo denotes a tool which is made of figures for the chaiſers, whereby they raiſe and finiſh the figures and ornaments which they make on watch-caſes, &c.

PUNCHEON, *punchion*, *punchin*, a little piece of ſteel, on one end whereof is ſome figure, letter, mark, &c. engraved either in creux or relievo; impreſſions of which are taken on metal, or ſome other matter, by ſtriking it with a hammer, on the end not engraved.

There are various kinds of theſe puncheons uſed in the mechanical arts, ſuch as thoſe of the goldſmiths, cutlers, pewterers, &c.

PUNCHION, in coining, is a piece of iron ſteeled, whereon are engraved in relievo the ſeveral figures, effigy, inſcription, &c. that are to be in the matrices wherewith the ſpecies are to be marked. *See* COINING.

PUNCHIONS, in printing, are thoſe uſed in ſtamping the matrices, wherein the types of printing characters are caſt.

PUNCHION, alſo denotes ſeveral iron tools of various ſizes and figures, uſed by the engravers in creux on metals.

It is alſo a common name for all iron inſtruments uſed by ſtone-cutters, ſculptors, lockſmiths, &c. for cutting, inciding, or piercing their ſeveral matters.

The lockſmiths uſe the greateſt variety of punchions; ſome for piercing hot, ſome for piercing cold, ſome flat, ſome ſquare, &c.

PUNCHION, is alſo a meaſure for liquids, containing eighty-four gallons, or one third of a tun.

The Paris punchion is the ſame with their demi-queue: at Rouen, it is three buſhels, &c.

PURIFICATION, in chemiſtry, the act of refining natural bodies, or ſeparating the impurities therefrom.

*Purification of Mercury.* The beſt method of purifying mercury is that practiſed by the refiners, &c. which is, to inſert obliquely a gun-barrel into a round body of iron near the top, the end of which muſt be ſo bent, as to admit of its being immerged in a veſſel of water; the round body being charged with mercury, by a hole made in the top, (which hole muſt be afterwards ſecured with lute) may be placed in an open fire; the end of the pipe being immerged in the veſſel of water, the diſtillation may be performed, by which means the mercury will be purified, without the leaſt trouble.

PURPLE, *purpura*, a red colour bordering on violet, dyed chiefly with cochineal or ſcarlet in grain.

Purple was much eſteemed among the ancients; eſpecially the Tyrian purple, which underwent more dyes than the reſt, and which was almoſt peculiar to emperors and kings: yet this purple did not exceed that now in uſe; the chief reaſons why the former has been diſuſed, are, that the latter is both cheaper and finer.

The ancient purple was tinged or given with the blood or juice of a precious turbinated teſtaceous ſea-fiſh, called by the Greeks πορφυρα, and by the Latins *purpura*; whereof we have deſcriptions in ſeveral authors, and ſhells in moſt of the cabinets of the curious.

In the ſeas of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies about Nicoya, is found a ſhell-fiſh, which perfectly reſembles the ancient purpura, and in all probability is the very ſame: this fiſh, Gage tells us, uſually lives ſeven years; it hides itſelf a little before the dog-days, and continues to diſappear for three hundred days running.

They are gathered plentifully in the ſpring, and, by rubbing one againſt another, yield a kind of ſaliva or thick glair, reſembling ſoft wax: but the purple dye is in the throat of the fiſh, and the fineſt part in a little white vein; the reſt of the body is of no uſe. He adds, that the chief riches of Nicoya conſiſt in this fiſh. Cloth of Segovia, dyed with it, is ſold for twenty crowns the ell; and none but the greateſt Spaniſh lords uſe it.

Beſides the Indian purple fiſhes, we have others much nearer home. In the Philoſoph. Tranſact. we have an account of a purple fiſh diſcovered in 1686 by Mr. W. Cole, on the coaſts of Somerſetſhire, South-Wales, &c. where it is found in great abundance.

This fiſh, Mr. Reaumur obſerves, is a kind of buccinum, a name given by the ancients to all fiſhes whoſe ſhell bears any reſemblance to a hunting-horn; and it appears from Pliny, that part of the ancient purple was taken from this kind of ſhell-fiſh; ſo that this may be eſteemed a recovery of what had been ſuppoſed intirely loſt.

The method of obtaining the colour the author deſcribes thus: the ſhell, which is very hard, being broken (with the mouth of the fiſh downwards, ſo as not to cruſh the body) and the broken pieces being picked off, there appears a white vein lying tranſverſely in a little furrow or cleft next the head of the fiſh.

In this vein is the purple matter lodged; ſome of which, being laid on linen, appears at firſt of a light green colour; and, if expoſed to the ſun, ſoon changes into a deep green, and in a few minutes into a ſea-green, and in a few more into a blue; thence it ſoon becomes of a purpliſh red, and in an hour more of a deep purple red.

And here the ſun's action terminates; but by waſhing in ſcalding water and ſoap, and drying it, the colour ripens to a moſt bright beautiful crimſon, which will bear waſhing admirably without any ſtyptic.

The fiſh, he obſerves, is good food; and adds, that there are ſeveral kinds differing in ſize and ſhell, and alſo in the colour of the tinging liquor. There are ſome found on the coaſts of Poictou.

Mr. Reaumur has diſcovered another very different kind of purple. It is produced in oval grains about a quarter of an inch long, and about one thick, full of a white liquor bordering on yellow, which cover certain ſtones or ſands, about which the buccina of Poictou uſually aſſemble.

By the experiments Mr. Reaumur has made, it appears that theſe grains are neither the eggs of the buccinum, nor the ſeeds of any ſea-plants, nor any riſing plants, but the eggs of ſome other unknown fiſh.

Theſe grains, being bruiſed on white linen, at firſt only tinge it yellow, and that inſenſibly; but in three or four minutes give it a very beautiful purple red, provided the linen be expoſed to the open air; for the air of a room, even though the windows be open, will not do. This colour fades a little by repeated waſhings.

Mr. Reaumur concludes from ſome experiments he made, that the effect of air on the liquor does not conſiſt in its taking away any particles thereof, nor in giving it any new ones, but only in its agitating it, and changing the arrangement of the parts that compoſe it. He adds, that the liquor of the buccinum, and that of the grains, ſeem to be nearly of the ſame nature; except that the latter is more watery, and only ſaline, whereas the other is hot and pungent.

PURSE, a manner of accounting money, much uſed in the Levant, particularly at Conſtantinople. *See* COIN, MONEY.

PURSER, an officer on board king's ſhips, Eaſt-Indiamen, &c. who is intruſted and charged with the proviſions, beer, water, caſks, &c. of the ſhip, and all the ſtores thereto belonging. He is to ſee the proviſions received on board and ſtowed carefully, the men ſerved their daily allowance, and the oldeſt proviſions expended firſt; and is accountable to the government for any part of the proviſions and ſtores as ſhall be loſt through his neglect or ill conduct. He is to provide the ſhips with coals, wood, turnery-ware, candles, lanthorns, &c. He likewiſe is charged with the cloaths and effects of people who die on board; and he ſells the ſame at the maſt to the reſt of the crew, and is obliged to give a ſatisfactory account of the ſame to the executors. He is to keep a very regular muſter-book for the ſlop-cloaths, ſea-victualling, ſhort-allowance, &c. the men have been ſupplied with. He

may ſell tobacco to the ſea-men, not exceeding two pounds *per* month to a man, at the rate ſettled by the navy-board. He is to keep a ſick book for thoſe ſent out of the ſhip. He is to paſs his accounts within ſix months after the ſhip is paid off at fartheſt, &c.

PUTTY, denotes the pnwder of calcined tin, uſed in poliſhing, and giving the laſt glofs to works of iron and ſteel.

It alſo denotes SPODIUM, which *ſee*.

*Putty* is a kind of paſte compounded of whiting and linſeed oil beaten together to the conſiſtence of a tough dough; which glaziers uſe to faſten on the ſquares of glaſs in faſh-windows, &c. and houſe-painters to ſtop up crevices in wainſcot.

PYRETHRUM, *pellitory of Spain*, in natural hiſtory. We meet with two different roots in our ſhops under this name, and much reſembling each other in their qualities, and the plants they belnng to: but other nations add a third very different from the other two.

That commonly ſold by our druggiſts is a ſmall, firm, oblong, wrinkled root, tapering from the top to the other end.

Pyrethrum was well known to the ancients; we have it from the Eaſt, principally from Tunis. This plant is one of the *ſyngenevia polygamia ſuperflua* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ corimbiferæ* of Mr. Ray. The whole habit of this plant ſomewhat reſembles camomile.

The Eaſtern nations uſe a great deal of this root, and preſerve it, while freſh, as the Indians do ginger; and it is ſent in this ſtate to Cairo, Conſtantinople, &c. where it is eſteemed an excellent medicine in cholics, and diſeaſes of the breaſt: the other kind of pyrethrum may be always diſtinguiſhed from the former by its ſmallneſs, and the paleneſs of its colour.

Pyrethrum, of either of theſe two kinds, is violently acrid and pungent. Taken into the mouth, it opens the ſalival ducts, whereby it does great ſervice in the tooth-ach, and in ſome diſorders of the head. It vellicates the nerves, and ſometimes aſſiſts in opening their obſtructions; and hence is given in ſleepy diſeaſes, apoplexies, and palſies of the tongue; being ordered to be chewed and held in the mouth. It is ſometimes added to clyſters given in apoplectic and lethargic caſes; the quantity is half a drachm, or more, added to the uſual decoction for a clyſter. It has been made an ingredient in ſternutatory powders, and was long ſo, likewiſe, in the *philonium Romanum*; but the preſent diſpenſatory omits it.

PYRITES, the fire-ſtone, in natural hiſtory, a compound metallic foſſil, always compoſed of vitriol, ſulphur, and an unmetallic earth; by containing theſe ſeveral ingredients in very different proportions in the ſeveral maſſes, and often having others mixed with them, it appears in very different forms in its ſeveral ſtates, ſometimes in larger, ſometimes in ſmaller maſſes, and theſe, ſometimes, of a granulated or ſimple uniform ſtructure, ſometimes regularly ſtriated. Some of them are found naked in the earth, and others covered with a cruſt of a ferrugineous matter; in ſome the ſtriæ terminate in a ſmooth ſurface, and in others they run into plates at their ends, ſhewing themſelves either on the ſurface, or in the hollows of the maſs.

Theſe are the principal varieties of the pyritæ of indeterminate figures; but, beſide theſe, we meet with maſſes of them regularly figured and angular: ſome of theſe are cubic, or compoſed of ſix planes, others of an octohedral, and others of a dodecahedral figure: the octohedral ones very much reſemble the figure of the rough diamond in its moſt perfect ſtate, being compoſed of two ſhort quadrilateral pyramids applied baſe to baſe. All this variety of bodies are much the ſame in their conſtituent matter, and all come not improperly under the name of pyrites. What the authors that have treated of the *materia medica*, ſeem to have had in their view in their deſcription of the pyrites, ſeems to have been the common greeniſh ſhapeleſs kind, found in our clay-pits, out of which the green vitriol or copperas is procured: this, therefore, is the true pyrites of the ſhops.

This is the moſt common of all the pyritæ, and appears to us under the greateſt variety of forms, of any foſſil of this kind. It is a denſe, firm, hard body, of an even and uniform ſtructure, neither ſtriated nor granulated, and is of a very remarkable weight. It is moſt uſually found in flat maſſes of uneven ſurfaces, and from one inch to ten, or more, in length, of various breadths and thickneſſes. Sometimes, however, it is found in roundiſh maſſes like pebbles, and ſometimes in irregularly protuberant ones, like our common flints. The ſurfaces of theſe bodies are always ſmooth, and in this ſtate it is never covered with any coat or cruſt. Its colour is duſky greeniſh, with ſomewhat of a ſilvery caſt among it. It has its name from pyrites, or fire-ſtone, from its giving fire on its being ſtruck againſt ſteel: it does this much more freely than a flint will do, and all the ſparks burn a longer time, and grow larger as they fall, the inflammable matter, ſtruck from off the ſtone, burning itſelf out before the ſpark becomes extinguiſhed. It will not ferment with any acid, nor is there any known ſolvent for it in its natural ſtate; but after it has been ſomewhat expoſed to the air, it begins to ſhoot, and at length becomes covered with efflorescences of vitriol, ſoon after which it falls to pieces.

It is found in our clay-pits, and under the cliffs of the ſea-ſhore, where there are ſtrata of this kind of clay in very great abundance, and that not only in its native form, as we have here deſcribed it, but in that of foſſil wood, of ſyringoides, and caſts of ſhells of various kinds, particularly of the ſmaller buccina. In any of theſe forms it is the ſame ſubſtance, and will ſerve for all the ſame purpoſes. It is recommended by ſome authors as an emmenagogue, but it is very injudicious to give it in this intention: what virtues it has of this kind, can be only owing to the ſalt of iron or green vitriol it contains, and it is much better to give that alone, than in ſuch mixtures as it has in this foſſil. The common green vitriol, or copperas of the ſhops, is made from this foſſil, and an acid, ſomewhat different from that of pure vitriol, may be drawn from it by the retort, after it has been expoſed to the air till it moulders away; this is of great uſe in mineralogy, and is a ſolvent for ſeveral foſſils, that none of the other acids will touch.

Pyrites is alſo applied, by ſome, to the marcaſites of all metals, the names whereof are varied, according to the metals they partake of.

# Q.

## QUA

Q A conſonant, and the ſixteenth letter of the alphabet.

Q Among the ancients, it was a numeral denoting five hundred, and with a daſh over it, ſignified five hundred thouſand.

Q is alſo uſed as an abbreviature, as in phyſician's recipes. *Q. pl.* denotes *quantum placet*, as much as you will. *Q. S. quantum ſufficit*, or as much as is neceſſary, and Q. denotes quantity.

QUADRANS, a farthing, or fourth part of a penny. Obſerve, that before the reign of *Edw.* I. the ſmalleſt coin was a ſterling or penny, marked with a croſs or tranſverſe ſtrokes, by the guidance whereof a penny upon occaſion, might be cut into halves for a half-penny, or into quarters for farthings or fourth parts, till, to avoid the fraud of unequally cutting, king *Edw.* I. coined half-pence and farthings in round diſtinct pieces. *See Matth. Weſtminſter ſub anno* 1279.

QUADRANT, denotes a mathematical inſtrument in navigation, aſtronomy, &c. for taking of altitudes, angles, &c. It is variouſly contrived, according to the various uſes it is intended for; but they all have this in common, that they conſiſt of a quarter of a circle, whoſe limb is divided into ninety degrees; ſome have a plummet ſuſpended from the center, and furniſhed with pinnulæ, or ſights to look through.

The principal and moſt uſeful quadrants, are the common or ſurveying quadrants, aſtronomical quadrant, Cole's quadrant, Davis's quadrant, Hadley's quadrant, horodictical quadrant, Gunter's quadrant, Sutton's or Collins's quadrant, and the ſinical quadrant.

QUADRUPLE, particularly denotes a gold coin, as the quadruple of the Spaniſh piſtole is a piece of four piſtoles, worth about three pounds twelve ſhillings ſterling, called alſo double doubloon.

The quadruple of the louis d'or is only equal to two louis d'ors or French piſtoles, or one pound thirteen ſhillings ſterling.

QUAKERS. Their affirmation and declaration allowed by 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 34. and 13 and 14 *Will.* III. *c.* 4. to be accepted inſtead of an oath, in all caſes where by law an oath is required, continued for ever. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1, 2. The ſaid affirmation or declaration to be in theſe words, I A B, do ſolemnly, ſincerely, and truly declare and affirm, that, &c. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 2. Such ſolemn affirmation or declaration is to be adjudged to be of the ſame force and effect in all caſes, as if an oath had been taken in the uſual form. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 2.

Convicted of a wilful, falſe, and corrupt affirmation or declaration, are to ſuffer as for wilful and corrupt perjury. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 3.

QUANTUM VALEBANT, is where goods and wares ſold are delivered by a tradeſman at no certain price, or to be paid for them as much as they are worth in general; then quantum valebant lies, and the plaintiff is to aver them to be worth ſo much; ſo where the law obliges one to furniſh another with goods or proviſions, as an innkeeper his gueſts, &c.

## QUE

QUARENTINE, is the ſpace of forty days, wherein any perſon, coming from foreign parts, infected with the plague, is not permitted to land, or come on ſhore, until ſo many days are expired. *See* BILLS *of Health*, PLAGUE.

QUARRY, a place out of which are dug marble, free-ſtone, ſlate, lime-ſtone, or other materials for building.

QUART, among us, is a kind of meaſure containing the fourth part of a gallon, and is equivalent to two Engliſh pints.

QUARTATION, *Parting*, or *Depart*, among refiners, a method of purifying gold by melting three parts of ſilver with one of gold, and then caſting the mixture into aqua fortis; which, diſſolving the ſilver, leaves the gold at bottom, in form of a black powder. *See* ASSAYING.

QUARTER, is the fourth part of any whole, expreſſed thus in fractions one-fourth; and three-quarters three-fourths.

*Quarter*, in weight, the fourth part of the quintal or hundred weight: it is twenty-eight pounds averdupoiſe.

*Quarter*, is alſo a dry meaſure, containing eight buſhels of corn ſtriked; of coals, the fourth part of a chaldron.

QUARTER-MASTER, is an officer on board a ſhip, whoſe buſineſs is to ſtow the proviſions, &c. in the hold, to coil the cables, and watch on the poop, and, when the ſhip is at ſea, there is always one at the helm.

QUARTERN, *quarteron*, the quarter of a pint.

QUARTER-WIND, at ſea, a wind that blows upon the ſhip's quarter.

A quarter-wind, is that which comes in a-baſt the main-maſt ſhrowds, even with the quarter of the ſhip. It is the beſt of all winds, as filling all the ſails; whereas, a wind blowing full in the ſtern, is kept off by the mizzen and main-maſt.

QUAY, *Key*, a paved, &c. ſpot of ground on the ſhore of a river, or in a port, proper for loading and unloading of goods. *See* KEY.

QUEBEC. The Britiſh province of Quebec is much the largeſt of any upon the continent of North America. Quebec, which is the metropolis, and near the center of it, is ſituated in forty-ſix degrees fifty-five minutes north latitude, and ſixty-nine degrees forty-eight minutes weſt longitude; and is bounded north-eaſterly by the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the river St. John's; north-weſterly, by wild uninhabited lands; ſouth-weſterly, by the ſame; and, ſouthernly, by the province of New-York, the New England provinces, and the province of Nova Scotia, extending from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt about five hundred miles, and is upwards of two hundred miles wide. This country was firſt ſettled by the French, who kept the poſſeſſion and government of it till September 13, 1759, when Quebec was ſur-

ſurrendered to the generals Monkton and Townſhend, commanding the Britiſh troops that had been deſtined for the expedition againſt it the preceding ſpring, under the command of general Wolfe; and September 8, 1760, all Canada was given up to the Engliſh in the capitulation at Montreal, agreed upon and ſigned by general Amherſt, and monſieur de Vaudreueil the French governor; and has ſince been confirmed to the Britiſh crown by the treaty of Fountainbleau. The French comprehended under the name of Canada a much larger territory than the above mentioned, taking into their claim great part of the New England provinces, and of the provinces of New York and Nova Scotia, and northerly to Hudſon's Bay, and weſterly to the pacific Ocean, and ſoutherly to the Gulf of Mexico; and had erected a chain of forts, from the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, to their ſettlements at Louiſiana, to ſupport their claim.

They began the ſettlement of this province in 1605 at Quebec, ſituated on the north ſhore of the river St. Lawrence, about three hundred miles from the mouth; and about the ſame time ſettlements were begun upon the iſland of Orleans, which is in the river, a little below Quebec, and on each ſide of the river to the mouth of it, and on ſeveral ſmaller rivers that fall into it. Up the river, from Quebec about twenty miles, they ſoon after began a ſettlement called Jecorty, and erected a fort at Chamblee, on the river Sorriel, near where it falls out of lake Champlain. Soon after this, the foundations of Montreal were laid on the iſland of Montreal, ſituated in the river St. Lawrence, above two hundred miles above Quebec.

Another conſiderable ſettlement was made at Trois-Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, ſo called from a river's diſemboguing itſelf by three mouths or channels into the river St. Lawrence; and is ſituated about half-way between Quebec and Montreal, in a very delightful place, affording a proſpect the moſt agreeable to the eye of any in the whole country. There are many other ſettlements upon the banks of the river St. Lawrence, and of thoſe which empty into it, as well as on the iſlands ſurrounded by it; but none deſerving of particular notice except Quebec and Montreal, already mentioned. The former contains upwards of fifteen hundred dwelling-houſes, well-built, beſides ſeveral public buildings, which are ſtately and ſplendid, and were built for different uſes, ſome by charitable perſons, and others by the government of France: there are among theſe ſeveral hoſpitals, and not far from the town without the walls was a nunnery very well built, as was the manſion-houſe of their biſhop and Jeſuits. This town, beſides the natural ſafety of its ſituation, is now well fortified. Montreal is near as large and populous as Quebec, and is much more pleaſantly ſituated. The ſtrects are regular, the houſes well built, commodious, and agreeable; and you may ſee every houſe at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthermoſt ſide of the river, as the hill, on the ſide of which the town ſtands, falls gradually to the water. The public buildings here exceed thoſe of Quebec for beauty, and are equal in number, excepting the biſhop's palace and the cathedral church. The number of inhabitants in Canada is upwards of one hundred thouſand. The iſland of Montreal is exceedingly fertile, and well improved, producing great plenty of greens, and ſome fruit; but the iſland of Jeſus, to the north of Montreal, is more level, and deemed better land. There are ſeveral other iſlands to the north of Montreal, which are formed by the Attawawas river, and which are improved. This river forms alſo the iſland of Montreal, by one part at its entering at the weſt end of it into the lake St. Francis; and the other part paſſing north of Montreal, forming the iſland of Jeſus, and many others of ſmaller note, and joins St. Lawrence at the eaſt end of the iſland of Montreal. About the center of this iſland are two mountains, called the Twins, remarkable for being exactly alike; they are pretty high, and add much to the beauty of the iſland. In the lake St. Francis, ſouth-weſt of Montreal, are ſeveral iſlands that are inhabited and well improved; St. Pierre is the moſt conſiderable of them. Their uppermoſt ſettlements in this province are at the Cedars, the weſterly limits of the province, at the bottom of the falls from lake Ontario.

The rivers, branching through this extenſive country, are very numerous, and many of them navigable a conſiderable way into the country; but they are all ſwallowed up in the river St. Lawrence. This river is eighty miles wide at its entrance into the ſea at Cape Roſiers, on the ſide of Nova Scotia; ſomething to the eaſtward of which is the iſland of Anticoſta, of not much account. The courſe of the river is nearly through the middle of the province, from the ſouth-weſt to the north-eaſt, receiving the waters of a great many navigable rivers, and forming a great variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands; the moſt pleaſant and fruitful of which is the iſland of Orleans, a little below Quebec. The ſoil of this iſland is excellent, and, being well improved, is a garden for the city of Quebec, producing in great abundance all kinds of grain and vegetables common to the climate. This iſland is twenty-one miles in length, and three or four wide.

The French, while they had poſſeſſion of this province, very induſtriouſly repreſented the navigation of the river St. Lawrence to be difficult and dangerous; but we have ſince found the contrary to be the caſe, ſhips of the line meeting with no difficulty in going to Quebec. The land in general, on both ſides of the river, is low and level; indeed oppoſite to Quebec are two conſiderable mountains, called the Lady Mountains, which from this place run ſouth-weſt through the continent to the country of the Creek Indians, at the north part of the Two Floridas, in one continual ridge; and wherever rivers have forced their way through them, they riſe on each ſide very ſteep to their common height. This ridge of mountains is called the Apalachian Hills; and again at Montreal ſome hills appear to the north-weſt of it.

The climate here is cold, the winters long and tedious, eſpecially in the north-eaſterly parts of the province; notwithſtanding which the ſoil is none of the worſt, being in ſome parts both pleaſant and fertile, productive of moſt kinds of Engliſh grain and vegetables, common to the climate, in great abundance; eſpecially the iſland of Orleans already mentioned, and the iſlands and lands near it, which are remarkable for their rich ſoil.

The ſummers in this country are exceeding pleaſant, and ſo prolific that the farmer expects to reap his crop in ſixteen weeks from the ſowing of his ſeed. There is in ſome parts of this province very excellent timber, ſuch as white pines, oak of different kinds, and ſpruce in great abundance: and as the lakes and rivers are well ſtored with ſalmon, eels, and all kinds of fiſh common to ſuch waters, ſo its foreſts abound with deer, mooſe, bears, &c. There are alſo beavers, otters, martins, &c. in great plenty. In ſhort, notwithſtanding its northwardly ſituation, it may be juſtly denominated a healthy, fruitful, and pleaſant country, affording moſt of the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life; having (though moſtly ſituated within land) all the advantages of an extended ſea-coaſt, by means of the river St. Lawrence, which affords an eaſy conveyance from one part of the province to another, and a cheap importation of foreign commodities, even to the remoteſt parts of it.

The chief commodities exported from this province are timber, furs, deer, elk, and mooſe ſkins, &c.

The government of this province is the ſame as that of Nova Scotia.

The religion profeſſed by the French inhabitants is that of the church of Rome, they being tolerated in the free exerciſe of it by an article in the capitulation, which was confirmed to them by the ſubſequent treaty, his Britannic majeſty having the appointment of their biſhop. The Engliſh, here reſiding, are of the church of England.

QUEEN GOLD, is a royal duty or revenue belonging to every queen-conſort, during her marriage to the king of England, both by law, cuſtom, and preſcription, payable by ſundry perſons in England and Ireland, (upon divers grants of the king) by way of fine or oblation, amounting to ten marks or upwards; to wit, one full tenth part above the intire fine, as ten pounds for every hundred pounds fine, upon pardons, contracts, or agreements; which becomes a real debt and duty to the queen, by the name of *aurum reginæ*, upon the party's bare agreement with the king for his fine, and recording it, without any promiſe or contract for this tenth part exceeding it. *Lib. Nig. Scac. pag.* 43, 44. *Coke's* 12 *Rep. fol.* 21, 22. and *Prynne's Tracts* on this ſubject. *Per tot.*

QUICKSILVER, a very ponderous fluid mineral, the ſame as *mercury*, which *ſee*.

QUILTERS. Quilting is chiefly performed by women;

men; but there are ſome maſters, who employ a number of women and girls in making bed-quilts for the upholſterers. The women of this buſineſs not only make bed-quilts, but quilted petticoats, &c. They either take poor girls apprentices, whom they keep for the ſake of their work, or have a ſmall ſum for learning thoſe grown up, to whom they afterwards pay about ten or twelve ſhillings a week.

QUINTAL, in commerce, a hundred pounds weight.

The quintal admits of ſome difference in different places, according as the pound conſiſts of more or fewer ounces.

The Engliſh quintal uſually conſiſts of one hundred and twelve pounds averdupois, and is divided into four quarters.

QUINTESSENCE, *quinta eſſentia*, in chemiſtry, a preparation conſiſting of the eſſential oil of ſome vegetable ſubſtance, incorporated with ſpirit of wine.

Of this there two kinds, namely, liquid and dry: the former is produced by putting any diſtilled aromatic or eſſential oil into a clean dry glaſs, and pouring to it twelve times its quantity of pure alcohol diſtilled from alcali, ſo as not to contain the leaſt water: ſhake them together, and the oil will intimately mix with the alcohol, ſo as to form one ſimple tranſparent liquor.

Dry quinteſſences are got by pouring alcohol, wherein an aromatic oil is diſſolved, upon ten times its weight of dry loaf ſugar, reduced to a fine powder. Grind them exactly together in a glaſs mortar, put the mixture into a china veſſel, ſet it in a glaſs body, kept on all ſides moderately warm, that the remaining ſpirit may gently exhale, and by means of a ſtill-head, be collected in the form of a liquid quinteſſence; and thus the ſugar will remain dry, yet impregnated with the quinteſſence. Let this now be put immediately into a glaſs veſſel cloſe ſtopped, and preſerved for uſe.

# R.



R, A liquid conſonant, and the ſeventeenth letter of the alphabet, was anciently a numeral letter, denoting eighty, and when a daſh was at top, it ſignified eighty thouſand.

℞ or ℟, in medicinal preſcriptions, ſtands for *recipe* or take.

RACK-RENT, is the full yearly value of the land let by leaſe, payable by tenant for life or years, &c. *Wood's Inſt.* 185.

RADNORSHIRE, makes ſome cheeſe, and breeds ſome horſes, with which it drives a ſmall trade, though hardly worth regard.

RAGS, old rags may be imported duty free; and old rags, old-ropes, or junk, or old fiſhing-nets, for making paper, or paſteboard, not regularly entered and landed, forfeited. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 10.

RAG-MAN. Mean as this buſineſs may ſeem, there are ſome rag-men who employ ſome thouſand pounds in it. They buy linen rags of the rag gatherers, &c. and even import them from abroad; theſe they depoſit in warehouſes; and, after they are ſorted, ſell them to the paper-makers. It is a profitable buſineſs; and a perſon may ſet up with one hundred pounds.

RAISINS, called in the ſhops *paſſulæ* and *uvæ*, are the fruit of the vine ſuffered to remain on the tree till perfectly ripened, and then dried either in the ſun, or by the additional heat of the oven. Grapes of every kind, preſerved in this manner, are by authors called *paſſulæ*, and are accordingly diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral kinds, according to the ſpecies of grape. What we have at preſent differ, as they are better or worſe dried, and are all called raiſins under different additional denominations.

The difference between raiſins dried in the ſun, and thoſe dried in ovens, is very conſiderable and obvious. The former are ſweet and pleaſant, the others have a whitiſhneſs and a latent acidity with the ſweetneſs that renders them much leſs agreeable. The raiſin of the ſun, and what we call jar-raiſins, from their being imported in earthen jars, are all of the former kind, and it is always underſtood, that ſuch, and not theſe dried in ovens, are to be uſed in medicine.

The fineſt raiſins are thoſe in ſome places called Damaſcus and jube raiſins; theſe are the fruit of the vitis Damaſcena, and are diſtinguiſhable from the others by their largeneſs and figure; they are flat and wrinkled on the ſurface, ſoft and juicy within, near an inch long, and ſemi-pellucid, when held againſt a good light; they have an agreeable vinous taſte, and, when freſh, and growing on the bunch, are of the ſize and ſhape of a large olive. The common raiſins are the fruit of ſeveral ſpecies of grape, which are better or worſe, according as they have been more or leſs carefully cured.

The Greeks called raiſins *ſtaphulæ*, and diſtinguiſhed them into two kinds; but this not according to their different ſpecies, but to their different manner of being dried. The one kind, when ripe, were cut off from the vine and immediately dried in the ſun; theſe they called *ſtaphulæ thelopeuthæſæ*; and the other kind were ſuch as were not taken off the vine, but only had the ſtalks of the bunch cut half through, and tied hard round with a thread, and were ſo left to dry on the tree. Theſe they called, by way of diſtinction from others, *uvæ* or *ſtaphulæ patethæſæ*, but the difference is not worth attending to, the raiſin being the ſame, which ever method was taken. The common way of drying grapes for raiſins, at preſent, is, to tie two or three bunches of them firmly together, while yet on the vine, and dip them into a hot lixivium of wood aſhes

with a little oil olive in it. This diſpoſes them to ſhrink and wrinkle, and after this they are left in the vine three or four days ſeparated on ſtalks in a horizontal ſituation, and then dried in the ſun at leiſure, after cut from the tree.

All the kinds of raiſins which have the ſame virtues, are all nutritive and balſamic, but are very ſubject to fermentation with juices of any kind; and hence, when eaten immoderately, often bring on cholics. They are allowed to be attenuant, and are given in caſes where the humours are too thick and viſcid, and they are ſaid to be very good in nephritic complaints; they are, however, too familiar in our foods to be much regarded as a medicine. They are an ingredient indeed in our pectoral decoctions, and in ſome other medicines of that intention; in which caſes, as alſo in all others where aſtringency is not required of them, they ſhould have the ſtones taken out. They are uſed in ſome compoſitions rather with an intent of taking off the nauſeous taſte of other ingredients, than of doing any real ſervice themſelves.

RAJAPOUR, is a city built in the lands of Sevagy, that famous rebel, who for a long time buſied all the forces of the Great Mogul, and the king of Viſapour, his maſter. It is about twenty leagues from Goa, and produces ſaltpetre, linens, but above all pepper, which is gathered here in abundance.

RAMBANG, *or* RAMBAM, in the iſland of Java, may contain about ſix thouſand houſes; the company have a yard here for building ſhallops and other ſmall veſſels; and here is a great trade carried on in rice, &c.

RAMSGATE *and* SANDWICH *ports*. The preamble to 22 *Geo.* II. ſets forth, that frequent loſſes of the lives and properties of his majeſty's ſubjects happen in the Downs, for want of a harbour between the North and South Forelands, the greateſt part of the ſhips employed in the trade of this nation being under a neceſſity, at going out upon, as well as returning from their voyage, to paſs through the Downs, and frequently, by contrary winds, being detained there a long time, during which they (eſpecially the outward-bound ſhips) are expoſed to violent ſtorms and dangerous gales of wind, without having any ſufficient harbour to lie in or retreat into, or from whence they can receive any aſſiſtance; and, as a harbour may be made at the town of Ramſgate, convenient for the reception of ſhips, of, and under three hundred tons burden, and from whence larger ſhips in diſtreſs in the Downs may be ſupplied with pilots, anchors, cables, and other aſſiſtance and neceſſaries; and, by the ſmaller ſhips taking ſhelter in this harbour, the larger ſhips may take the anchorage, which, at preſent, is occupied by the ſmaller, and by that means their anchors will be fixed in more holding ground, and the ſhips not ſo expoſed to the ocean: for carrying therefore a work of ſuch public utility into execution, it is enacted, that the lord warden of the cinque-ports, and his deputy for the time being; the Right Hon. Robert lord Romney, Andrew Stone, Eſq; the Hon. James Pelham, Eſq; &c. ſhall be truſtees for the enlarging, building, and maintaining the harbour at Ramſgate, by erecting piers or ſuch other works, and doing all other matters, as five, or more of them, at their general meeting, ſhall think moſt proper for putting in execution the powers of this act.

The firſt meeting of the truſtees ſhall be on the firſt Tueſday in July, 1749, in the Guildhall of the city of London; and five or more of them ſhall meet, from time to time, at ſuch places as they ſhall judge moſt convenient for carrying on and effecting the purpoſes of this act.

Fifteen or more of the truſtees at a public meeting (fourteen days notice whereof ſhall be given in the London Gazette) ſhall ſettle the ſeveral rates and duties herein after mentioned, which ſhall commence from and after the tenth of July next enſuing, viz. any rate or duty not exceeding ſix-pence *per* ton, to be paid by every Britiſh or foreign ſhip, veſſel, or crayer of twenty tons burden or upwards, and not exceeding three hundred tons, for every loading or diſcharging, or ſhip in ballaſt within this realm, from, to, or by Ramſgate, or coming into the harbour there, not having a receipt teſtifying the payment thereof before, on that voyage, towards the building and maintaining of Ramſgate harbour; and, on every ſhip above three hundred tons, any rate not exceeding two-pence for each ton of the burden of ſuch ſhip (except ſhips loaden with coals, grindſtones, Purbeck, Portland, or other ſtones) and on every chaldron of coals, or ton of grindſtones, Purbeck, Portland, or other ſtones, a rate not exceeding three-pence. And ſuch rates, when ſettled by the truſtees, ſhall be publiſhed in the London Gazette, for the information of all parties, and ſhall be paid to the cuſtomer, or collector of the cuſtoms, or their deputies, or ſuch other perſons as ſhall be appointed by the truſtees to receive the ſame, in ſuch port or place, whence ſuch veſſels or ſhips ſhall ſet forth, or where they ſhall arrive before their ſailing from ſuch port, on their outward-bound voyage, and before they unload their goods on their homeward-bound voyage; the tonage to be aſcertained according to the rules laid down in the act 8 *Annæ*, intitled, An Act for making a convenient Dock or Baſon at Liverpoole, for the Security of all Ships trading to or from the ſaid Port of Liverpoole.

Foreign ſhips paſſing or being detained in the Downs, ſhall be ſubject to the ſame rates as ſhips cleared out, or entered into, any of the Britiſh ports, to be levied and recovered in the ſame manner as the other rates impoſed by this act.

Where the tonage of any veſſel, chargeable with the ſaid rates, cannot otherwiſe be ſettled and adjuſted, the collector, or ſuch perſon as five truſtees ſhall appoint, may enter into, and admeaſure ſuch ſhip, according to the directions of this act; and, if any perſon ſhall obſtruct the admeaſurement of ſuch ſhip, he ſhall forfeit ten pounds for every ſuch offence, &c.

No veſſel, outward bound, ſhall be cleared at the office of the Cuſtoms; nor ſhall any veſſel be allowed to enter at the ſaid office, on a homeward-bound voyage, inward, without information on oath, by the maſter or owner, of the burden of ſuch veſſel, &c. and after oath made, and payment of the duty, and producing an acquittance for the receipt thereof, the maſter or owner ſhall be allowed, from the merchant, for every ton of goods loaden on board ſuch ſhip on his account, a like ſum *per* ton, as the ſame is charged by this act; and the cuſtomers, or other officers receiving the ſaid duties, ſhall keep an account thereof, &c. to which all perſons may have free acceſs at all ſeaſonable times gratis. And ſhall once in every month, in the port of London, and once in every three months in the out-ports, return and pay over the ſums received by them, &c.

If any ſhip or veſſel (other than as before excepted) whether Britiſh or foreign, above three hundred tons, ſhall, after the commencement of this act, take ſhelter in the harbour of Ramſgate, ſhe ſhall pay for every ton a like rate as ſhips of or under three hundred tons, and above nineteen tons are liable to; allowance being made to the maſter or owner for any rate paid before by him on that voyage, by virtue of this act; and ſuch ſhip ſhall ever after be liable to the ſame rates.

No coaſting veſſel or fiſherman ſhall pay the rates more than once in one year.

The collectors, &c. may go on board any veſſel, and demand the duties, and for non-payment may diſtrain ſuch veſſel, tackle, &c. and, in ten days after, make ſale thereof, &c.

If any maſter of any veſſel ſhall elude the payment of ſaid duties, the ſame ſhall be recovered, as the fines and penalties are herein after directed.

Five or more truſtees, and perſons employed by them, may remove any obſtructions that may be neceſſary to be taken away, for the enlarging, building, and maintaining the ſaid harbour at Ramſgate, or for the better attaining the purpoſes of this act, making ſatisfaction to the owners of the premiſes.

Five or more truſtees may contract for the making or doing all or any part of the work or buſineſs to be done in completing the ſaid harbour, and for timber, ſtones, or other materials, which ſhall be uſed therein; and they may agree with the owners and occupiers of all ſuch buildings, grounds, or eſtates, as ſhall be neceſſary for the execution of the purpoſes of this act.

All bodies politic or corporate, whether aggregate or ſole, and all feoffees in truſt, executors, adminiſtrators, guardians, or truſtees whatſoever, for, or on behalf of any infants, ſemes covert, or ceſtuique truſts, and all perſons ſeized, poſſeſſed of, or intereſted in any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, which ſhall be adjudged neceſſary for the purpoſes

purpoſes aforeſaid, are empowered to agree with the truſtees, or five or more of them, at any of their public meetings appointed for the ſale thereof, and to ſell and convey the ſame; and all contracts and conveyances, which ſhall be ſo made for the purpoſes aforeſaid, ſhall be valid to all intents and purpoſes.

And all feoffees in truſt, executors, &c. are indemnified for what they ſhall do by virtue of this act; and, if it ſhall happen that any perſon, body, or bodies politic or corporate, ſhall decline, or refuſe to treat, or agree, about the ſale of the ſaid lands and tenements, five or more truſtees ſhall iſſue their warrant to the ſheriff of the county, to ſummon and return a jury of twenty-four perſons, qualified to be returned for trials of iſſue joined in any of the courts at Weſtminſter, to appear before them at the time and place appointed, and alſo to return iſſues upon every ſuch perſons, the ſum of forty ſhillings, which ſhall be duly eſtreated and levied; and, for default of a ſufficient number of jurymen appearing, the ſheriff, or his deputy, ſhall return twelve indifferent men of the ſtanders-by, or that can be ſpeedily procured, to make up the jury, who ſhall view the lands and tenements in queſtion, and ſhall, upon their oaths (which oaths, and alſo proper oaths to ſuch perſons as ſhall be examined as witneſſes, five or more of the truſtees ſhall adminiſter) enquire into the value thereof, and aſſeſs ſuch damages and recompence of the ſame as they ſhall think fit; and the truſtees ſhall give judgment for the ſums to be aſſeſſed by ſuch jury; which verdict, and the determination thereupon pronounced by five or more truſtees, and the recompence aſſeſſed, (twenty days notice at leaſt in writing of the time and place for their meeting, being firſt given to every perſon concerned, or left at his or her dwelling-houſe, or uſual place of abode, or with ſome tenant or occupier of ſome land or tenements of the party near the harbour of Ramſgate, in caſe ſuch party cannot be found to be ſerved with ſuch notice) ſhall be binding to all intents and purpoſes, againſt all parties whatſoever; and the ſaid decrees ſhall be ſet down in writing, under the hands and ſeals of the truſtees, who ſhall make the ſame, and kept amongſt the records of the ſeſſions for the county of Kent, and the ſame, or copies thereof, ſhall be admitted as evidence in all courts of law or equity; and, upon payment or tender of ſuch ſum to the parties, at his or their dwelling-houſe, or, if they have none, at the houſe of ſome tenant or occupier of ſome lands of that party, near the ſaid harbour of Ramſgate; and, in caſe of their refuſal, upon payment of the ſaid ſum into the hands of ſuch perſon as five truſtees ſhall appoint, for the uſe of the parties intereſted; it ſhall then, and not before, be lawful for the truſtees, or their workmen, to make uſe of the ſaid lands as they ſhall think requiſite for the purpoſes of this act, and they are indemnified againſt the ſaid owners and occupiers, &c.

If the truſtees ſhall build any works relating to the ſaid harbour, upon any lands or tenements, the property whereof is not, at, or before ſuch time, claimed or aſcertained; and, if any perſon ſhall afterwards claim the ſame, and prove his title thereto, then the value thereof, before the works were erected, ſhall be aſcertained by a jury, in manner before directed; and, upon payment or tender of the money that ſhall be aſſeſſed, the property of ſuch perſon in the ſaid lands ſhall ceaſe, and the ſame be veſted in the truſtees.

Fifteen, or more, truſtees may borrow any ſum not exceeding ſeventy thouſand pounds for the purpoſes aforeſaid, and aſſign over the duties as a ſecurity for repayment of the ſame, with intereſt not exceeding five pounds *per cent. per ann.*; and the ſame ſhall be applied towards the enlarging and completing the ſaid harbour, the charges of paſſing this act to be firſt paid.

Any perſons may advance the whole, or any part of the ſaid ſum of ſeventy thouſand pounds for the abſolute purchaſe of annuities, to be paid for the natural lives of ſuch perſons as ſhall be nominated by the contributors at the time of payment of their reſpective contribution-monies; the ſaid annuities not to exceed the rate of eight pounds ten ſhillings *per ann.* for every hundred pounds, and to be payable at the bank of England, or at ſuch other place in London, as fifteen or more of the truſtees ſhall direct, to the purchaſers, their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, at ſuch times and in ſuch proportions as ſhall be agreed upon.

The rates ſhall not be liable to the payment of the intereſt of any greater ſum than fifty thouſand pounds at any one time, upon annuities for lives.

One or more books ſhall be provided and kept by the truſtees, in which ſhall be entered the names and places of abode of the purchaſers of any of the ſaid annuities, and of all perſons by whoſe hands they ſhall pay in any ſum upon this act, and alſo of the perſons for whoſe lives the annuities ſhall be purchaſed, and the purchaſe-money, and days of payment; to which books the reſpective purchaſers and perſons, impowered by them, ſhall have recourſe, at all ſeaſonable times, gratis; and if any doubt ariſes, as to the life of any perſon, on which an annuity ſhall be payable, five or more truſtees may depute any perſon, before each payment, to viſit ſuch annuitant; and, if ſuch perſon ſhall be refuſed admittance to the ſaid annuitant, at any ſeaſonable time, the annuity ſhall from ſuch time ceaſe, till the life of the ſaid annuitant be proved to five or more truſtees at their publick meeting, either by his or her perſonal appearance, or by the oaths of two credible witneſſes, when the ſaid annuity, together with the arrears, ſhall be paid.

The ſaid annuities ſhall be paid out of the monies ariſing by the duties of this act; and the contributors, their executors, and aſſigns, ſhall enjoy the annuities, during the natural lives of the perſons nominated by them, and ſhall have abſolute and indefeazible eſtates therein; and the ſame ſhall be free from all taxes.

The contributors, or their aſſigns, upon payment of the conſideration money, or any part thereof, unto fifteen truſtees, or to ſuch perſon as they ſhall appoint, ſhall have receipts for the ſame; and, upon payment of the purchaſe-money, ſhall have an order in parchment for payment of the annuity, during the natural life of the perſon nominated, in which ſhall be inſerted, how much the ſum paid by ſuch contributor, together with the other ſums paid in on annuities before that time, do amount to, that it may be known how nearly the ſaid ſum of ſeventy thouſand pounds is complete, and when it ſhall be completed; which order ſhall be made by five or more truſtees at a public meeting, and, after ſigning thereof, ſhall be good in law.

The annuitants, or their aſſigns, may, from time to time, aſſign over the ſaid annuities, or any part thereof; and an entry thereof ſhall be made gratis, in a book to be kept by ſuch perſon as five or more of the truſtees ſhall appoint for that purpoſe, at the charge of the truſtees, in ſuch place within London, as fifteen or more truſtees ſhall appoint.

The rates ſhall be chargeable with the payment of the annuities, and, upon default of payment thereof within forty days after the times they ſhall be made payable, they ſhall veſt in the annuitants until the ſame be paid, with intereſt, and the charges occaſioned thereby; and they ſhall have the ſame power, &c. of collecting and levying the ſaid duties as the truſtees were inveſted with.

The money ariſing by ſale of the annuities ſhall be applied, in the firſt place, in paying off monies borrowed at intereſt, as aforeſaid, and afterwards for diſcharging the expences of enlarging and building the ſaid harbour.

The truſtees ſhall meet once in every year, fourteen days notice whereof ſhall be given in the London Gazette; and they, or fifteen or more of them, at ſuch meeting, ſhall examine what annuities have determined during the preceding year, and ſhall aſcertain the rates neceſſary to be raiſed for the ſucceeding year; and the ſame ſhall be levied according to the proportions before-mentioned, and ſhall be advertiſed in the London Gazette; but, if they ſhall continue the rates of the ſucceeding year or years, according to the proportion of the former year, or ſhall neglect or refuſe to meet for the purpoſes aforeſaid, then the rates ſhall be levied according to the proportion directed by the laſt advertiſement in the London Gazette for that purpoſe, which ſhall be the rule to go by, until the ſaid rates ſhall be again aſcertained and publiſhed according to the directions of this act.

As ſoon as the ſaid ſum of ſeventy thouſand pounds ſhall be raiſed and paid to the truſtees, by granting annuities, and the intereſt of the ſeveral annuitants ſhall ceaſe by their deaths, the duties granted by this act ſhall abſolutely ceaſe and determine; and if, after the determination of the annuities

nuities, and finiſhing the ſaid harbour, any ſurplus ſhall remain in the hands of the truſtees, the ſame ſhall be paid into the chamber of London, and an account thereof laid before the parliament at their then next ſitting.

Fifteen or more of the truſtees may appoint collectors, a ſurveyor, treaſurer, &c. of the duties, and appoint them ſalaries, and diſplace them at pleaſure.

They are to take ſecurity for ſuch officers, and meet once yearly to examine and audit their accounts.

The account ſo ſtated and ſigned by the truſtees ſhall be laid, within three months after, before the mayor and court of aldermen in London, and ſuch four as the court ſhall appoint (not being truſtees) may ſummon, and examine upon oath, every perſon they ſhall think fit; and, finding any one guilty of embezzlement or miſapplication of the ſaid money, they ſhall impoſe on him any fine, not exceeding double the ſum embezzled.

The ſaid fines ſhall be levied by diſtreſs, &c. and, in default of ſuch diſtreſs, the offender ſhall be committed to the common goal of the county, where he ſhall live, until payment, &c.

If the truſtees ſhall erect a baſon in the ſaid harbour, every veſſel, before ſhe goes into the gates, ſhall take down her ſails, ſo that ſhe may not go ſailing in, upon pain of forfeiting ten pounds.

If the baſon ſhall be ſo filled with ſhipping, as not to admit, with ſafety, more veſſels, five or more truſtees, or ſuch perſon as they ſhall appoint, may remove into the harbour ſuch ſhip or veſſel, as he or they ſhall think proper; the maſter, within twenty-four hours after notice in writing given to him, or left on board his ſhip for that purpoſe, neglecting to remove the ſame within a convenient time, thoſe veſſels to be firſt removed out of the baſon, as ſhall be laid up or moored, or are not upon an outward or homeward-bound voyage; next, ſuch as are upon an outward or homeward-bound voyage, but which may, with the leaſt danger, be removed, and lie in the ſaid harbour, that ſhips coming in, and leſs capable of taking the ground, may have the benefit of the baſon; and the ſaid maſter ſhall pay the charges of removing ſuch veſſel, to be levied and applied as the fines and penalties are directed by this act.

If any maſter, or other perſon, ſhall obſtruct the removal of ſuch ſhip, he ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds. And if any perſon, employed by the truſtees, ſhall wilfully abuſe his authority of removing ſuch ſhips, and ſhall be judged ſo to have done, by five or more of the truſtees, &c. they ſhall impoſe any fine on him, not exceeding one hundred pounds, &c.

If any truſtee ſhall die, or refuſe to act, nine or more of the remaining truſtees may appoint others, &c.

The property of all the piers, docks, wharfs, and other works; and alſo of the ground whereon ſuch works ſhall be erected, as well as all ſuch right and property, as now appertaineth to the ſaid pier or harbour of Ramſgate, ſhall be veſted in the truſtees, and they, or five, or more of them, may bring actions, and prefer bills of indictment, againſt any perſons who ſhall ſteal, break down, or ſpoil any of the works or materials, or do any thing whereby damage may accrue to the works or harbour; and they may let out, for the beſt rent that can be had, ſuch wharfs, docks, or lands, as are veſted in them, for any term not exceeding ſixty years, the rent to be applied towards enlarging and completing the ſaid harbour; and, upon the expiration of the ſaid truſts, and determination of the leaſes, the property of the ſaid piers, docks, wharfs, and other works, and alſo of the ſaid lands, tenements, or hereditaments, ſhall be veſted in, and diſpoſed of, by authority of parliament.

The truſtees in the letting ſuch wharfs, docks, or other works, ſhall expreſsly mention what ſums ſhall be taken by the reſpective tenants, of the maſter of any veſſel which ſhall occupy the ſame; and, if the tenant ſhall demand, or take more than the ſum ſtipulated; he ſhall, for every ſuch offence, forfeit treble the ſum demanded, more than he ſhall be allowed to take, by ſuch agreement, &c.

All the receipts, payments, debts, credits, and contracts, made with, and by, the artificers and workmen employed, and alſo an account of all monies received and borrowed, and all other proceedings of the truſtees, ſhall be entered into one or more books, &c.

No truſtee ſhall have any office, or place of profit ariſing by any of the ſaid duties, and the truſtees ſhall, at all their meetings, defray their own expences, and ſhall give ſuch public notice of their meetings, as ſhall be agreed upon by five or more of them.

From and after the firſt Tueſday in July, 1749, all duties on ſhipping, which may have heretofore been demanded at the port of Ramſgate, under any pretence whatſoever, ſhall abſolutely ceaſe; and no demand ſhall be made of any duty, other than what is made payable by this act.

This act ſhall not extend to charge, with any of the ſaid rates or duties, any ſhip or veſſel which ſhall be bound to or from the town of Sandwich, in the county of Kent, the maſter producing a certificate verified upon oath, under the hand and ſeal of the mayor of Sandwich, atteſting that the inhabitants of the ſaid town own the whole or major part of ſuch veſſel; and all ſuch veſſels may paſs in and out of the harbour without paying duty.

Out of the money ariſing by the rates, the treaſurer or receiver ſhall pay two hundred pounds *per ann.* during the continuance of this act, into the hands of the mayor and jurats of Sandwich, or to ſuch perſons as they ſhall authorize to receive the ſame, by four equal quarterly payments, viz. upon September 29, December 25, March 25, and June 24; the firſt payment to be made upon the 29th of September, 1749, the ſaid money to be applied, in the firſt place, in diſcharging the expences incurred by the corporation of Sandwich, on account of applying for, or making this act, or in any manner relating thereto; and afterwards in cleanſing, depthening, and preſerving the ſaid haven, or in erecting and maintaining a pier, or ſuch other works for that purpoſe, as the mayor and jurats ſhall, by writing under their hands and ſeals, direct; and, if the ſaid ſum ſhall not be paid within fourteen days after it ſhall become due, the mayor and jurats may recover the ſame againſt the ſaid treaſurer or receiver, together with the damages ſuſtained by the non-payment, and full coſts of ſuit by action of debt, bill, &c.

The receipt of the ſaid mayor and jurats, or of ſuch perſon as they ſhall appoint to receive the ſaid ſum, ſhall diſcharge the ſaid treaſurer or receiver for the payment thereof.

The ſaid mayor and jurats ſhall cauſe a book or books to be kept, of the dates and ſums of money received and diſburſed, and of all their proceedings, in execution of the truſt hereby repoſed in them; to which books all perſons intereſted ſhall have free acceſs gratis, &c.

From and after the ſaid 24th of June, 1749, no more than two veſſels ſhall lie abreaſt in the ſaid haven longer than one tide, unleſs upon ſome unavoidable occaſion, of which the mayor ſhall judge, and ſhall take ſuch order therein as he ſhall think reaſonable; and, if the maſter of any veſſel ſhall not obey ſuch order of the mayor for removing his ſhip, he ſhall forfeit any ſum not exceeding forty ſhillings, &c.

If it ſhall appear to the truſtees, or fifteen of them, that it will be for the benefit of the trade and navigation of this kingdom, to erect any works at the haven of Sandwich, more than the annual ſum of two hundred pounds will be ſufficient for, they may, at any meeting to be held for that purpoſe, (fourteen days notice thereof being given in the London Gazette) order any ſum not exceeding ten thouſand pounds out of the duties aforeſaid, to be applied to that purpoſe.

All veſſels belonging to the towns of Dover, Waymouth, and Melcombe Regis, Lyme Regis, and Great Yarmouth, ſhall be exempted from payment of the duties aforeſaid, the maſters or owners producing a certificate, verified upon oath before the reſpective mayors of the ſaid places, that the ſaid veſſels belong thereto, and that the inhabitants are owners of the greateſt part of ſuch ſhips.

This act ſhall be deemed a public act, &c.

RANSOM, ſignifies properly the ſum that is paid for the redeeming one that is taken priſoner in war.

A ſhip was taken by the French; the maſter (having a ſhare in her) ranſomed her for eighteen hundred pounds, and was taken to France as an hoſtage for this money. And by lord chancellor, the ranſom money muſt be raiſed out of the profits, notwithſtanding any former mortgage of the ſhip; for if there was a precedent mortgage, what would become of the ſecurity, if the ſhip had not been redeemed?

After the ſhip had been redeemed, ſhe performed her intended voyage, and the freight money received after redemption was the firſt profits ariſing, and out of them all the ranſom money is to be ſatisfied; the inſurers always pay a-part of the ranſom money. *Eaſt.* 8 *Ann. Hope* v. *Winter*, M. S. *Rep.* 2. *Eq. Abr.* 690. *See* PRIVATEERS.

RAPE SEED. To what duties liable on importation. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 31.

RAPE denotes the ſtalks of the cluſters of grapes when clear of the fruit.

It is uſed in making of vinegar, being firſt put into a place to ſour by itſelf before it is caſt into the vinegar veſſel.

The only way of keeping rape is to fill the veſſel wherein it is contained with wine or vinegar.

RASBERRY, a well known fruit, of a delicate flavour.

Of all our made wines, thoſe of ſtrawberries and raſberries are moſt delicious to the taſte; they lightly and pleaſantly ſtimulate the nerves of the mouth and noſe with a moſt agreeable ſmell and taſte, which proceeds from a tincture of their eſſential ſalt and fine oil, for the principles of both thoſe berries are very near the ſame, only raſberries contain more fine oil, and the other more phlegm.

RATAFIA, a fine ſpirituous liquor, prepared from the kernels, &c. of ſeveral kinds of fruits, particularly cherries and apricots. That of cherries is prepared by bruiſing the cherries, and putting them into a veſſel wherein brandy has been kept; then adding to them the kernels of cherries, with ſtrawberries, ſugar, cinnamon, white pepper, nutmegs, cloves, and to twenty pounds of cherries, add ten quarts of ———. The veſſel is left open ten or twelve days, then ſtopped cloſe for upwards of two months before it be tapped. That of apricots is prepared two ways, viz. either by boiling the apricots in white wine, adding to the liquor an equal quantity of brandy, with ſugar, cinnamon, mace, and the kernels of the apricots; infuſing the whole for eight or ten days, then ſtraining the liquor, and putting it up for uſe: or by infuſing the apricots, cut in pieces, in brandy, for a day or two, paſſing it through a ſtraining-bag, and putting thereto the uſual ingredients.

RATE, a valuation of every man's eſtate; or the appointing and ſetting down how much every one ſhall pay, or be charged with any tax. *Stat.* 53 *Edw.* II. *See* CARTS, PILOTS, PORTERS, for their rates.

RATE, of a ſhip of war, is its order, degree, or diſtinction, as to magnitude, burden, &c. and this is uſually accounted by the length and breadth of the gun-deck, the number of guns they contain, and the number of men and guns they carry. For ſuch men of war as have their gun-decks from 159 to 174 feet in length, and from 44 to 50 feet broad: that contain from 1714 to 1920 tons: that have from 750 to 850 men, and carry from 96 to 110 guns; we reckon of the firſt rate.

Second rate ſhips, have their gun-decks from 153 feet to 165 feet long, and from 41 to 46 broad; contain from 1200 to 1600 tons, and carry from 660 to 750 men, and from 84 to 90 guns.

Third rates, have their gun-decks from 142 to 158 feet in length, and from 37 to 42 feet broad; they contain from 1100 to 1224 tons, and carry from 410 to 480 men, and from 64 to 80 guns.

Fourth rates, are on the gun-deck from 118 to 146 feet, and from 29 to 38 broad; they contain from 711 to 1068 tons, and carry from 340 to 400 men, and from 48 to 60 guns.

Fifth rates have their gun-decks from 100 to 120 feet long, and from 29 to 31 feet broad; contain from 550 to 678 tons, and carry from 210 to 250 men, and from 26 to 44 guns.

Sixth rates, have their gun-decks from 87 to 95 feet long, and from 22 to 25 feet broad; they contain from 216 to 430 tons, and carry from 120 to 150 men, and from 16 to 24 guns.

RATEEN, *or* RATTEN, in commerce, a thick woollen ſtuff, quilted, wove on a loom with four treadles like ſerges and other ſtuffs that have the whale or quilling. There are ſome prepared like cloths, others left ſimply in the hair, and others where the hair or nap is friſed.

RATEL. *See* BATMAN.

RATIS, a weight uſed for diamonds, at the mine of Soumelpour in the kingdom of Bengal; and in all the Great Mogul's empire for diamonds and pearls it is ſeven-eighths of a carat, or three grains and a half.

RATTANS. To what duties liable on importation. 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

REALGAR, called generally *red orpiment*. It is of two kinds, native and factitious. The native is dug out of the ſame mines with orpiment, being of a cinnabarine colour, and ſmelling like ſulphur and garlic, when burnt, and made up in ſolid brittle globes. The factitious kind is made of orpiment melted and boiled for ſome time in ſubliming veſſels, by which the yellow flowers are raiſed to the upper part of the veſſels, and the maſs remaining at the bottom being condenſed by cold, becomes of a red colour like cinnabar; which, if expoſed to the free air for a long time, becomes covered with a ſoluble efflorescence. This realgar is not to be confounded with the factitious red arſenic. *See* ARSENIC.

Realgar is brought from China in different figures, which ſeem to be caſt in moulds.

This matter being of an arſenical quality, its correction firſt propoſed by Helmont, and afterwards publiſhed by Dallicot, firſt phyſician to the duke of Lorrain, which has been found ſucceſsful in many maladies, is this:

Put any quantity of realgar, finely powdered into a glaſs matraſs, and pour upon it as much of a ſtrong lixivium of tartar and nitre, as will ſwim four fingers breadth above the realgar. Digeſt them in a ſand heat for twenty-four hours, ſhaking the matraſs very often. Then pouring off and preſerving the tincture, pour new lixivium upon the powder, and repeat the whole operation, till almoſt the realgar is diſſolved, ſome indiſſoluble metallic parts only remaining. Afterwards mix all the tinctures together, paſs them through cap-paper, and pour at ſeveral times as much vinegar of lead to the ſtrained liquor, as will precipitate all that can be ſeparated from it. Then pouring off the clear liquor from the precipitate by inclination, let the powder be waſhed from warm water till it becomes almoſt inſipid; and when it is well dried, burn a ſufficient quantity of rectified ſpirit of wine upon it, and then calcine it with the tincture of opium extracted with ſpirit of wine.

The powder ſo prepared, is a gentle eſcharotic, of great ſervice in cancerous ſwellings.

RE-ASSURANCE. *See* INSURANCE.

REBATE, in commerce, a term frequently uſed at Amſterdam, for a diſcount or abatement in the price of certain commodities, when the buyer advances the ſum in hand, for which he might have had credit.

Among us, rebate is called prompt-payment, and is eſtimated by month's, and is only allowed for certain kinds of merchandizes.

RECEIPT, *or* RECEIT, in commerce, a diſcharge in writing, in order to ſhew that a thing has been paid off or acquitted.

RECHANGE, *or* RE-EXCHANGE, in commerce, a ſecond payment of the price of exchange, or, rather, the price of a new exchange, due upon a bill of exchange that comes to be proteſted, and to be reſunded the bearer by the drawer or indorſer.

The occaſion of rechange is, when the bearer of a bill of exchange, after proteſting it for want either of acceptance, or of payment, borrows money on his own promiſe bond, or the like; or draws a bill of exchange in the place where the payment was to be made, on the perſon who furniſhed the firſt; for which he pays a ſecond exchange, which being added to the firſt already paid, the drawer of the firſt bill makes two exchanges, properly called exchange and re-exchange.

The bearer of a proteſted bill has a right to recover both the one and the other on the drawer, yet the ſimple proteſtation the bearer makes in the act of proteſt, that he will take up a like ſum at re-exchange, for want of his bill being accepted or paid, is not ſufficient to intitle him to demand the re-imburſement of his re-exchange, unleſs he make it appear he has actually taken up money in the place whereon the bill was drawn.

Otherwiſe the rechange will amount to the reſtitution of the firſt exchange, with intereſt, the expences of proteſting, and of the journey, if there have been any.

If a bill of exchange, payable to the bearer, or order, come to be proteſted, the rechange is only due upon the drawer for the place where the remittance was made; not

for thoſe places where it may have been negociated; at leaſt, the drawer has a right to be refunded his rechange for thoſe places, by the indorſer.

Indeed the rechange is due from the drawer, upon all places, where a power of negociating is given by the bill, and upon all others, if the power of negotiating be indefinite. Laſtly, the intereſt of the rechange of the expences of the proteſt, and the journey, are only due from the day of the demand.

It is ſuppoſed to be the Gibelins driven out of Italy by the Guelphs, and ſheltered at Amſterdam, who firſt eſtabliſhed the cuſtom of rechange, on pretence of the intereſts, damages, and expences they underwent, when the bills given them for the effects they had been obliged to abandon, were not accepted, but came to be proteſted.

RECKONING, in navigation, the act of keeping an account of the ſhip's way, ſo as to be able, at any time, to know what latitude and longitude ſhe is in, and her diſtance from any port, &c.

*Dead reckoning*, in navigation, the account of a ſhip's way, &c. deduced intirely from the log-line, and courſe ſteered, before it is corrected by any obſervation.

RECOUPE, ſignifies the keeping back and ſtopping of ſomething which is due, and in our law, we uſe it for to defalk of diſcount; as if a perſon hath a rent of ten pounds, out of certain lands, and he diſſeizes the tenant of the land, in an aſſize brought by the diſſeizee, if he recovers the land and damages, the diſſeizer ſhall recoupe the rent due in the damages: ſo of a rent-charge iſſuing out of land, paid by the ſaid tenant to another, &c. he may recoupe the ſame. *Terms de Lay. Dyer* 2. And an inn-keeper may keep back and detain his gueſt's horſe, &c. till he pay for his entertainment: but a man that receives another's cattle to paſturage, it is ſaid may not do ſo, unleſs it be agreed between them at firſt. 1 *Cro.* 196, 197. *See* DEBT and DEBTORS.

RECTA PRISA REGIS, the king's right to a prize, or taking of one butt or pipe of wine before the maſt, and another behind the maſt, as a cuſtom for every ſhip laden with wines. King Edward I. in a charter of many privileges to the barons of the cinque-ports, diſcharged them of this duty.

RECTIFIED SPIRITS, ſuch as have undergone the operation of rectification, or are freed from their phlegm.

RECTIFIER, in navigation, an inſtrument conſiſting of two parts, which are two circles either laid one upon, or let into the other, and ſo faſtened together in their centers, that they repreſent two compaſſes, one fixed, the other moveable; each of them divided into the thirty-two points of the compaſs, and three hundered and ſixty degrees, and numbered both ways, both from the north and the ſouth, ending at the eaſt and weſt in ninety degrees.

The fixed compaſs repreſents the horizon, in which the north and all the other points of the compaſs are fixed and immoveable.

The moveable compaſs repreſents the mariners compaſs, in which the north and all the other points are liable to variation.

In the center of the moveable compaſs is faſtened a ſilk thread, long enough to reach the outſide of the fixed compaſs. But, if the inſtrument be made of wood, there is an index inſtead of the thread.

Its uſe is to find the variation of the compaſs, to rectify the courſe at ſea, having the amplitude of azimuth given.

RED, one of the primary colours of light. *See* COLOURS.

The red rays are of all others the moſt refrangible. Hence, as Sir Iſaac Newton ſuppoſes the different degrees of refrangibility to ariſe from the different magnitudes of the luminous particles, of which the rays conſiſt; the red rays, or red light, is concluded to be that which conſiſts of the larger particles.

Red is diſtinguiſhed into three kinds; one bordering on the blue, as columbine or dove-colour, purple or crimſon; another bordering on yellow, or flame-colour, and orange.

Between theſe extremes is a medium, partaking neither of the one nor the other, which is what we properly call red.

Acids turn black, blue, and violet into red; and red into yellow; and yellow into a very pale yellow.

Alcalis change red into violet or purple, and yellow into feuillemort, or dead-leaf colour.

Terreſtrial and ſulphureous matters become red by extreme heat; and ſome at length black, as may be ſeen in brick, red-bole, red-chalk, ſlate, pumice, which, when vitrified by a burning glaſs, become black; lobſters become red by boiling by a moderate fire, and, by a violent fire, black.

Mercury and ſulphur, mixed and heated over a moderate fire, make a beautiful red, called artificial cinnabar.

An acid ſpirit, as lemon juice, being poured on a blue ſolution of turnſole, turns it into a beautiful red: alcali reſtores it to its original blue.

Filtrating the reddeſt wine takes from it all its red colour.

M. de la Hire obſerves, that a very luminous body, viewed through a black one, always appears red; as when the ſun is ſeen ſhining through a black cloud.

He adds, that many perſons, who ſee all the other colours perfectly well, yet have no idea of red, and only ſee it as black. Some dyers reckon ſeven kinds or caſts of red, viz. ſcarlet-red, crimſon-red, madder-red, half-grain red, lively orange red, and ſcarlet of cochineal; but they may all be reduced to theſe three, according to the three principal drugs, which are vermillion, cochineal, and madder. The fine ſcarlet, called ſcarlet of the Gobelins, is made of agaric water prepared with bran, and turned a little ſouriſh; woad, and ſcarlet-green or vermillion; ſome dyers add cochineal, and others fænugreek, brightening it with ſour water, agaric, tartar, and turmeric. Crimſon red is made with ſour water, tartar, cochineal, maſtic.

Madder red is made with madder, to which ſome add realgar and arſenic; others common ſalt, or other ſalts, with wheat flour; or agaric, with ſpirit of wine, galls or turmeric.

The half-grain is made with agaric or ſour water, half ſcarlet grain, half madder, and ſometimes turmeric.

As to the lively orange red, the ſtuff muſt be firſt laid in yellow, then in a liquor made of goats hair (which has been boiled ſeveral times with madder) and now diſſolved over the fire with certain acids, as tartar, &c.

The half crimſon is made of half madder, half cochineal. The ſcarlet of cochineal, or Dutch ſcarlet, is made with ſtarch, tartar, and cochineal; after it has been firſt boiled with allum, tartar, ſal gemmæ, and aqua fortis, in which tin has been diſſolved.

Beſides theſe ſeven reds, which are good and allowed colours, there is alſo a Braſil red, which is diſcouraged, as fading eaſily. Of the ſeven good reds, only four have particular caſts or ſhades; the madder red, the crimſon red, the lively orange red, and the ſcarlet of cochineal. The caſts or ſhades of crimſon are fleſh-colour, peach-colour, carnation-roſe-colour, an apple-tree flower colour. Thoſe of madder are fleſh-colour, onion-peel-colour, and flame-colour. Thoſe of orange are the ſame as thoſe of crimſon.

RED SEA. *See* CAIRO, EGYPT.

REDDLE, *or* RED CHALK, a red foſſile ſtone, uſed to make red pencils, or crayons for deſigning, &c.

REE, RE, REIS, *or* RES, a ſmall Portugueſe copper coin, nearly equal to a third part of the Engliſh farthing.

REELING, in the manufactures, the manner of winding thread, ſilk, cotton, or the like, into a ſkain, or on a bottom, to prevent its being intangled.

RE-EXCHANGE, is the like ſum of money payable by the drawer of a bill of exchange which is returned proteſted, for the exchange of the ſum mentioned in the bill back again to the place whence it was drawn. *See* RECHANGE.

REFE, a long meaſure uſed at Madagaſcar, nearly what is called the braſſe in Europe. They alſo uſe the demy-refe, or ſpan.

REFINER. This is a diſtinct branch of trade by itſelf; for though the goldſmith ought to refine metals, yet he finds it for his advantage to employ thoſe who make it their ſole buſineſs. They ſeparate gold and ſilver from other metals, and reduce them to the proper ſtandard. Some of the refiners alſo deal largely in ſelling gold and ſilver to the various artiſts who work up thoſe valuable materials. The refiners take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn from half a crown to three ſhillings and ſix-pence a day; or ſet up maſter with two hundred pounds, though ſome employ ſeveral thouſand pounds in this trade. The principal qualifications in a boy deſigned for this buſineſs are, a ſound conſtitution, and particularly good lungs; for the workmen are ſubject to paralytic

ralytic diſorders, from the effluvia of the mercury uſed in ſeparating metals; but it is a very profitable buſineſs for the maſter. *See* ASSAY.

REFUNDING, A an attorney, lying ill of the ſickneſs of which he afterwards died, takes B for his clerk, and receives one hundred and twenty pounds, and by articles agrees with the father of B to return ſixty pounds of the money if he died within a year. A died within three weeks. The executor of A was decreed to pay back one hundred guineas. *Ver.* 466. *pl.* 437. *Trin.* 1687. *Newton* v. *Rowſe.*

A was indebted to B by mortgage in four hundred pounds, principal monies, and died. B died, leaving J S executor. On a bill in chancery, for payment of debts of A out of lands charged with the ſame, the maſter reported ſeven hundred pounds due on the ſaid mortgage, and the executor received the whole ſeven hundred pounds; but afterwards it appeared that three hundred and thirty-five pounds thirteeen ſhillings and a penny, had been paid to B the teſtator, by A in his life time; whereupon the truſtees and *ceſtui que truſt*, an infant, brought a bill to be relieved againſt this overpayment; the executor defendant pleaded all the former proceedings, and alſo that he, before any notice of the overpayment, as executor of B, had paid away the ſeven hundred pounds in the debts of B. The maſter of the Rolls decreed the executor to repay the ſurplus, and he to be at liberty to ſue ſuch creditors, as through miſtake he had paid, to refund; and this decree was affirmed by lord chancellor Cowper, who compared it to the caſe of a judgment obtained by the executor, and after reverſed in error, and to that of a decree which is afterwards reverſed by appeal; though he ſaid that in the laſt caſe of an appeal, if the defendant had delayed the appeal, and willingly ſtood by whilſt the executor paid away the money to the teſtator's creditors, it would be otherwiſe; for this would be drawing the executor into a ſnare. *Wms's Rep.* 355. *Trin.* 1717. *Pooley* v. *Ray.*

A for ſix hundred pounds purchaſes B's intereſt and poſſibility in ſuch an eſtate to him and his heirs; the land is evicted. A is not intitled to have his ſix hundred pounds back, but his bill was diſmiſſed. *Fin. Rep.* 288. *Hill.* 29. *Car.* II. *Maynard* v. *Moſely.*

Croſs-bill was brought for creditors to take their proportionable ſhares, but the debts having been paid to them, and releaſes given by them, it was diſmiſſed. 2 *Chan.* R. 173. 31 *Car.* II. *Tucker.* v. *Searle.*

A ſells a place in the guards for four hundred pounds to B, who enjoyed it three years, and then is turned out, and ſuggeſted in the bill, but not proved, to be by A's means or procurement; ordered that what money had been received, ſhould be paid. 2 *Chan. caſes* 82. *Hill* 33 and 34 *Car.* II. *Coniers* v. *Hammond.*

If an executor pays a debt on a ſimple contract, there ſhall be no refunding to a creditor of an higher nature. 2 *Vent.* 360. *Paſch.* 35 *Car.* II. *Hodges* v. *Waddington.*

A mortgagee received intereſt on an old mortgage after the rate of eight pounds *per cent.* after the ſtatute for reducing it to ſix pounds *per cent.* decreed, and ſo confirmed a former decree, that the eight pounds *per cent.* paid ſhould be retained, and that the two pounds *per cent.* ſhould not be diſcounted nor applied towards ſatisfaction of the principal, though it had been ſo paid for fifteen years after the making the ſtatute. 2 *Ver.* 42, 78. *Paſch.* and *Trin.* 1688. *Walker* v. *Penry.*

REGAL FISHES, are whales and ſturgeons, ſome add porpuſſes. The king by his prerogative ought to have every whale caſt on ſhore, or wrecked, in all places within this realm, (unleſs granted to ſubjects by ſpecial words) as a royal fiſh. The king himſelf ſhall have the head and body to make oil and other things, and the queen the tail to make whale-bones for her royal veſtments. *Pat.* 1 *Edw.* I. *m.* 25 *Dorſo.*

REGISTER SHIPS are ſent out by merchants at Cadiz or Seville, when they judge that goods muſt be wanted at any certain port in the Weſt-Indies. The courſe is, to petition the council of the Indies for licence to ſend a ſhip of three hundred tons burthen, or under, to that port: they pay for this licence forty thouſand or fifty thouſand dollars, beſides preſents to the officers, in proportion to the connivance neceſſary to their deſign: for though the licence runs only to three hundred tons at moſt, the veſſel fitted out is ſeldom leſs than ſix hundred. This ſhip and cargo are regiſtered at the pretended burthen. It is required too, that a certificate be brought from the king's officer at the port to which the regiſter-ſhip is bound, that ſhe does not exceed the ſize at which ſhe is regiſtered; all this paſſes of courſe. Theſe are what they call regiſter ſhips, and by theſe the trade has been carried on principally for ſome years paſt; which practice has been thought as much to the prejudice of their trade, as it is contrary to all their former maxims for carrying it on.

REGRATOR, ſignifies him that buys wares or victuals, on purpoſe to enhance the prices; formerly ſuch as bought by great, and ſold by retail, came under that notion. 27 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 3. But now that name denotes him that buys and ſells any wares or victuals in the ſame market or fair, or within five miles thereof, whereof ſee the ſtat. 5 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 14. 5 *Eliz. c.* 12. and 13 *Eliz. c.* 25. In the civil law ſuch is called *dardanarius*, *a dardano quodam hujus ſceleris authore*, ſaith Spelman. Heretofore both the ingroſſer and regrator, were comprehended under the word foreſtaller. 3 *Inſt.* 195. and as ſuch ſhall be puniſhed. *See* FORESTALLING.

RELEASE, is an inſtrument whereby eſtates, rights, titles, entries, actions, and other things, are ſometimes extinguiſhed, ſometimes transferred, ſometimes abridged, ſometimes enlarged. And there is a releaſe in fact, and a releaſe in law. A releaſe in fact, is that which the very words expreſsly declare: a releaſe in law, is that which doth acquit by way of conſequence or intendment of law.

A releaſe is the giving or diſcharging of a right of action which a man hath or may claim againſt another, or that which is his; or it is the conveyance of a man's intereſt or right which he hath to a thing to another who hath poſſeſſion thereof, or ſome eſtate therein. 4 *Bac. Abr.* 263.

Releaſes are diſtinguiſhed into expreſs releaſes in deed, and thoſe ariſing by operation of law; and are made of lands and tenements, goods and chattels, or of actions real, perſonal and mixed. *Co. Lit.* 264. a.

Theſe are to be adapted to the nature of the caſe, and the purpoſes for which the releaſe is intended; ſo that if a man be diſſeiſed of lands, or diſpoſſeſſed of goods, and releaſe all actions, he may notwithſtanding enter into his lands, or retake his goods, though he has diveſted himſelf of his remedy. *Hob.* 163. 4 *Co.* 63.

So where a man has divers means to come to his right, he may releaſe one, and get advantage of the other; but if a man has not any means to come to his right but by way of action, there by a releaſe of all actions his right by judgment of law is gone, becauſe by his own act he has barred himſelf of all means to come at it. 8 *Co.* 152. *Co. Lit.* 286.

Heretofore releaſes were conſtrued with much nicety and great ſtrictneſs, and being conſidered as the deed or grant of the party, were, according to the rule of the law, ſtrongeſt againſt the releaſer; they now receive ſuch interpretations as theſe grants and agreements do, and are favoured by the judges as tending to repoſe and quietneſs. *Dyer.* 56. *Plowd.* 289. *Hetl.* 15. 8 *Co.* 148.

Hence it hath been eſtabliſhed as a general rule in the conſtruction of releaſes, that where there are general words only in a releaſe, they ſhall be taken moſt ſtrongly againſt the releaſer; but where there is a particular recital in a deed, and then general words follow, the general words ſhall be qualified by the ſpecial words. 1 *Mod.* 99. 1 *Ld. Raym.* 235.

REMITTANCE, in commerce, the traffic or return of money from one place to another, by bills of exchange, orders, or the like. *See* BILLS *of Exchange.*

*Remittance* is alſo uſed to imply the fee allowed the banker for his remitting the money.

RENFREW. This is in general a more pleaſant than fertile country, though it furniſhes ſufficient neceſſaries for the natives, and that part bordering on the Clyde is very fruitful. At Greenock is the chief ſeat of the weſtern herring fiſhery; and at Paſly, and for three miles above it, in the river Whiticart, are found many pearls, eſteemed for their ſize and beauty.

RENT ſignifies with us a ſum of money, or other conſideration iſſuing yearly out of lands, or tenements; of which there are three ſorts, viz. rent-ſervice, rent-charge, and rent-ſeck. Rent-ſervice, is where a man holds his lands of his lord by fealty and certain rent, or by fealty-ſervice, and certain rent; or that which a man making leaſe to ano-

ther for term of years, reſerveth yearly to be paid him for them. In the terms of the law, this reaſon is given for it, becauſe it is at his pleaſure either to diſtrain, or bring an action of debt. Rent-charge is, where a man makes over his eſtate to another, by deed indented, either in fee, or fee-tail, or for term of life; yet reſerves to himſelf, by the ſame indenture, a ſum of money yearly to be paid to him, with clauſe of diſtreſs for non-payment. Rent-ſeck, otherwiſe a dry rent, is that, which a man making over his eſtate by deed indented, reſerveth yearly to be paid him; without clauſe of diſtreſs mentioned in the indenture.

REPORTS, *on ſhip's arrival home, made at the Cuſtom-houſe.* After exactly copying the manifeſt on two ſheets of paper, you muſt go to the comptroller, or to the deputy comptroller, in the long-room of the Cuſtom-houſe (accompanied by the maſter) and read the two manifeſts over with him, of which he retains that wrote on the plain ſheet, and the other with the printed oath, you muſt return to the uſher from whom you received it, who, after examining the maſter concerning the ſhip, and this latter has ſworn to the manifeſt, the uſher directs you how, and to whom you muſt pay for entering the ſhip, and your next buſineſs is to ſee whether thoſe principally concerned in her cargo, have made their entries, that if they have not, you may apply for their doing it, in order to ſet the ſhip to work, and begin her diſcharge.

*Directions how to proceed after the report is made.*

The perſon directed by the owners to take an account of every merchant's goods as they are delivered (called the ſhip's huſband) having got the land-waiter's name, who is appointed for the ſhip, he applies to him for information of what merchants have made their entries, and for a copy of his warrant, which he ſigns, and ſends aboard the ſhip to the officers there, that they may commence their work, which they ſoon after do, and ſend a hoy or lighter to the quays.

And againſt the lighter's arrival the ſhip's huſband has prepared a book, ruled in the ſame manner as the waiter's; on one ſide of which he places the number or quantity of goods he judges the lighter may contain (as in the margin) and oppoſite thereto, he ſets down the marks and numbers of each parcel as they are landed; and as ſoon as the lighter is delivered, he takes a view, or gets the ſurveyor to give him an account of the damage (if any) upon the goods.

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 A B. | No. 4 |
| 2 C D. | 8 |
| 3 E F. | 5 |
| 4 G H. | 9 |

REPRISALS. *See* LETTERS *of Marque*, PRIVATEERS.

RESIN, *reſina*, a fat viſcid ſulphureous juice, oozing either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from ſeveral trees, &c.

Reſins conſiſt of oil and acid, and accordingly are artificially produced. They are either ſolid or liquid; but theſe differ from one another only in the proportion of earth that enters their compoſition.

Let the tinctures prepared with alcohol from fat reſinous vegetables be firſt well clarified by ſtanding, then diſtilled in a glaſs body, with a gentle fire till only one fourth remains behind: the alcohol, thus drawn off, is to be kept for the ſame uſe again. Then pour the thickened tincture into a low glaſs, with the mouth wide enough to admit the hand; and let this veſſel contain twelve times the quantity of fair water, in proportion to the thickened tincture. The mixture then will inſtantly grow thick, and ſoon exhibit yellow curds, which, when fallen to the bottom, conſtitute a groſs viſcous, unctuous, and ſomewhat tranſparent matter; then ſet the glaſs in a ſand furnace, and draw off the remaining alcohol, by means of an alembic, continuing the operations ſo long as the veins in the head ſhew any ſpirit to riſe, and add this ſpirit to the former. At the bottom there will remain the water with the above-mentioned matter below it. This matter liquifies in hot weather, but grows hard in the cold. The water being thrown away, though it ſtill retains ſome odour or taſte, though but little virtue, let the reſinous matter collect and unite into a maſs at the bottom. It will firſt be flexible, ſoft, and, when touched, ſtick incommodiouſly to the fingers; but, when waſhed for ſome time in ſeveral waters, it begins to cool and harden, and when dried appears a hard dried tranſparent body, that will run with heat, diſſolve in oil and alcohol, but not in water, and burn in the fire like oil. This matter is called by the chemiſts reſin, and requires to be kept in a cool dry place, and in a cloſe dry veſſel.

This reſin may be thus prepared from almoſt any oily, ponderous, dry, and reſinous parts of vegetables. Nature often produces the like from vegetables, but no where more perfect than in the camphire-tree, which yields a pure, white, tranſparent, highly odorous volatile reſin, though hard to grind: and next to this is benjamin, which is alſo a pure volatile reſin, copiouſly afforded by the tree. But when pure alcohol acts upon reſinous plants, whilſt yet green and juicy, the water abounding in theſe juices mixes with the alcohol and dilutes it; whence it acts like common rectified ſpirit, or rectified ſpirit of wine, in proportion as the plant contained more or leſs water; and thus its action becomes different. Some of the greateſt artiſts have obſerved that the proper diſtilled aromatic oils, abounding with their own ſpirits, grow reſinous, as often as they are deprived thereof; and this is certainly found in ſome oils, for if pure oil of cinnamon be diſſolved in alcohol, and the alcohol be with a gentle fire drawn over from it by diſtillation, it carries over the ſpirit with it, and leaves the oil behind deprived thereof, and reſinous. But as the purging virtues of certain plants partly reſide in that reſinous matter, which alcohol extracts, and partly in another active part of the plant, which diſſolves in water, as appears in jalap; the remainder of ſuch a plant, after the pure alcohol has extracted all the reſin, will afford another part by being boiled in water. And if this decoction be ſtrained, inſpiſſated with a gentle fire to the conſiſtence of an extract, and afterwards mixed along with the reſin diſſolved in the yolk of an egg, there will thus be obtained an excellent compoſition, containing almoſt the whole medicinal virtue in a little compaſs.

RESTRAINT. *See* EMBARGO.

REVEL. *See* LIVONIA.

REVENUE, in its ordinary acceptation, is the yearly rent, or profits, ariſing to a man from his lands, poſſeſſions, &c. The public revenue of this kingdom is the yearly income, or ſums raiſed, at preſent, by the authority of king, lords, and commons for the ſupport of the ſtate.

The ſucceſs of a kingdom, ſays a judicious writer, depends upon a wiſe regulation of its revenues. When taxes are not levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of the ſubject, a moth in the treaſury, the univerſal lamentation of a kingdom, and the intereſt and joy of foreigners.

But a prudent diſpoſition of them is the ſoul of a ſtate, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and diſtreſs to foreigners, and a perpetual fountain of the richeſt bleſſings to human life.

Not only the intereſt of trade, but the maintenance of the liberties of theſe kingdoms, will ever conſiſt in keeping princes dependent on the parliament for the money that ſhall be exacted from the people.

REVERSION, in law, a returning of lands, &c. into the poſſeſſion of the donor, or his heirs, after the expiration of a term for which they were given or granted to another.

The following table will render the doctrine of reverſion very eaſy.

*A table of reverſions, ſhewing the preſent value of one pound, to be received at the end of any number of years not exceeding forty, diſcounting at the rates of five, four, and three* per cent. *compound intereſt.*

| Years. | Value at 5 *per cent.* | Value at 4 *per cent.* | Value at 3 *per cent.* | Years. | Value at 5 *per cent.* | Value at 4 *per cent.* | Value at 3 *per cent.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | ,9524 | ,9615 | ,9709 | 21 | ,3589 | ,4388 | ,5375 |
| 2 | ,9070 | ,9245 | ,9426 | 22 | ,3418 | ,4219 | ,5219 |
| 3 | ,8638 | ,8898 | ,9151 | 23 | ,3255 | ,4057 | ,5067 |
| 4 | ,8227 | ,8548 | ,8885 | 24 | ,3100 | ,3901 | ,4919 |
| 5 | ,7835 | ,8219 | ,8626 | 25 | ,2953 | ,3757 | ,4779 |
| 6 | ,7462 | ,7903 | ,8375 | 26 | ,2812 | ,3607 | ,4637 |
| 7 | ,7107 | ,7599 | ,8131 | 27 | ,2678 | ,3468 | ,4502 |
| 8 | ,6768 | ,7307 | ,7894 | 28 | ,2551 | ,3335 | ,4371 |
| 9 | ,6446 | ,7026 | ,7664 | 29 | ,2429 | ,3206 | ,4243 |
| 10 | ,6139 | ,6756 | ,7441 | 30 | ,2314 | ,3083 | ,4120 |
| 11 | ,5847 | ,6496 | ,7224 | 31 | ,2204 | ,2965 | ,4000 |
| 12 | ,5568 | ,6246 | ,7014 | 32 | ,2099 | ,2851 | ,3883 |
| 13 | ,5303 | ,6006 | ,6809 | 33 | ,1999 | ,2741 | ,3770 |
| 14 | ,5051 | ,5775 | ,6611 | 34 | ,1903 | ,2636 | ,3660 |
| 15 | ,4810 | ,5553 | ,6419 | 35 | ,1813 | ,2534 | ,3554 |
| 16 | ,4581 | ,5339 | ,6232 | 36 | ,1726 | ,2437 | ,3450 |
| 17 | ,4363 | ,5134 | ,6050 | 37 | ,1644 | ,2343 | ,3350 |
| 18 | ,4155 | ,4936 | ,5874 | 38 | ,1566 | ,2253 | ,3252 |
| 19 | ,3957 | ,4746 | ,5703 | 39 | ,1491 | ,2166 | ,3158 |
| 20 | ,3769 | ,4564 | ,5537 | 40 | ,1420 | ,2083 | ,3066 |

*The uſe of the preceding table.* To find the preſent value of any ſum to be received at the end of a given term of years, diſcounting at the rate of three, four, or five *per cent.* compound intereſt. Find by the above table the preſent value of one pound to be received at the end of the given term, which multiply by the number of pounds propoſed (cutting off four figures from the product on account of the decimals) then the reſult will be the value ſought.

*Example.* Let the ſum propoſed be 800 l. the given term ſeven years, and the rate of intereſt four *per cent.* then the anſwer will appear to be 7599, multiplied by 800, or 607. 9200 l. that is, 607 l. 18 s. 5 d. nearly.

RHAPONTICUM, a medicinal root, reſembling rhubarb. It was called *rhaponticum*, q. d. root of Pontus, becauſe chiefly produced in the country of Pontus in Aſia.

This root is very like rhubarb, but may be diſtinguiſhed from it by leaving a mucous taſte in the mouth, its mucilage being diluted by the ſaliva; and becauſe, when it is cut, it appears regularly marbled, of a red, white, or yellow colour; and theſe colours are diſpoſed in a radiated manner. It is leſs purgative than rhubarb, requiring a double quantity to produce the ſame effect. It is alſo a little aſtringent. *Geoffroy.*

It is common enough in the gardens of botaniſts, and flowers in May. There is ſcarce any difference between this and true rhubarb, only this is more acrimonious, leſs ſolid, and more of a ſaffron colour. Rhapontic is leſs purgative and more aſtringent than rhubarb. It is vulnerary and anodyne, and is of uſe in diarrhæas, dyſenteries, convulſions, ruptures, the orthopnæa, periodical fevers, and venemous bites. The doſe in powder is two drachms, in infuſion ſix drachms.

It is much controverted among botaniſts, as Mr. Ray obſerves, whether the rhapontic of the ancients, and the rhubarb of the moderns, are one and the ſame plant; ſome affirming, others denying it; and ſome among the reſt are inconſiſtent with themſelves, ſometimes making them to be the ſame, at other times different. The various opinions and reaſons for them may be found in J. Bauhine's Appendix to his Hiſtory of Plants; we ſhall only obſerve, with Proſper Alpinus, that our rhapontic is the true rhapontic of Dioſcorides, but quite different from the rhubarb of the ſhops. *Dale.*

RHODIUM, is a ſolid reſinous wood, or root, brought from the Canary Iſlands, in long crooked pieces, full of knots, which, when cut, appear of a yellow colour, like box, with a red caſt, of a bitteriſh taſte, and a fragrant ſmell, reſembling roſes. This root is at preſent only in eſteem upon account of the eſſential oil which it yields in diſtillation, and which is employed as a high and agreeable perfume in ſcenting pomatums, &c. But if we may reaſon from analogy, this odoriferous ſimple might be advantageouſly employed to nobler purpoſes: a tincture of it made with rectified ſpirit of wine, is of an elegant colour, and contains in a ſmall volume the virtue of a conſiderable deal of the root; and therefore bids fair to prove a ſerviceable cordial, not inferior perhaps to any thing of this kind.

Jamaica affords a wood, which the people there call roſe-wood, and which, though not the genuine rhodium of the ſhops, has yet much of its ſmell. Sir Hans Sloane has very accurately deſcribed the tree which affords this, which has a trunk thick enough to afford the largeſt ſegments we ever meet with of it; and poſſibly an adulteration of the true rhodium with this wood may be the true cauſe of the objection which lies againſt our agreeing with Hoffman, that the genuine rhodium is the root of a cytiſus: for this we always obſerve, that theſe pieces which ſeem ſegments of large blocks are always leſs fragrant, and have fewer contortions in their grain than the reſt. Sir Hans Sloane has deſcribed the tree which produces the Jamaica wood, called roſe-wood, under the name of *lauro affinis terebinthi folio alato, ligno odorata candido, flore albo.* The wood is, indeed, always paler by much than any of the true rhodium, and, while freſh, is almoſt white. The tree grows to twenty feet or more in height, and its trunk is often two feet or more in diameter. The leaves are pinnated, three, four, or more parts of pinnæ ſtand on each rib, and that at about half an inch diſtance from each other. The flowers are ſmall and white; they conſiſt of three petals, and they ſtand in cluſters; at a ſlight view they reſemble thoſe of elder. The fruit is a berry, of the ſize of a pepper-corn. Such is the deſcription of the ſweet wood of Jamaica; but it is truly of a different nature from the genuine rhodium, and probably the tree of a wholly different genus. The Dutch diſtil an extremely fragrant oil from the true rhodium, which is often ſold under the name of eſſence of damaſk roſes, whoſe ſmell it very much emulates. We are told, that the rhodium wood is a cordial and an aſtringent, but it is not at preſent uſed in the ſhops.

Many writers on theſe ſubjects have confounded the *lignum rhodium*, with the fragrant wood mentioned under the name of *aſphalathum* by the ancients; but we have no good grounds for ſuch an opinion. The *aſphalathus* of Dioſcorides, called by the Arabians *darſiſahan*, is at preſent wholly unknown in our ſhops; the few, who pretend to have it, keeping under its name fragments of wood of different kinds, with no title to the name they are preſerved under. The ancients themſelves, indeed, do not ſeem at all agreed about the meaning of the term. Dioſcorides recommends that *aſphalathum* as the beſt, which is the hardeſt, and cleaned from its bark; he therefore evidently enough means a wood by it: but Galen, in his account of it, evidently ſhews that what he expreſſed by this name, was the bark of a root. Pliny talks of it as a root; but he ſays it has the ſmell of caſtor, which is ſo far from a perfume, that it ſeems to ſet his *aſphalathum* at a great diſtance from all the reſt: he alſo talks of two kinds, the one the produce of a large tree, the other of a ſmall ſhrub; and adds, that one was brought from the Indies, the other from the iſlands Rhodes and Niſyrus.

The moderns are no more agreed about what was the rhodium of the ancients, than they with one another: Ruellius takes our *lignum rhodium*, here deſcribed, to be it; but Sylvius is for its being our *lignum aloes*; and others ſuppoſe the *cytiſus verus* to be the ſhrub which produces it, thereby, according to Herman's conjecture, making it the ſame with the true rhodium; nor, indeed, are they much better agreed about the rhodium itſelf, Ruellius, Cordus, and Matthiolus deſcribing three evidently different woods under its name. The wood, deſcribed in this article, ſeems of all others to have the faireſt title to the name of rhodium, according to what the oldeſt authors have ſaid of it, and is the beſt ſuccedaneum we can uſe for the *aſphalathum* of the ancients, which is either that, or a loſt medicine.

RHODIAN LAWS. Rhodes is the capital city of a renowned iſland of that name, of about one hundred and twenty miles in circumference, ſituate in that part of the Mediterranean called the Carpathian Sea, over againſt Caria, and near the ſouth-weſt point of the Leſſer Aſia, having Cyprus to the eaſt, Egypt to the ſouth, and Candia to the weſt; its longitude being fifty-eight degrees, and latitude thirty-ſeven degrees and fifty minutes. It was beſieged and taken by the Turkiſh emperor, Solyman, in the year 1522, and has ever ſince been ſubject to the Ottoman empire. Rhodes, amongſt other things, is famous for the huge ſtatue or image of the ſun, which is ſaid to ſhine there at leaſt once every day in the year; the weather, it ſeems, never being ſo cloudy as to deprive the inhabitants of that place, for a whole day together, from the glorious appearance of that luminous body: this ſtatue was ſeventy cubits high, and one of the wonders of the world.

Though the maritime dominion of the Rhodians was once very mighty, yet they did not render themſelves ſo famous by their naval ſtrength, as by their naval laws; to which, even the wiſe and victorious Romans themſelves, paid ſo great a deference and reſpect, that, to the immortal glory of their authors, they were honoured with the ſingular approbation of the Roman emperors, as well as of their ſenate; and they are delivered to us by Peckius, in his Commentaries *De Re Nautica* (of maritime affairs) in two different fragments, the firſt of which, he ſays, had obtained the ſanction of the emperor Tiberius, Adrian, Antoninus, and ſeveral others; and the laſt is to be found in the eleventh book of the Digeſts of the Roman Laws, where it was inſerted by the emperor Juſtinian.

RHUBARB, The druggiſts diſtinguiſh three ſorts of rhubarb in the ſhops, which they name from the places they are brought from. We ſhall only take notice of that which is in greateſt eſteem: this root is in middle-ſized, compact, roundiſh pieces, ſolid, but not ſtinty or hard, of a yellow colour on the outſide, on chewing does not prove mucilaginous or clammy, is of an aſtringent and ſomewhat bitteriſh taſte, and an aromatic, not diſagreeable odour. When broke, it appears variegated like a nutmeg, with lively reddiſh ſtreaks, ſpread tranſverſely acroſs the root. This ſort is eaſily reduced to powder, which is of a fine bright yellow colour, and inſtantly communicates a high ſaffron tinge to water.

Geoffroy relates, that from two ounces of rhubarb was obtained, by means of water, one ounce and twelve grains of a gummy extract; and from the ſame quantity, digeſted with ſpirit of wine, ſcarce three drachms of extract. He likewiſe makes a pretty ſingular remark, that the reſinous extract eaſily diſſolves in water, which he attributes to a large quantity of fixed alcaline ſalt that he ſuppoſes in it. But as there does not appear any experiment, or foundation, from which the actual exiſtence of an alcaline ſalt in this root can be proved, this ſolution is not ſatisfactory, eſpecially as it may be accounted for in another way.

RIAL, *or* RYAL, a Spaniſh ſilver coin; being the eighth part of the piaſtre, or piece of eight; or about ſix-pence three-farthings ſterling.

RIBBON-WEAVER. This is a pretty light eaſy trade, and fit for lads of a ſlender make, or even for girls. The ſilk for the warp, or long way of the ribbon, which is generally of the fineſt kind, is wound round a machine called a warping-frame, and then taken off on a wheel, which is fixed at the end of the loom, and kept at a proper breadth by what is called a ſley, which is not very unlike a fine comb, the ſilk threads going between the teeth. The weaver then winds a coarſer ſort of ſilk on little quills, which are put into the ſhuttle. When ſome of the threads that are round the ſley are, by means of a treadle, which are long pieces of wood fixed to the tackle of the loom, pulled lower than the reſt, and the ſhuttle put through the vacancy. The weaver then putting his foot on the other treadle, pulls down thoſe treadles that were before uppermoſt, and returns the ſhuttle back with his other hand; and this is repeated with aſtoniſhing quickneſs. In this manner all plain weaving is performed; the only difference being in the ſtrength and breadth of the looms, and the labour required to throw the ſhuttle. A quick hand may earn ten or twelve ſhillings a week, by making ribbons. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, whoſe working hours are from ſix to nine. A very little will ſet up a maſter, and honeſty and induſtry will hardly fail of increaſing his ſtock, if he is not burdened with a great family.

RICE. This grain, which is ſo much in eſteem in the Eaſtern countries, that it is the principal corn they uſe, grows to be three or four feet high, with leaves broader than thoſe of wheat, bearing ſpikes much divided, and compoſed of oblong flattiſh grains, having each a beard or awn two or three inches long, forked at the top, and frequently coloured at bottom. They are of a white colour, compoſed of a brown huſk or ſkin. Rice is ſown in Italy, Turkey, and the Eaſt-Indies; and we have as large and as good from Carolina, as from any part of the world.

It is more uſed for food than phyſic, being a wholeſome ſtrengthening grain, reſtringent, and good for thoſe who have ſlipperineſs in their bowels, or are inclinable to a flux or looſeneſs.

*Rice.* To what duties liable on importation, 4 and 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2. Rice and melaſſes not to be brought into England, 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 5. *ſ.* 12. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 1. Rice may be carried from South Carolina, &c. to any part of America ſouthward of the ſaid colonies, 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 27. *See* PLANTATIONS.

RIGA. *See* LIVONIA.

RIVER, *fluvius* or *flumen*, in geography, a flux of water continued through a long narrow channel.

Rivers proceed partly from ſprings, and partly from lakes and confluences of brooks and rivulets, or little rivers. But no river of conſiderable magnitude, as the Elbe, Rhine, &c. flows from one ſpring or lake, but is augmented by the acceſſion of others. Thus the Wolga, or Rha, receives about two hundred brooks and rivers before it diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea, and the Danube receives no leſs before it enters the Euxine Sea. Moſt of the ſmall rivers, many of the middling ones, and all the large ones exonerate themſelves into the ſea, or into a lake; and the place where they diſcharge their water, is called the mouth of the river. Some rivers have one, others two, three, or four mouths. Some will have none to be properly rivers, except thoſe which bear the ſame names from their ſource to their mouths. Others, none but thoſe which empty themſelves immediately into the ſea, and not into other rivers.

Rivers are found ſubject to great alterations, at different ſeaſons of the year, days, &c. from frequent rains or ſnows. In Peru and Chili there are ſome rivers ſo ſmall, that they do not flow in the night-time, but only in the day, becauſe they are fed by the ſnow upon the mountains of the Andes, which is then melted by the heat of the ſun. The like is found in Congo, Angola, Malabar, Coromandel, &c. The rivers alſo in thoſe places are almoſt dried up in ſummer, but ſwell and overflow their banks in winter. And thus the Wolga in May and June is filled with water, and overflows its ſhelves and iſlands occaſioned by the melted ſnows; but, at any other time of the year, it is ſo ſhallow, that it ſcarcely affords a paſſage for loaded ſhips. Varenius ſays, that ſome rivers bury themſelves underground, and break out again in other places like new rivers; and inſtances in, particularly the Niger, which, meeting with the mountains of Nubia, is hid under them, and riſes again on the weſtern ſide of the mountains,

The channels of rivers, except ſuch as were formed at the creation, Varenius thinks, are artificial. His reaſons are, that when a new ſpring breaks out, the water does not make itſelf a channel, but ſpreads over the adjacent land; ſo that men were neceſſitated to cut a channel for it, to ſecure their grounds. He adds, that a great number of channels of rivers are certainly known from hiſtory to have been dug by men.

The water of moſt rivers flows impregnated with particles of metals, minerals, &c. Thus ſome rivers bring ſands intermixed with grains of gold; as in Japan, Peru, Mexico, Africa, Cuba, &c. particularly in Guinea is a river, where the negroes ſeparate the gold duſt from the ſand, and ſell it to the Europeans, who traffic hither for that very purpoſe. The Rhine, in many places, is ſaid to bring a gold mud. As to rivers that bring grains of ſilver, iron, copper, lead, &c. we find no mention of them in authors; though, doubtleſs, there are many, and it may be to them that mineral waters may owe many of their medicinal effects.

M was

M was fined two hundred pounds for diverting part of the river Thames, by which he weakened the current of the river to carry barges, &c. towards London, and other houſes of the king upon the river; and ſuch a thing cannot be done without an *ad quod damnum*; becauſe that river is a highway, and alſo it ought to be by patent of the king to do ſuch a thing. *Noy.* 103. and *Hawk.* P. C. 199. ſays, it is a common nuſance to divert a navigable river in ſuch manner as here is mentioned.

Rivers ſhall not be put in defence, but ſuch, &c. M. C. 9 *Hen.* III. *c.* 16.

Where ſalmon are, ſhall be put in defence from Lady-day till Martinmas. *St. Weſtm.* 2. 13 *Edw.* I. *c.* 47.

For preventing robberies on the Severn. 8 *Hen.* VI. *cap.* 27.

Deſtroying flood-gates erected by authority of parliament, tranſportation, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2. Felony with clergy, 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20.

Penalty on drawing flood-gates. 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 2.

Aire and Calder made navigable. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *cap.* 19.

The Avon made navigable to Saliſbury. 16 and 17 *Car.* II. *c.* 12.

For preſerving the rivers Avon and Froome. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 23. 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20.

For regulating the navigation of the Avon in Warwickſhire. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 39.

Beverly Beck made navigable. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. 18 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 13.

The rivers Brandon and Wavency made navigable. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12.

The Cam made navigable. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 11.

River of Canterbury made navigable. 6 *Hen.* VIII. *cap.* 17.

Navigation of the Cloyde improved, and a light-houſe erected on the iſland of Little Cumray. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20.

River from Colcheſter to Wivenhoe made navigable. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 31. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19.

The Dane made navigable. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 17.

Darwent in Derbyſhire made navigable. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27.

For recovering the navigation of the Dee. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 24. *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35.

The Derwent in Yorkſhire made navigable. 6 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 28.

The Dun made navigable. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 38. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 20. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11.

The Eden made navigable. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14.

The corporation of Exeter may break down wears, &c. in their river. 31 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 4. For building a new wear on the Exe, 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 12.

The Idle made navigable. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30.

The Ivel made navigable. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 62.

The Kennet made navigable. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 21.

The Lark made navigable. 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 22.

The chancellor may grant commiſſions for amendment of the river Ley. 3 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 5. 9 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 9.

For improving the navigation of the Ley. 12 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 32.

The city of London impowered to make the river Lee (or Ley) navigable. 13 *Eliz. c.* 18.

The Loyne made navigable. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12.

The Medway made navigable. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26.

The Mercy and Irwell made navigable. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15.

The Nar made navigable. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19.

The Nine or Nen made navigable. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 69.

The Ouſe in Huntingdonſhire made navigable. 6 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 29.

The navigation of the Ouſe in Yorkſhire improved. 23 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33.

The Rodon in Eſſex made navigable. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33.

Sankey Brook in Lancaſhire made navigable. 28 *G.* II. *cap.* 8.

All men ſhall have free paſſes in the Severn. 9 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 5. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 18. 23 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 12. 28 *H.* VIII. *cap.* 5.

For preſerving the fiſh in the Severn. 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 9.

For preſerving of the Severn. *See* BRISTOL.

The Stower made navigable from Maningtree to Sudbury. 4 *Ann. c.* 15.

Stroudwater made navigable. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13.

The lord mayor ſhall have the conſervation in the breaches of the Thames. 4 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 15.

Nuſances in the Thames prohibited. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 18.

For paſſage by water from London to Oxford. 3 *Jac.* I. *cap.* 20.

The Thames to be made navigable from Bercot to Oxford. 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 32.

Exactions by owners of locks upon the Thames prohibited. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 16. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 2.

For ſtopping Dagenham breach in the Thames. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 17. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 32.

Commiſſioners appointed for regulating the navigation of the Thames. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8.

For a ferry croſs the Thames, from Ratcliff to Rotherhith. 28 *Geo.* II. *c.* 4.

The Tone made navigable from Taunton Dean to Bridgewater. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 8.

The Trent made navigable. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 20.

The Weaver made navigable. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 10. 7 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 28.

Worſley Brook in Lancaſhire made navigable. 10 *G.* II. *cap.* 9.

The rivers Wye and Lugg made navigable. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 14. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 34.

For reſtoring and maintaining the navigation of the river Witham, in the county of Lincoln. 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 32.

RIVETTER OF SADDLES. The rivetter is a kind of ſmith, and is employed by the ſaddler in putting on the iron plates for ſecuring and ſtrengthening the tree, and the ſtays for the ſtirrups, &c. This buſineſs requires neither ingenuity, nor much money. The maſter takes about five pounds with an apprentice: the journeymen have poor wages, and a maſter may ſet up with twenty pounds.

RIXDOLLAR, *or* RIXDALLER, a ſilver coin, ſtruck in ſeveral parts of Germany, Flanders, Poland, Denmark, Sweden, &c.

The rixdollar is one of the moſt current and univerſal coins in the world; it is nearly equal to four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling.

RIZE. The name given to a ſack with fifteen thouſand ducats, in the territories of the grand ſeignior, ſo that it may paſs as a ſort of reckoning money, like a ton of gold in Holland, or a million in France.

ROAD, an open way or paſſage, which forms a commodious communication between one place and another.

The Romans, of all others, took moſt pains about their roads. The labour and expence they were at to render them ſpacious, ſtrait, ſmooth, and agreeable, to the very extremities of their empire, are incredible. They uſually ſtrengthened the ground, by ramming it with flints, pebbles, or ſand; ſometimes by a lining of maſonry, rubbiſh, bricks, &c. cemented together with lime. Sometimes, they paved their roads regularly with large free-ſtones, as were the Appian and Flaminian ways. They had alſo their double roads, having two pavements, or cauſeways; the one for carriages going one way, the other for thoſe returning the other, to prevent ſtops and confuſion. Theſe two ways were ſeparated from each other, by a bank raiſed in the middle, paved with bricks for the convenience of foot paſſengers, with mounting ſtones from ſpace to ſpace and military columns to mark the diſtance; ſuch was the road from Rome to Oſtia, called *via Portuentis.*

ROAD *for ſhipping*, is any place near the land, where they ride conveniently at anchor.

ROB, in pharmacy, a preparation much uſed by the ancients, conſiſting of the juices of fruits, purified and boiled to a conſumption of two-thirds of their moiſture.

ROBE-MAKER. The robe-maker is a kind of taylor; he makes the canonical habits for the clergy, robes for the lord chancellor, judges, and gentlemen of the law; the furr gowns of the liverymen; riding-habits for the ladies, coronation-robes, the dreſſes of the different orders of knighthuod, and, in ſhort, any dreſs for the gentlemen, out of the common way of coat, waiſtcoat, and breeches, except maſquerade-habits, which, we think, are made by others. It is a very profitable employ, they having large prices for their work: it is ſomething better for a journeyman

man than being a common taylor, though not much, unleſs they can be truſted to cut out. They take with an apprentice from ten to twenty pounds; who, when out of his time, may ſet up with one hundred pounds; but it requires a good acquaintance to be able to get cuſtom.

ROCHELLE, AUNIS, SAINTONGE, &c. The productſ of the provinces and country that compoſe this receiverſhip, are ſalt, wine, brandy, and hemp, beſides a number of excellent horſes; and their manufactures are of linen, principally at Barbeſieux. Great quantities of ſugar are refined at Rochelle, and about thirty-four thouſand muids of ſalt gathered in the iſle of Rhé; eighteen thouſand ton of wine, and ten thouſand barrels of brandy. This iſland is alſo famous for the aniſeed water made here, not only among the French, but foreigners. Oleron produces about four thouſand barrels of brandy, and the ſands of Ollonne yield near twenty thouſand muids of ſalt: vaſt quantities of wine are gathered, and brandy diſtilled, at Rochefort, Charente, Aigre, Xaintes, Cognac, and their diſtricts. Angoulemme affords four ſorts of merchandize, viz. brandy, paper, ſaffron, and iron, this laſt having forges for it at Perigord, Aubaroche, Rudeau, the Chapple, Bourequoil, New Forge, Jomeliers, the Angoumois, Planchemenier, and Feuillade.

ROCHESTER. Oyſter fiſhery in the Medway how regulated by the corporation of Rocheſter. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19.

ROCK-CRYSTAL, is that ſuppoſed to be formed by a completion of the lapidific juice which trickles down in rocks and caverns.

ROD, is otherwiſe called a perch, and is a meaſure of ſixteen feet and a half, and in Staffordſhire twenty feet, to meaſure land with. *See* PERCH.

ROE *of a fiſh*, that part which contains the ſperm or ſeed. The male fiſhes are uſually diſtinguiſhed by the name of ſoft roe, or milt; that of the female by hard roe, or ſpawn.

ROE-NENG. This is the largeſt meaſure for lengths and diſtances uſed in the kingdom of Siam, being the Siameſe league, of near two thouſand French toiſes. There goes to it twenty jods, four ſens to the jod, twenty voua to the ſen, and two ken to the voua; the ken is the Siam aune, &c. *See* KEN.

ROMAGNIA, *or* ROMANIA, a province in Italy, in the pope's dominions, bounded on the eaſt by the Marcha d'Ancona, along the river Foglia; on the ſouth by the Apennine Hills, which part it from Tuſcany; on the weſt by Lombardy, along the Panero; and on the north by the fens of Verona and the Po, and by part of the Venetian gulph.

This whole country is naturally very rich and delightful, and the plains and vallies productive of corn, wine, oil, fruits, and paſtures for cattle. There are ſome large woods, which abound with all kinds of game; and thoſe parts, which are contiguous to the Adriatic Sea, furniſh the country with a ſufficiency of ſalt, both for itſelf and all the neighbouring inland territories. The ſea, as well as their many rivers, ſupply it with plenty and variety of fiſh; and ſome of theſe being navigable, help to carry on an advantageous commerce. The people here are ſtrong and laborious, and equally fit for arms, traffic, or learning; and the mountains yield mines of ſeveral metals, and the country hath various hot mineral ſprings, of excellent virtue for the preſervation of health.

*Ravenna city*, hath the Adriatic on the eaſt; the air is very healthy, and the vines in its neighbourhood furniſh it with plenty of delicious wines; but as they have no freſh water but that of rain, the town often labours under a great ſcarcity of it.

*Cervia*, ſituate in an unhealthy air, near the coaſt of the Adriatic gulph, twelve miles ſouth-eaſt from Ravenna, and fifteen from Rimini. The air is ſo bad, and the place ſo thinly inhabited, that it doth not contain above four hundred inhabitants: it has ſome ſalt-works, which bring in a conſiderable profit.

*Rimini* is pleaſantly ſituated, on a ſpacious plain on the coaſt of the Adriatic gulph, at the mouth of the river Mareckhia; it being ſeated between a fertile plain on one ſide, and hilly grounds on the other, covered with gardens, vines, olives, and fruit-trees.

*Forli*, a city, ſituate fifteen miles ſouth-weſt of Ravenna; its territory is extremely rich and fertile, and produces not only plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, beans, and other pulſe, but likewiſe great quantities of cummin, anniſe, and cardamum ſeeds; of fenugreek and ſaffron, both wild and cultivated; beſides ſalt and mineral waters, marble, mill ſtones, ſulphur, &c. It is forty-ſix miles round, and has four conſiderable dependencies on it. Here is an academy of wits, which has produced many learned men and works, in various arts and ſciences.

*Faenza*, an ancient city, famed, in regard to its trade, for a fine earthen-ware, called by its name, and not inferior to the Dutch delft; and for its fine linen manufacture.

ROMANIA, RUMELIA, *or* RUMELI, in Turkey, formerly a great part of Thrace, a province of European Turkey, is bounded by Mount Argentum, or Rhodope, anciently called Hæmus, which ſeparates it from Bulgaria, on the north; by the Euxine Sea and Boſphorus, or Streights of Conſtantinople, on the eaſt; by the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora, and the Archipelago, on the ſouth; and by another branch of Mount Rhodope, which ſeparates it from Macedon, on the weſt; being near three hundred miles long, and one hundred and thirty broad. It is a fruitful country, abounding in good arable and paſture ground, but produces ſcarce any wine; and the mountains which divide it from Bulgaria and Macedon are exceeding cold and barren; but then they are of ſuch difficult acceſs, that no country is better defended naturally than this, being encompaſſed by the ſea on the ſouth-eaſt, as it is by theſe mountains on the north-weſt: ſo that ſhould the Turks be driven out of Servia and Bulgaria by the Chriſtians, it would be difficult to penetrate further into the Turkiſh empire.

In the mountains before mentioned are mines of ſilver, lead, and allum; but through the lazineſs of the Turks, the riches that might be gathered from thence are loſt. Its chief river is the Mariza, which riſes at the foot of Mount Rhodope, and falls into the Archipelago at Eno, againſt the iſle of Samandrachi. In this river it is ſaid that gold ſand is ſometimes found, ſuppoſed to be waſhed down from the mountains.

The chief cities and towns are theſe, viz.

*Conſtantinople*, which *ſee*.

*Adrianople*, is about one hundred and ten miles from Conſtantinople, towards the north-weſt; eighty-five from the confines of Bulgaria, to the ſouth; and one hundred and ſeventy-five from the ſtreights of the Dardanelles, to the north. It is inhabited by Greeks, Jews, Armenians, Turks, and Walachians, and other nations. There is in this city a beautiful exchange, half a mile long, called Ali-Baſſa, taking its name from its founder. It is a vaſt arched building, with ſix gates, and contains three hundred and ſixty-five noble ſhops, including thoſe that are under the arch of the great gate; they are furniſhed with all ſorts of rich goods, and kept by Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, who pay five piaſtres, or crowns, a month for each of them, to the founder's heirs, or to ſuch as have purchaſed them, and half a piaſtre to the moſque of Vecerfeli, granted by the grand ſignior, to whom it belonged. Near this exchange is a ſtreet called Seraci, full of good ſhops, with all ſorts of commodities, which affords a delightful ſight for a mile in length.

*Nicopoli*, ſituate on the left bank of the river Neſſo, near the confines of Macedonia, is a place of pretty good trade.

*Gallipoli*, in Turkiſh *Jebbole*, is a place of great trade, by reaſon of its convenient ſituation, being in the way to Conſtantinople and Adrianople, inſomuch that the baſſa who governs it makes about a thouſand crowns a year of it, beſides the profits of the cadi, aga, and other officers.

The famous canal which ſeparates the two faireſt quarters of the earth, Europe and Aſia, is called the Helleſpont, the Streight of Gallipoli, the canal of the Dardanelles, the arm of St. George, or the mouth of Conſtantinople. This canal is in a fine country, bounded on each ſide with fruitful hills, on which you ſee ſometimes vineyards, ſometimes olive plantations, and a deal of arable land. As you go in, you have Thrace and Cape Greek on the left hand; Phrygia and Cape Janizary on the right; the Propontis, or ſea of Marmora, preſents itſelf on the north, and the Archipelago remains behind on the ſouth. The mouth of the canal is four miles and a half over, and is defended by the new caſtles built in 1659, to ſecure the Turkiſh fleets againſt the inſults of the Venetians, who uſed to attack them in the ſight of the old caſtles. The waters that paſs through this canal,

canal, out of the Propontis, are as rapid as if they flowed beneath a bridge, and, when the north wind blows, no ſhip can enter; but, when it is ſouth, you hardly perceive any current at all; you muſt only beware of the caſtles, and yet the paſſages might be forced without much danger, the caſtles being above four miles aſunder: the Turkiſh artillery, however monſtrous it appears, would not much annoy the ſhips, if they had a good wind, and went in a file. Such merchant ſhips as come from Conſtantinople, ſtop three days at the caſtle on the Aſiatic ſhore, to ſearch whether they have any of the Turks ſlaves on board; and yet there paſſes not a day but ſome or other of theſe poor creatures make a ſhift to eſcape. No ſhip of war, of whatever nation, is exempted from being thus viſited, without an expreſs order from the porte: it is true, it is rather a ceremony than a ſearch. *See* LEVANT *and* TURKEY.

ROME. This city is more celebrated and known by its antiquity, hiſtory, its magnificence, and its grandeur, than by its commerce, as it draws almoſt all from abroad, by its port of Civita Vecchia, at the mouth of the celebrated river Tyber, whoſe ſtream muſt be gone up, to reach Rome; theſe parts afford nothing more to the encreaſe of trade than alum, made in great abundance about ſix miles from Civita Vecchia; but what is wanting here, Bologna and Ancona in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate abundantly ſupply, we mean to commerce, the fertility of the country about the firſt being beyond all imagination, and this improved by the induſtry of its inhabitants, has rendered the city rich and flouriſhing; here are mills for paper, and others for ſawing the wood found in the Appennines; to move hammers for forging iron, for poliſhing gun barrels, to bruiſe the barks; and Valonea for tanning of hides, for making of oil, for flax and hemp, for grinding all ſorts of grain, for winding, twiſting and making ſilk into ſkains, and for an infinitude of other works.

The manufactures of this city are cloths and ſilks, particularly ſattins, damaſks, and velvets, flowered and plain; ſilk ſtockings, linens and crapes. There are raiſed in the neighbourhood a great quantity of ſilk worms, which furniſh the Bolognois with the richeſt part of their trade, for raw ſilk; and beſides the ſilk in ſkains, they here make organcens, which are very much eſteemed.

The other merchandize brought from Bologna, conſiſts in their celebrated ſauſages, of which foreigners take off yearly a ſurprizing quantity, packed up with cotton in little deal boxes, and ornamented with painting and gilding; here is likewiſe a conſiderable trade in quince marmelade, prepared by the religious recluſes of the place.

Ancona has likewiſe its ſilk fabricks, and tanneries for hides, on which its exports chiefly conſiſt, except in ſome years when large quantities of corn are ſhipped from hence; it was made a free port by Clement XII. in a decree of the ſixteenth of February 1732, very much to the diſlike of the Venetians, as it attracts a large ſhare of that trade carried on before at Venice, both from the north and the Levant.

ROMSDAHL, a ſmall town in Norway, whoſe exports uſually are ſome fiſh, and a little tar.

ROOD, in ſurveying, a ſquare meaſure containing juſt a quarter of an acre of land. Some confound this meaſure with a rod, which is the length of ſixteen feet and a half; and others, with a yard land, or the *quartana terræ*, but both very erroneouſly.

ROPES, old ones may be imported duty free. 11 *Geo.* 1. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 10.

ROPE-MAKER. Ropes are made of hemp-yarn, ſpun in the manner of pack-thread, and then twiſted many threads together, ſometimes to a prodigious thickneſs, and ſmeared over with tar. The lads put to this buſineſs ought to be robuſt and ſtrong, ſince they will be expoſed to the inclemency of the weather, while apprentices. They are taken with very little, or no money. But if they prove good hands, when out of their time, they may get half a crown, or three ſhillings a day. To ſet up, will take from two hundred to a thouſand pounds. This trade requires very little ingenuity, or learning, except writing and arithmetic; which is neceſſary for the meaneſt employment, particularly where there is any proſpect of becoming maſter.

ROSE, a well known flower, produced from a ſhrub of the ſame name.

The roſes uſed in medicine are of two kinds, the red and the damaſk.

The red roſe is expected to be gathered before perfectly expanded, as poſſeſſing its virtues more eminently, while in the bud, than at any other time. They are brought to the ſhops when of the ſize of a large nutmeg, and of a conic figure, large at the baſe where they are received into the cup, and terminating in a point, and are hard, firm, and formed of a number of petals cloſely wrapped and folded one over another, of a deep purple colour, and but little ſmell. They are to be ſeparated from their huſks to fit them for uſe, and the white heels and ungulæ at the baſe, by which they adhered to the cup, are to be cut off, and the apices and ſtamina and other parts of the fructification left behind, it being only the yet unopened petals of this kind of roſe that are uſed in medicine. When thus ſeparated they are juicy and very heavy, while freſh, and eaſily beat up into a conſerve with ſugar. When dried, they become criſp, brittle, and light, and retain their deep purple colour very fair, if the operation has been carefully performed. The apothecaries have a way of drying the white ends they cut off from the petals, in order to uſe them under the name of dried red roſes, but it is a bad practice.

The damaſk roſe is not to be gathered in the bud, but when juſt blown, before the petals become looſe, and begin to fall, and while they are of a fine pale red, for they afterwards become almoſt white. This is the period at which their ſcent is moſt fragrant, and all their virtues in the greateſt perfection. They are to be ſeparated like the red roſe from their cups and ſtamina, and are either diſtilled or dried in this pure ſtate. It is a common error to throw them into the alembic, as they are brought from market with the cups and pieces of pedicles with them; but theſe parts give a ſmell to the water very different from the fragant ſcent it has from the petals of the flower. The red roſe is a powerful aſtringent; eaten crude, it will ſtop diarrhæas; in its conſerve its virtues are debaſed by the ſugar, yet it ſtill is conſiderably aſtringent. The dried flowers are yet more ſo, and the tincture drawn from them by infuſion in water, with the addition of a few drops of oil of vitriol, is of excellent ſervice in many caſes where a cooling ſubaſtringent is neceſſary.

The damaſk roſe, though ſo nearly allied to the red in form and nature, yet is of an exactly contrary quality, a mild and gentle purgative. It is uſed in the ſhops, in form of a ſyrup, made either from the juice or infuſion of freſh flowers. The apothecaries, at this time, uſually make it of the remainder in the alembic, after the diſtillation of the roſe-water. A late diſpenſatory writer put it into their heads, and declares it a very good method; but every body who knows the difference between a decoction and an infuſion, will be ſenſible how vaſtly preferable the medicine will be if made from an infuſion of the flowers poured again and again on freſh parcels of them, till it has imbibed as much of their virtue as it is able to retain.

The roſe-water of the ſhops is diſtilled from the ſpecies of a very fragrant ſmell; it has been celebrated for many virtues, but the ſmell is the only quality now regarded in it. *Hill.*

ROSE-NOBLE, an ancient Engliſh gold coin, firſt ſtruck in the reign of Edward III. and then called the penny of gold, ſince called roſe-noble, becauſe it was ſtamped with a roſe: it was current at ſix ſhillings and eight-pence.

ROSEMARY, *roſmarinus*, a medicinal plant, whoſe flowers are of conſiderable uſe in the preſent practice.

A pound of the picked flowers of roſemary, diſtilled in a retort, yields, firſt, between four and five ounces of a limpid and colourleſs liquor ſmelling of them, but not very ſtrongly, and of a ſomewhat faintly acid taſte, with a mixture of a ſeeming alkaline flavour with it. After this come over about eight ounces of a liquor ſtill clear, but more ſtrongly acid, and toward the laſt runnings ſomewhat auſtere; after this about two drachms of a brown empyreumatic liquor of a ſtrongly acid, and at the ſame time a ſtrongly alkaline ſalt; and after this about an equal quantity of liquor, yet more reddiſh and empyreumatic, impregnated with a volatile alkaline ſalt, with about fifteen grains of the ſame ſalt in a connected form afterwards; and, finally, there come over three drachms or more of a thick and blackiſh oil. The remainder in the retort, calcined in an open

fire and lixiviated, yields about a drachm of a fixed alkaline ſalt. Roſemary has at all times been a favourite ſhrub in medicine; it is full of volatile parts, as appears by its taſte, ſmell, and analyſis. It is a very valuable cephalic, and is good in all diſorders of the nerves, and in hyſteric and hypochondriac caſes. It is good in palſies, apoplexies, epilepſies, and vertigoes. It ſtrengthens the ſight, and ſweetens the breath. It is greatly commended by ſome againſt obſtructions of the viſcera, particularly of the liver and ſpleen, and in the jaundice. The flowers have the credit of being great cordials, and ſome imagine they even poſſeſs the virtues of the whole plant in a more exalted degree than any other part. The flowery tops, leaves, and huſks, together with the flowers themſelves, are much fitter for all purpoſes than the flowers alone.

Roſemary, diſtilled ſimply, yields a fragrant water called dew of roſemary; diſtilled with water in an alembic, it affords a water taſting ſtrongly of it, but of a leſs agreeable ſmell; with rectified ſpirit it makes the fragrant and cephalic liquor called Hungary water. A conſerve is alſo made of the flowers very proper for reducing the ingredients of cephalic electuaries into form, and it is an ingredient in many of the compoſitions of the ſhops.

ROSIN, in what ſhips to be imported. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 8. Importation of it from the Netherlands, or Germany; how prohibited. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 23. To what duties liable on importation. 4 *Will.* and *Mar.* *c.* 5. *ſ.* 2. Bringing it from Scotland how rewarded. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 2. *See* RESIN.

ROSOLIS, *or* ROS-SOLIS, ſun-dew, an agreeable ſpirituous liquor, compoſed of burnt brandy, ſugar, cinnamon, and milk-water, and ſometimes perfumed with a little muſk.

ROSS is fertile in corn, except towards the ſhore next Murray Firth, though it abounds with woods and paſture, which furniſhes food for its numerous herds of cattle, goats, and deer. At Loch-ew great quantities of iron were formerly made, and a little farther north Loch-Brien runs into this county, and is celebrated for its noble yearly fiſhery of herrings, whoſe quantities are inconceivable, except by eye-witneſſes of them: the rivers of this county produce fine pearls, and the diſtrict of Tayn is a very fruitful pleaſant country.

ROTOLO, *or* ROTOLI, a weight uſed in Sicily, ſeveral parts of Italy, Portugal, Cairo, and other places in the Levant and Egypt, Goa, &c. is very different in moſt of theſe parts mentioned, as has been already ſhewn; therefore, as a weight, we have nothing to add about it; and ſhall only ſay that it is alſo a liquid meaſure in ſome cities and ſtates of the Barbary coaſts, thirty-two of them at Tripoli making a matuli (another weight alſo uſed in this city of thirty-two rotolis) and forty-two of theſe rotolis make a mataro, or mataro of Tunis.

ROTTERDAM. This place may well be eſteemed next in rank to Amſterdam; and, in regard to Great-Britain, and the ſouthern trade of Europe, has many advantages beyond that city: the navigation of the Maeſe being, without compariſon, more ſafe and commodious than that of the Texel: the air and the water are alſo better than in Amſterdam: the canals here being broad and deep, convey ſhips of burthen into the heart of the city, and exhibit a view of a flouriſhing trade. Being thus a rival in commerce to the metropolis, it is conſidered as an object of ſome jealouſy; but the power is, for the moſt part, in the hands of the merchants of Amſterdam. Many of the commodities imported here center chiefly in that city, conſequently the ſpirit of competition does not riſe very high. There is indeed buſineſs enough in both cities to furniſh employment to a great number of hands.

Rotterdam has a further advantage: the paſſage of the Maeſe is generally open, particularly in hard winters, ſooner than that of the Texel. They have great magazines of Eaſt-India goods, this city having its quota of that trade. Tobacco, corn, and rice, are alſo conſiderable articles, and chiefly imported from Great-Britain: they have great quantities of tallow from Ireland, for which they return flax, which is a commodity much cultivated in the United Provinces, as it will bear a high rent of land, if properly conducted.

In this city is a very good exchange, where the merchants meet, and tranſact their buſineſs; it was finiſhed ſo late as the year 1736. The Britiſh factory in this place is very conſiderable, and is, for the moſt part, compoſed of North-Britons of the church of Scotland, for which they have a church or meeting-houſe.

Proviſions here are not cheap, though plenty. The factors live parſimoniouſly, after the manner of the country, without parade, but with great ſatisfaction and convenience.

ROUCOU, *or* ROCOE. The roucou, according to the Sieur Pomet, which the Indians call *achiotl*, or *urucu*, the Dutch *orleane*, and we *roucou*, is a fecula, which the inhabitants of the Leward Iſlands and St. Domingo make from a little red grain, or ſeed, which is found in a huſk, or ſhell.

The ſhrub which bears the roucou produces, according to Father du Tertre, from the root ſeveral ſhoots, that grow into ſhrubs, and divide themſelves into ſeveral little branches. The leaves are very like thoſe of lilac, and it bears twice a year, ſeveral cluſters of flowers, that are white, mixed with red, and in ſhape like thoſe of black hellebore; the flowers are full of a vaſt many little ſtamina, or yellow threads, tipped with red. At the fall of the flowers come dark coloured ſeed-veſſels, all haired, or briſtled, with fine little brown points, which do not prick at all. When they are ripe, there are in the middle two double ſeeds, or kernels, entirely ſurrounded with a kind of vermillion, or liquid red dye, which the natives call roucou: it is with this they paint themſelves when they travel abroad; but, before they uſe it, it is mixed with certain oils, which they draw from ſome ſeeds.

The Europeans do it with linſeed oil; they beat it in a mortar with this oil, and, after they have reduced it to a maſs, they ſend it into France, &c. where they uſe it to colour wax when it is too pale, and likewiſe to give a colour to chocolate. There are thoſe likewiſe who beat it in a mortar without oil, and make it into a maſs, or into cakes, which being diſſolved in urine, makes a red tincture, which ſtains as well as the beſt dye in Europe, and is a very good commodity. This is the tree which Scaliger mentions, under the name of *arbor finium regundorum*.

This account of roucou is quite different from that of the Sieur Francis Rouſſeau, who ſays it was a tree of eight or nine feet high, whoſe leaves were like thoſe of the peach-tree; after which came huſks or ſhells, much like the cheſnut-ſhell, furniſhed with little prickles throughout, within which was a little red ſeed, which they bruiſe in a mortar, or on a ſtone, and put into a veſſel of water: in ſhort, that the roucou was made in theſe iſlands after the ſame manner as we make ſtarch, and not according as Mr. Meuve has deſcribed; and that after it was made into cakes and dried, it was ſent hither. This laſt relation is much juſter than the firſt, for as much as the cods, or huſks, we have, exactly agree with his deſcription; beſides, it is eaſy to ſee by the roucou which we ſell, eſpecially when it is good, that it was never ſteeped in oil, in that the good ſmell of the true roucou makes it evident that it has no mixture. Again, we ought to undeceive thoſe who believe that the achiotl is made as the Sieur Blegny deſcribes it, when he ſays that it is a thickened juice, which is drawn from the fruit of the achiotl, which is a fruit-tree of America: that this fruit is a red ſeed, or grain, which is found in great plenty, in large round huſks, or ſhells: that, when they take this ſeed from the huſks, they ſtamp or beat it in a mortar, and then preſs out the juice, which they ſet afterwards in a hot place to evaporate the moiſture, and when it grows thick, almoſt like paſte, they work it into ſeveral forms or ſhapes, which being thoroughly dry, are properly what is called achiotl. Upon the whole, it is certain, that the roucou is made like ſtarch, and that it is impoſſible to draw a juice from it, ſince the matter out of which it is made, is a reddiſh downy ſubſtance, which is found ſticking to the ſeed that is in the huſks, which they cannot ſeparate but by means of water, in the ſame manner as our ſtarch-makers ſeparate the meal from the bran, to make ſtarch of, and is not a juice expreſſed or drawn from the grain, as that author would have.

Chuſe ſuch roucou as is of an orrice or violet ſmell, the drieſt and higheſt coloured you can get: roucou of this kind is that which ought to be called achiotl; but the chief part of that we ſell is moiſt, foul, mouldy, &c. ſo that, in a word, it is unfit to be given inwardly, mixed in chocolate, or otherwiſe. It is an aſtringent, and good in hæmorrhages;

it is alſo much uſed by the dyers. There was brought formerly from theſe iſlands, and alſo from Holland, a roucou in little cakes, of the ſhape of a crown-piece, which was endowed with a great many excellencies, and very good for internal uſes: what we have brought at this time is in great ſquare cakes, like Marſeilles ſoap, or in round balls, and is ſometimes ſo baſe and ſtinking, that it is almoſt impoſſible to uſe it.

The ſavage Americans cultivate the ſhrubs that bear the roucou with great induſtry, becauſe of the many uſes they make of them: ſuch as firſt, to adorn their gardens, and the front of their houſes. Secondly, being a hard dry wood, it ſerves for fuel. Thirdly, the bark ſerves them for cordage, and to make linen. Fourthly, they put the leaves and roots into their ſauces, to give them a reliſh, and to tinge them of a ſaffron colour. Fifthly, from the ſeed they make the roucou, as well to paint their bodies, when worked in oil, eſpecially on great days of rejoicing, as to exchange for other commodities with advantage. This gives us an opportunity to ſpeak of an extract of buckthorn-berries, which is made by preſſing out the juice, and mixing it with white wine and a little alum, and evaporating all into a due conſiſtency, which is a fine green for painters in miniature. There are excellent extracts made likewiſe from black hellebore, pæony, tithymal, and wild cucumbers, called *elaterium*. The ſyrup made from theſe buckthorn-berries *ſyrupus rhamni catharticus*, or *de ſpina cervina*, is an extraordinary hydragogue, or purge for watry humours, and one of the beſt ſtrong purges that is, and therefore good in the king's evil, rheumatiſm, and dropſies. This ſyrup ought to be made of the ripe berries, and gathered about the end of September, or beginning of October; but if they are not ripe, they are not ſo proper to purge withal. There are ſome ſolid extracted juices of liquorice, and ſome others, too common to require a deſcription.

Roucou, called by the Indians, *achiotl*, or *urucu*, ſays Lemery, is a dry paſte, made from a little red ſeed, which is found in a longiſh huſk or cod, that has the ſhape of mirobalans, but prickly, almoſt like thoſe of cheſnuts. Authors are not agreed about the kind of tree or ſhrub that bears that fruit, ſome ſaying that the leaves are like thoſe of lilac, and others peach-leaves.

To prepare roucou, they bruiſe or pound the red ſeed, then they dilute it with water, and paſs it through ſtrainers, to ſeparate the bran or groſſer parts; afterwards they dry this into a ſort of flour or ſtarch. Chuſe the drieſt, ſays he, of a violet colour. The dyers uſe it chiefly, though it is ſometimes made uſe of in chocolate; if it be pure, it ſtrengthens the ſtomach, ſtops looſeneſs, helps digeſtions, promotes reſpiration, and provokes to urine. The *rhamnus catharticus*, or purging thorn (ſpoken of by Pomet) is a ſhrub that grows ſometimes of the height of a tree, whoſe trunk is of a moderate ſize, covered with a bark like the cherry-tree, whoſe wood is yellow; the branches are furniſhed with ſome thorns that are ſharp; the leaves are pretty broad and green, but much leſs than thoſe of the apple-tree, and ſurrounded on their edges with very fine ſmall teeth; the flowers are little, and of a graſs-green, ſucceeded with ſoft berries, as big as the juniper, green at firſt, but grow blackiſh as they ripen, ſhining and full of a dark coloured juice, tending to green, that is bitter, and has within ſome ſeeds joined together.

This ſhrub grows in hedges, woods, and other uncultivated places. The fruit is gathered when ripe, about the midſt of autumn, and is much in uſe amongſt painters, dyers, &c. It yields abundance of eſſential ſalt, oil, and phlegm, beſides an acid liquor, but a very full portion of earth. From theſe berries being preſſed, a purging ſyrup is commonly prepared in the ſhops, with ſome of the warm aromatics, which purges pretty briſkly, and gripes in its working; and therefore ought to be given a little before victuals, ſo that its ſharper force, eſpecially in children and young people, may be a little tied up and blunted by the aliment or food that is taken. This ſyrup is preſcribed from one ounce to two, being briſk in diſcharging watery humours, and therefore very properly given in the gout, cachexy, dropſy, and rheumatiſm. The powder of the berries dried, may be given from one drachm to two; but it will be a great deal better to boil them in broth.

It was once much uſed in medicine, and made an ingredient in chocolate, but at preſent it is hardly ever heard of on any occaſion in the ſhops.

The buckthorn-berries are the fruit of the *rhamnus catharticus vulgaris*. Jonſ. Dend. 236. *Rhamnus ſolutius*. Ger. Em. 1337. The ſyrup made from them is a rough purge, of much eſteem among the common people, but not often preſcribed alone by the phyſicians.

ROUP, beſides being a coin of Poland, is alſo one made and current in ſome provinces of the Turkiſh empire, particularly at Erzerum in Armenia, being worth one-fourth of a Spaniſh dollar.

ROUPEE, a current coin in the empire of the Great Mogul, and in many other places and kingdoms in the Eaſt-Indies. There are both gold and ſilver of this denomination, though thoſe of the firſt metal are ſcarce and in little uſe, weighing two drachms three-quarters and eleven grains; there are alſo its fractions of halves and quarters. The ſilver roupee is of ſo unequal a value, as to be with difficulty fixed on any certain footing, its worth varying according to its quality and the place of its fabrication; there are five ſorts of them, viz. the roupee ſiccas, worth at Bengal thirty-nine ſols Tournois; thoſe of Surate thirty-four, and thoſe of Madras thirty-three, (all of the new ones) thoſe called arcates, and the laſt petch. The new ones are round, and many of the old ones ſquare, though they are both of the ſame weight; and beſides theſe diſtinctions of new and old, the Indians make the other five abovementioned; and it may in general be remarked, that all theſe ſorts are in higher value at the places of their make than elſewhere; and that the new are always worth more than the old; the reaſon of which difference proceeds from the love the natives have of ſilver, which induces them for its preſervation to hide it carefully in the earth, as ſoon as they get a few roupees together. To prevent which diſorder, that drains the countries where it is practiſed of their current ſpecies, the governing prince and rajas ſtamp new ones annually, with an augmentation in value, without any increaſe of weight, and theſe conſequently grow diminiſhing in worth as they grow old. The ſilver roupee is the moſt current money in trade, both at Surate and Bengal; but on the coaſt of Coromandel, the gold pagodes (worth two rix-dollars, or three roupees and one-third) are the moſt in uſe.

It is from the Madras roupee that the value of all others is proportioned, and that varies according as certain circumſtances occur; and theſe different ſorts of roupees have not an equal currency in every place, as may be ſeen by the above valuation of them. The roupee uſed in accompts is only an imaginary ſpecie, as well at Surate as Bengal, to which the value of the old roupee is often reduced, and is worth two-nineteenths leſs than that of Madras. All ſorts of roupees are divided into a ſmaller money, called ana, of which ſixteen go to the roupee; but it muſt be obſerved, that the ana is worth more or leſs in proportion to the value of that kind of roupee, of which it is a part. Some anas are made at Madras, but ſo few, that they are rarely ſeen to paſs, ſo that this ſpecie is rather a reckoning money than a current one. The ſmalleſt coin, and that in greateſt uſe, among the common people, and in the markets, are the couries, eighty of which are counted a pouni, according to the cuſtom of Bengal; ſo that a roupee is divided into anas, pounis, and couries, according to which the following is the value of all roupees as they paſſed at Bengal in 1726.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| The roupee of Madras was worth | 38 pounis, or | 3040 couries. |
| The roupee, ſike or ſicca | 39½ | 3160 |
| The roupee, arcate | 37 | 2960 |
| The roupee, petch | 36½ | 2920 |
| The current, or old roupee | 34 | 2720 |

Beſides which, there are yet two other ſpecies of money in accompts, called the *peys* and *gandan*; the firſt worth ninety-five couries, and the other four. The current roupee is that uſed in the revenues of the Great Mogul, and was, in 1726 and 1727, worth one Dutch guilder and a half, or, which was the ſame thing, a French crown in 1741.

ROXBURGH, fruitful in corn and paſturage, abounds alſo in herds of cattle of the beſt breed in Scotland, both for ſize and goodneſs. Kelſo is a town of good trade, as are ſeveral others in this county.

ROYAL-

ROYAL-EXCHANGE, a commodious and elegant building in the city of London, for the convenient public meeting, at ſtated hours, of the merchants, eminent tradeſmen, brokers, agents, and all who have commercial buſineſs to tranfact, by either buying or ſelling commodities, making contracts, or drawing, or remitting monies, either within the three kingdoms, or on or to foreign countries, by the means of bills of exchange.

ROYAL SOCIETY, *of England*, is an academy or body of perſons of eminent learning, inſtituted by king Charles II. for the promoting of natural knowledge. This illuſtrious body had its original in an aſſembly of ingenious men, who, before the reſtoration, met weekly in Wadham college, at the lodgings of Dr. Wilkins.

Afterwards, from about the year 1658, many of them, living in London, held meetings at Greſham college, till they were at length taken notice of by the king, who was pleaſed to grant them an ample charter, dated April 22, 1663; whereby they were erected into a corporation, conſiſting of a preſident, council, and fellows, for promoting the knowledge of natural things and uſeful experiments.

Their manner of electing fellows is by balloting. Their council are in number twenty-one, eleven of which are continued for the next year, and ten more added to them, all choſen on St. Andrew's day.

Each member, at his admiſſion, ſubſcribes an engagement that he will endeavour to promote the good of the ſociety; from which he may be freed at any time, by ſignifying to the preſident, that he deſires to withdraw.

The charges are forty ſhillings paid to the treaſurer at admiſſion, and thirteen ſhillings *per* quarter, ſo long as he continues a member.

Their deſign is to make faithful records of all the works of nature or art, which come within their reach; ſo that the preſent, as well as after ages, may be able to put a mark on errors which have been ſtrengthened by long preſcription, to reſtore truths that may have been neglected, to puſh thoſe already known to more various uſes, to make the way more paſſable to what remains unrevealed, &c.

To this purpoſe they have made a great many experiments and obſervations on moſt of the works of nature, eclipſes, comets, meteors, mines, plants, earthquakes, inundations, ſprings, damps, ſubterraneous fires, tides, currents, the magnet, &c. Alſo, numbers of ſhort hiſtories of nature, arts, manufactures, uſeful engines, contrivances, &c. The ſervices they have been of to the public are very great. They have improved naval, civil, and military architecture; advanced the ſecurity and perfection of navigation, improved agriculture, and put not only this kingdom, but alſo Ireland, the plantations, &c. upon planting.

They have regiſtered experiments, hiſtories, relations, obſervations, &c. reduced them into one common ſtock, and have from time to time publiſhed ſome of the moſt immediate uſe, under the title of Philoſophical Tranfactions, &c. and laid the reſt up in general regiſters to be tranſmitted to poſterity as a ſolid ground-work for future ſyſtems.

They have a library adapted to their inſtitution, towards which the late earl marſhal contributed the Norfolcian library, and a muſæum, or repoſitory of natural and artificial rarities, given them by Daniel Colwal, Eſq; and ſince enriched by many others. Their motto is *nullius in verba*.

RUBIA TINCTORUM, *or* MADDER, is an oblong, ſlender, juicy root, of a red colour, both externally and internally, of an aſtringent ſweet taſte, mixed with a little bitterneſs; it has little or no ſmell.

In the Philoſophical Tranfactions, we have an account of a remarkable effect of this root: ſeveral hogs, which had fed for ſome time on bran, that had been employed for ſcouring callicoes died red by an infuſion of madder, had all their bones, particularly their teeth, changed into a deep red colour; but neither the fleſhy nor cartilaginous parts ſuffered the leaſt alteration: on ſawing ſeveral of the bones through, all the internal part was found equally tinged, except at the ends where the ſubſtance was more ſpongy. Some of theſe bones being macerated in water for many weeks together, and afterwards ſteeped and boiled in ſpirits, loſt none of their colour, nor communicated any tinge to the liquors in which they were infuſed.

But, as ſeveral other ſubſtances, which the dyers uſe in ſtaining callicoes, might have contributed to this effect; a cock was fed with madder-root mixed with fig-duſt. He died in ſixteen days: on examining the bones, they were found all over of a red colour. *See* MADDER.

RUBIE, a gold coin, current in all the kingdom of Algiers, and in thoſe of Congo and Labez, worth thirty-five aſpers; it is eſpecially ſtruck at Tremecen, which has the privilege of making theſe, as well as the Medians and Zians.

RUBY, *rubinus*, a brilliant gem, being one of the firſt claſs among precious ſtones.

The ruby is equal to any ſtone in beauty, and in value, after the diamond. It is not found in the variety of forms many of the other gems are, but always in the pebble ſhape. No body ever ſaw a columnar or cryſtallic form ruby in the world. Our jewellers, indeed, ſometimes meet with ſtones of a very elegant colour of this ſhape, which, when wrought, are ſold for rubies; but thoſe who work them know the difference. And thoſe who know the true tinge or colour of the ruby, can judge of them at ſight, and know they are not ſo.

The common ſize of rubies is that of a pin's head, but among theſe there are met with conſiderable large ones, which, when pure and free from blemiſhes, are of very great value; the ruby is ſecond only to the diamond in hardneſs; its colnur is a fine and glowing red, which it poſſeſſes in the ſeveral ſpecimens, in all the ſhades and degrees from the deepeſt blood colour to the pale fleſhy tinge of the red diamond: in the deeper ſtones, there is always a faint tinge of purpliſh, diſtinguiſhable among the red; but this grows leſs and leſs perceptible, as the colour is paler, till in the common pale rubies, it is wholly loſt to the ſight, except a very experienced and nice eye, accuſtomed to the examination of the colour of gems, is employed to diſcover it. In its native ſtate its figure is naturally roundiſh, ſometimes oblong, and ſometimes pear-faſhioned, but almoſt always flat on one ſide; and its native poliſh is ſo good, that it is frequently worn without any help from art.

Our jewellers diſtinguiſh the ruby under its ſeveral ſhades of colour into three different kinds. When its colour is ſtrong and full, they call it ſimply the ruby; when the colour is paler, and the ſtone leſs bright and fine, they call it a ſpinal ruby; and, when it is pale, but full of ſpirit and luſtre, they give it the name of balaſs ruby: the colour of this gem is perfectly that of the pale damaſk roſe, and its luſtre equal to that of any gem, except the diamond. The ſmall rubies are uſually very pale, and ſhew very little of the purpliſh tinge. The jewellers alſo tell us of two other kinds, the rock ruby and the rubacille, but neither of theſe is truly of the ruby kind; the firſt is a garnet of a peculiar kind, and the other a ſpecies of hyacinth. We have rubies, truly ſo called, only from the Eaſt-Indies, and they are found there, ſcarce any where elſe, except in the mountain Copelan in Pegu, and in the beds of rivers, and ſome of the mountains in the iſland of Ceylon. The ancients knew the ruby of our times. They, however, confounded it with a multitude of other gems of the ſame colour, under the name of a carbuncle.

There are not wanting medical authors, who tell us that the ruby is the higheſt of all cordials; but no body, at preſent, ſeems in humour to try ſo improbable a medicine. It ſeems to owe its colour to gold, it being poſſible to ſeparate a ſmall portion of gold from the little native rubies, and alſo to give the true colour of the ruby to factitious paſte, by means of that metal.

In M. Savary's *Dict. de Commerce*, we have the following table of the value of rubies, from one carat, or four grains, to ten carats:

| | l. | s. | d. |
|---|---|---|---|
| A ruby of one carat is worth | 1 | 15 | 00 |
| of two carats | 9 | 00 | 00 |
| of three C. | 22 | 10 | 00 |
| of four C. | 33 | 15 | 00 |
| of five C. | 45 | 00 | 00 |
| of ſix C. | 67 | 10 | 00 |
| of ſeven C. | 84 | 00 | 00 |
| of eight C. | 106 | 00 | 00 |
| of nine C. | 150 | 00 | 00 |
| of ten C. | 216 | 00 | 00 |

*Rubies*, may be imported duty free. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

RUDDLE, *rubrica*, a ſort of duſky red chalk, or earth, found in divers parts of England, chiefly in iron mines.

RUE, *ruta hortenſis*, a well known medicinal plant.

Rue is one of the *octandria monogynia* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ flore tetrapetalo anomalæ* of Ray. There are many ſpecies of it, but only one of them is uſed in medicine; this is the common rue of our gardens: the *ruta hortenſis latifolia* of C. Bauhine, and the *ruta ſativa & hortenſis* of other authors.

It is not a native of England, but is cultivated very commonly in our gardens.

A pound of green rue, diſtilled in a retort, yields firſt about three ounces and a half of a limpid colourleſs water, ſmelling ſomewhat of the plant, but of an inſipid taſte, except that a faint, ſaline, and acid flavour juſt diſtinguiſh themſelves; after this, comes over a liquor ſtill limpid and colourleſs, in quantity about ten ounces; this is more ſaline, and leſs acid, in the firſt runnings than the laſt; as it continues to run, it becomes more and more acid, and at laſt auſtere. After this, there come over about three drachms of a brown empyreumatic liquor, highly impregnated with a volatile, alcaline ſalt, and about three drachms of an oil partly thin or fluid, and partly thick. The remainder in the retort, calcined in an open fire, and lixiviated, yields about a drachm of a fixed alcaline ſalt.

Rue has always been in great eſteem as an alexipharmic and cephalic; it is good in all nervous diſeaſes, and in fevers, the ſmall-pox and meaſles, and eminently ſo in hyſteric caſes: it is given by many to ſtrengthen the ſtomach, and prevent the return of habitual cholics. It has been alſo given in pleuriſies and peripneumonies, and againſt the bites of venomous animals. There uſed to be a conſerve, and ſimple water of rue, kept in the ſhops; but the former has been found very unpleaſant, and the latter to contain ſcarce any thing of the plant's virtue, and both have therefore been rejected. The dried herb is now kept to be given in infuſion occaſionally, and to be in readineſs, as an ingredient in many of the officinal compoſitions.

RUM, a ſpirituous liquor, often uſed in punch; it is made in the Weſt-Indies, of ſugar-canes, and is, in the general, of a ſtronger body than brandy, i. e. it contains a larger quantity of oil, and leſs phlegm and ſalt: its oil is leſs attenuated and ſubtilized, whereby its volatile ſalts are more embarraſſed and ſheathed up. Neither is its oil reduced to ſuch minute and ſubtle particles, either becauſe the canes are leſs fermented with the water, or becauſe the oil and ſalt of this cane are more viſcid and groſs than thoſe of the molaſſes drawn from the ſugar, which has undergone the ſundry neceſſary operations, and has been thoroughly fermented afterwards. For although all thoroughly fermented liquors afford much more ſpirit, in proportion to their body and kind, than the leſs fermented; yet it is certain, that the ſundry operations ſugar undergoes in the making, may, and does break, attenuate, ſeparate, and divide the principles in the molaſſes (though the groſſeſt of the ſugar) more than theſe ſame principles exiſting in the crude cane, where the firm union of the groſs oil and ſalt makes the unprepared ſugar of almoſt a loathſome luſcious taſte. And alſo all liquors, thoroughly fermented, have, during the fermentation, a free acceſs and communication with the external air; whereby the inteſtine motion is promoted, and the ſmalleſt and moſt ſeparable parts are too much attenuated and reduced to a ſubtile aura, which exhales to the depauperating of the liquor of much of its fineſt parts; hence it yields leſs (though a ſubtile) ſpirit.

That rum which is of a browniſh, tranſparent colour, of a ſmooth, oily, grateful taſte, of a ſtrong body and conſiſtence, of a good age, and well kept, is the beſt. That of a clear, limpid colour, and hot pungent taſte, is either too new, or daſhed with ſpirits.

To ſuch palates and ſtomachs as can bear it, rum is certainly preferable to brandy, either for a dram or punch, in many caſes. Brandy (e. gr) is diuretic, becauſe it ſtimulates the veſſels, and rarifies the blood, whereby only its finer and more ſerous parts are ſtrained off by the kidnies; but rum not only ſtimulates by its ſalts, but lubricates by its groſſer oil, and thereby expands and dilates the renal lateral veſſels; whereby not only the thinner, hut alſo the groſſer and more excrementitious parts of the blood, are allowed a ready paſſage through the renal ſtrainers, and get off by the ureters.

This ſpirit is uſually very much adulterated in England, with one or other of the cheaper ſorts; even a rectified malt-ſpirit, if uſed in moderation, much leſs a melaſſes, or ſugar-ſpirit, being not eaſily diſtinguiſhable therein.

*Rum*, imported in caſks not containing twenty gallons at the leaſt (except for the ſeamen's uſe) forfeited, or the value; but if it appears to the ſatisfaction of the principal officers of the Cuſtoms, to be imported without fraud or concealment, may be admitted to entry. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 2. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4.

Or ſpirits of the Britiſh ſugar plantations imported directly into Great-Britain, may on entry, and before payment of the duty of exciſe, be landed and put into warehouſes, provided by the proprietor or importer, and approved of by the commiſſioners of exciſe, under the joint locks of the proprietor and warehouſe-keeper; ſecurity being firſt given to pay the ſaid duty (according to the gauge at landing) as ſoon as ſuch rum or ſpirits ſhall be ſold, or at the end of ſix months, if they ſhall not be then ſold. 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 1, 7. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

If the duty is not paid at the expiration of the ſaid ſix months, the commiſſioners may cauſe ſuch rum or ſpirits to be ſold by auction; and out of the produce diſcharge the duty and all expences, and pay the ſurplus, if any, to the proprietor. 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 9. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

Landed without being entered at the Cuſtom-houſe and with the collector of exciſe, or without a warrant from the proper officers, or without the preſence of an exciſe-officer, forfeited; one moiety to his majeſty, the other to ſuch perſon as ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame. 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 3. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

May from time to time be delivered out of ſuch warehouſe (but not in leſs quantities than one caſk, containing at leaſt twenty gallons, unleſs it was for the uſe of the ſeamen in the voyage) on paying the duty and producing to the warehouſe-keper, and officer appointed to attend, a warrant or certificate from the collector, certifying ſuch payment. 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 5, 6. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

Warehouſe-keepers, and officers appointed to attend warehouſes, are to enter in proper books, accounts of all rum, &c. which ſhall be brought into, and carried out of their reſpective warehouſes; and at the end of every ſix months tranſmit an account thereof upon oath to the commiſſioners of exciſe, together with what is remaining; and if it ſhall appear to the ſaid commiſſioners, that any of the ſaid rum, &c. has been delivered out before payment of the duty, then ſuch warehouſe-keepers and officers reſpectively offending, ſhall be diſabled to hold any public office, and alſo forfeit one hundred pounds. 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 4. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

No rum nor ſpirits of America (except of the growth or manufacture of his majeſty's ſugar colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great-Britain in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip and all her furniture. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4. *See* ARRACK, BRANDY, COFFEE, PLANTATIONS.

RUMNEY-MARSH. King Henry III. granted a charter to Rumney-Marſh, in the county of Kent, impowering twenty-four men thereunto choſen to make diſtreſſes equally upon all thoſe who have lands and tenements in the ſaid marſh, to repair the walls and water gates of the ſame, againſt the dangers of the ſea. And there are ſeveral laws and cuſtoms obſerved in the ſaid marſh, eſtabliſhed by ordinances of juſtices thereto appointed, in the forty-ſecond year of king Henry III. the ſixteenth Edward I. the thirty-third Edward III. &c.

RUNDLET, *or* RUNLET, a ſmall veſſel, containing an uncertain quantity of any liquor, from three to twenty gallons.

RUNNET, *or* RENNET, the acid juice found in the ſtomachs of calves that have fed on nothing but milk, and are killed before the digeſtion is perfect.

RUNNING *of goods*, a clandeſtine landing of goods, without paying the legal cuſtoms or duties for the ſame.

RUPEE. *See* ROUPEE.

RUS-OER, commonly called Eaſt-Ries, in Norway, produceth chiefly ſhort balks, ſpars, and ſome few coarſe ill ſawn deals.

RUSSIA, *or* MUSCOVY, is bounded on the north by the Northern Ocean; on the eaſt, by Great and Chineſe Tartary, and part of the Japanic Sea; on the ſouth, by the Calmuc and Cuban Tartary, Perſia, Georgia, and the Caſpian and Euxine Seas; and, on the weſt, by Poland and Sweden. Its extent from eaſt to weſt, that is, from the confines of Sweden to thoſe of China, is computed, by ſome geographers, to be fifteen hundred leagues; and from north to ſouth, that is, from the Frozen Sea to the Euxine, ſix hundred; though others differ in their accounts: the whole country, however, lies between the ſorty-ſixth and ſeventieth degrees of north latitude, and in ſome part eaſtward reaches beyond it; and between the thirtieth and hundred and ſixtieth of eaſt longitude.

Ruſſia may be divided into Weſtern and Eaſtern, Tartarian and Laponic, and the late conqueſts in Aſia.

We ſhall not, in ſo large a territory, enter into a minute deſcription of theſe diſtinct provinces, many of which afford little trade, but give the beſt general ſtate of our trade with this country that we can.

Our trade with the Ruſſians is very conſiderable, and has been ſomething increaſed by the late acts of parliament, permitting ſilk from Perſia, to be brought in here through Muſcovy.

This commerce is carried on by a company, projected in the reign of Edward VI. though not eſtabliſhed by patent, till the ſixth of February, in the 1 and 2 of Philip and Mary, whereby was incorporated, *the Merchants Adventurers for the Diſcovery of Lands unknown, and not before frequented*, with power that the ſaid fellowſhip ſhould have the ſole trade to all the main lands, iſles, &c. of the emperor of Ruſſia; which letters patent were, by an act of parliament 8 *Eliz.* (not printed) confirmed to the ſaid company by the name of the Fellowſhip of Engliſh merchants for Diſcovery of new Trades, with an excluſion of all other ſubjects from this trade without the conſent of the governor, conſuls, and aſſiſtants; though by 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. it is enacted, that every ſubject of this realm, deſiring admiſſion into the ſaid fellowſhip, called the Ruſſia Company, on requeſt to be made to the governor, conſuls, and aſſiſtants, or any three of them, ſhall be admitted into the ſaid fellowſhip, paying for ſuch admiſſion five pounds.

Any perſon reſiding in any out-port, or other place within this realm, ſhall be admitted on the ſame terms.

And it is ſince enacted, by 14 *Geo.* II. *p.* 677. that from and after the 24th of June, 1741, any perſon free of the ſaid Fellowſhip of Engliſh Merchants for Diſcovery of new Trades, commonly called the Ruſſia Company, excluſive of all others, may import into this kingdom, in Britiſh-built ſhipping, navigated according to law, from any place belonging to Ruſſia, raw ſilk, or any other commodities, of the growth or manufacture of Perſia (provided ſuch manufacture be made of the produce of Perſia) being purchaſed by barter, with woollen or other manufactures, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, and from thence carried into Perſia, (gold and ſilver in coin or bullion excepted) or with the produce ariſing from the ſales of ſuch manufactures, ſo exported to Ruſſia, and carried into Perſia, upon paying or ſecuring the cuſtoms and other duties now payable, by any law now in force, according to ſuch rules, and with ſuch draw-backs, and under ſuch penalties, as are by law preſcribed, on the importation of the like goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Perſia, imported into this kingdom from any place in the Levant Seas, by any perſon free of the Levant or Turkey Company; any thing in the act of 12 *Car.* II. to the contrary notwithſtanding.

No ſilk, or other manufactures of Perſia, ſhall be imported into Great-Britain through Ruſſia, by virtue of this act, unleſs the importers take an oath, or affirmation, before the collector, cuſtomer, or comptroller of his majeſty's cuſtoms, at the place of importation; that to the beſt of their knowledge, the ſilk, and other manufactures of Perſia, contained in their entries, were truly purchaſed by barter with woollen, or other manufactures, exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, and from thence carried into Perſia (not being gold or ſilver in coin or bullion) or with the produce ariſing from the ſales of ſuch woollen, or other manufactures exported as aforeſaid: and in default of taking ſuch oath or affirmation, all the manufactures of Perſia, ſo imported from Ruſſia, ſhall be liable to be forfeited, as if the ſame had been imported, contrary to the ſaid act of 12 *Car.* II.

This act does not extend to the permitting the uſing or wearing in this kingdom any wrought ſilks or other commodities, of the manufacture of Perſia, mentioned in the act of 11 *Will.* III. which act is hereby confirmed, &c.

Whereas, ſoon after the commencement of the aforeſaid act of 14 *Geo.* II. a very beneficial trade between Great-Britain and Perſia through Ruſſia was opened, whereby great quantities of raw ſilk, and other goods and commodities of the growth or manufacture of Perſia, were imported in return for the woollen and other manufactures and goods of Great-Britain, upon much eaſier and more advantageous terms, than the ſame could have been otherwiſe procured; but the ſaid trade having been for ſome time paſt interrupted, the ſubjects of Great-Britain not having been of late permitted, to tranſport Britiſh manufactures and commodities into Perſia through Ruſſia, in conſequence whereof the importation of raw ſilk, and other commodities of Perſia from Ruſſia, hath been diſcontinued: and as it would be of great advantage to the trade of this kingdom in general, as well as contribute to the increaſe and improvement of the ſilk manufactures in particular, if raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, purchaſed in Ruſſia, were permitted to be imported from Ruſſia, in return for woollen and other manufactures exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, although the ſame be not carried from thence into Perſia, it is enacted, by 23 *Geo.* II. that from and after the 25th of December, 1750, all perſons free of the Ruſſia Company, excluſive of all others, may import into this kingdom from Ruſſia, in Britiſh-built ſhipping, navigated according to law, raw ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia, which ſhall be purchaſed by barter, with woollen, or other manufactures or commodities exported from Great-Britain to Ruſſia, although the ſame be not carried from thence into Perſia, (gold and ſilver in coin or bullion excepted) or with the produce ariſing from the ſale of ſuch commodities, and not otherwiſe, upon paying the cuſtoms and other duties, &c.

No ſilk of the growth or produce of Perſia ſhall be imported from Ruſſia, by virtue of this act, unleſs the importer make oath before the collector, &c. that it was purchaſed by barter, &c.

This act ſhall not deprive the Eaſt-India company of any of the powers and privileges, &c. which belong to them, or which they might have enjoyed if this act had not been made.

In conſequence of theſe acts, the company have ſomething increaſed their trade, and would undoubtedly have enlarged it more, had not the troubles in Perſia put a ſtop to their deſigns, at leaſt in ſome degree, which however may be revived, when the embroils in that kingdom, which have continued ever ſince the death of Shah Nadir, by their ſubſiding, will permit it.

In return, we import from thence (*extra* of the Perſian commodities) pitch, tar, bees-wax, Ruſſia leather, ſkins, furs, pot-aſhes, iron, copper, hemp, flax, linens, and linen yarn, linſeed, cavear, ſail-cloth, &c.

And our exports there are woollens of various ſorts, ſilks, paper, mercery, and hard-wares, arms, powder, brimſtone, lead, pewter, herrings, incenſe, copperas, white lead, dying woods, gold and ſilver thread, ſugar, pepper, &c. *See* PETERSBURGH.

RUTLANDSHIRE feeds an infinite number of ſheep, whoſe wool is ſaid to partake of the redneſs of the ſoil, and theſe are the only commodities of the county.

RYE *and* DOVER *harbours*. No new walls or ſtops ſhall be ſet up that may hinder the flux and reflux of the ſea between the mouth of the harbour of Rye in Suſſex, bounded by two points called the Camber, and Caſtle point, and New Shut, near Craven Sluice in Suſſex and Kent, &c.

The duty of three-pence *per* ton, granted by 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 5. ſhall be appropriated for the benefit of the harbours of Dover and Rye in manner following, viz. one-third thereof ſhall be paid to the treaſurer of Dover harbour, and the other two-thirds to the treaſurer for the harbour of Rye.

The powers given by the act 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. for reſtoring the port of Rye, are transferred to the warden of the cinque-ports, the mayor and jurats of Rye, &c.

Continued for twenty-one years by 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. One moiety of the duties continued for twenty-one years by 31 *Geo.* II.

# S.



S. A conſonant, and the eighteenth letter of the alphabet, among the ancients, was a numeral letter, ſignifying ſeven.

S. A. in medicinal preſcriptions, is an abbreviation of *ſecundum artem*, according to the rules of art; chiefly uſed where ſome uncommon care and dexterity is required.

SABLE. Several authors have given deſcriptions of theſe ſpecies of precious animals; we ſhall therefore only add thus much, viz. (1.) That it is the nature of the creatures, at a certain time of the winter, to ſleep for a while; but firſt they hide themſelves ſo ſecurely, that it is a very hard matter to find any of them. And if at any time they are diſcovered, they lie wrapped up, as it were, like a ball, and you may roll and throw them about, without waking them. (2.) That they live upon mice, cedar-kernels, red-berries, fiſh, &c. (3.) That thoſe years, when cedar-kernels and red-berries are moſt plenty, theſe animals are the moſt difficult to be found, and their furr is the worſe; becauſe feeding plentifully, they reſt moſt; on the contrary, if there be a ſcarcity of cedar-kernels and berries, they are eaſier caught; for they then run more about, and exerciſe makes the furr much more beautiful. (4.) That the moſt beautiful ſable-ſkins have generally the worſt tails; on the contrary, the fineſt tails. (5.) That there are ſables as white as ſnow; but they are met with very rarely. (6.) Upon the iſlands in the North-eaſtern Sea, beyond Khamtſchatka in Ruſſia, the ſables are very indifferent; but then they have tails a quarter of a Ruſſian ell long, ſtreaked red and black. Near Craſnoyahr, Abakan Kuanetſko, and ſome other places, you may buy a hundred of the beſt ſable tails for about ſix or eight rubbles; whereas, they are worth from twenty-five to thirty rubbles at Tobolſky, and will ſell for one hundred rubbles at Moſcow. The ſkins bear the ſame proportion of price. A timber of ſables conſiſts of forty ſkins, or twenty couple.

Note, a rubble is about four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling.

SACARE, a ſmall weight uſed in Madagaſcar, for gold and ſilver, being equal to an European ſcruple. *See* SOMPI.

SACK *of wool*, a quantity of wool, containing juſt twenty-ſix ſtone, and every ſtone fourteen pounds. In Scotland a ſack is twenty-four ſtone, each ſtone containing ſixteen pounds.

*Sack of cotton-wool*, a quantity from a hundred and a half to four hundred weight.

SADDLER. His buſineſs requires only the common education of a tradeſman; but he ought to have a quick invention, a great ſhare of ingenuity, and a conſiderable ſtock of ready money. The ſaddler furniſhes all ſorts of ſaddles, houſings, leathern caps, holſter-caſes, girths, bridles, carpariſons, &c. and he finiſhes his work by the help of ſeveral diſtinct tradeſmen; as the tree-maker, who makes the wooden part of the ſaddle; the riveter, who makes the iron work of the tree; the founder, who caſts buckles, bars, ſtuds, &c. for his bridles; the bit-maker; the bridle-cutter; the embroiderer, who works devices, creſts, and coats of arms, in gold, ſilver, or worſteds, upon his houſings. He buys broad-cloth from the woollen-draper, coarſe linen from the linen-draper, velvet from the mercer, gold and ſilver orrice and livery lace from the laceman, with buckram, ſilk, and thread, from the haberdaſher. The ſaddler takes from twenty to thirty pounds with an apprentice; the journeymen, who are commonly hired by the year, are allowed twenty pounds *per annum*, with board and lodging; and a maſter may ſet up with one hundred pounds, though, if he gives credit, and has much buſineſs, he will ſoon want eight or ten times that ſum. Such as cannot, for want of acquaintance, ſet up for themſelves, commence piece-workers, that is, take work from the maſters to their own houſes, and are paid ſo much for covering or ſeating a ſaddle, or for a houſing, &c.

SAFE-CONDUCT. *See* LETTERS *of ſafe-conduct*, PASSPORTS, PROTECTIONS.

SAFFRON. *See* CROCUS.

SAGAPENUM is a concrete juice, according to Geoffroy, betwixt a gum and a reſin; but it ſhould ſeem to have more of the nature of the former than of the latter. It is brought to us from Alexandria, either in diſtinct tears, or run together in large maſſes. This drug is outwardly of a yelloviſh colour, internally ſomewhat paler and clear, like horn, grows ſoft upon being handled, and ſticks to the fingers, taſtes hot and biting, and has a diſagreeable ſmell; by ſome reſembled to that of a leek, by others to a mixture of aſſa fætida and galbanum.

Sagapenum readily takes flame from a candle, and is reſolved by decoction with water, into a turbid white liquor; the purer and paler coloured tears ſcarcely alter the colour of ſpirit of wine, though boiled along with it; nevertheleſs, they impart to it a conſiderable deal of oily matter, as appears from its ſmell, taſte, and turning white upon the admixture of water. When ſagapenum is ſcarce, the druggiſts ſupply its place with bdellium broke into ſmall pieces, as has been already obſerved under the article BDELLIUM.

Sagapenum is a very great attenuant, aperient, and diſcutient; it is good in all diſorders of the breaſt that owe their origin to a tough phlegm. It has alſo been found to diſcuſs tumors in the nervous parts, in a remarkable manner, and to give relief in habitual head-achs, where almoſt all things elſe have failed. Its doſe is from ten grains to two ſcruples; but it is now ſeldom given alone. It has been found, however, to do great things in aſthmas, in obſtructions of the viſcera, particularly the ſpleen, in nervous complaints, and even epilepſies. It alſo promotes the menſes, and expels the ſecundines.

SAGATHEE, in commerce, a ſlight woollen ſtuff; being a kind of ſerge, or ratteen; ſometimes mixed with a little

a little ſilk. It is chiefly manufactured at Amiens, though we have our ſhare in England.

SAGE, *ſalvia*, a medicinal herb, of which there are many ſpecies, but only two of them are uſed in our ſhops. Theſe are there diſtinguiſhed by the names of *ſalvia hortenſis major*, and *ſalvia hortenſis minor*. In Engliſh we diſtinguiſh them by thoſe of common ſage, or red ſage, and ſage of virtue. The firſt is the *ſalvia latifolia* of J. Bauhine, the *ſalvia major* of Parkinſon, and the *ſalvia vulgaris* of moſt other authors. The other is the *ſalvia minor aurita & non aurita* of C. Bauhine, the *ſalvia minor ſive quinata* of Parkinſon, and the *ſalvia minor* of other authors.

The common red ſage has always been eſteemed as a cephalic and ſudorific. An infuſion of it, made in the manner of tea, has been long famous, as the common drink of people in fevers. It is attenuant and diuretic; it promotes the menſes, and is good in vertigoes, tremors, palſies, and in catarrhs. The virtues and uſes of the ſage of virtue are the ſame with the other. Its name indeed has made many prefer it to the common ſage for the making tea for people in fevers; but the more agreeable flavour of the common kind, and the pleaſant colour of the infuſion, when a little lemon juice is added, have again of late reſtored it into general uſe.

SAGO, a ſimple brought from the Eaſt-Indies, of conſiderable uſe in diet as a reſtorative.

*Sago*, is a ſort of bread produced in the following manner, from a tree called *landan*, growing in the Moluccas. When a tree is felled, they cleave it in two, in the middle, and dig out the pith, which is eatable, when it comes freſh out of the tree. They pound it in a mortar, till it is reduced into a kind of powder ſomewhat like meal. Then they put it in a ſearce made of the bark of the ſame tree, placing it over a ciſtern made of its leaves, and pour water on it, which ſeparates the pure part of the powder from the woody fibres wherewith the pith abounds. The flour thus filtrated they call *ſagu*, which they make into paſte, and bake it in earthen furnaces.

SAICK, *or* SAIQUE, a Turkiſh veſſel, very common in the Levant for carrying of merchandize.

SAIL, in navigation, an aſſemblage of ſeveral breadths of canvas, ſewed together by the liſts, and edged round with a cord, called the *bolt-rope*.

Sails have various names, according to the maſts, &c. they are faſtened to; as the main-ſail, main-top-ſail, fore-ſail, ſprit-ſail, mizzen-ſail, &c.

SAILCLOTH, Britiſh made, for which bounty has been given on exportation, afterwards relanded, is forfeited; and every perſon concerned in bringing back, or relanding the ſame, forfeits two ſhillings for every ell. 12 *Ann. c.* 16. *ſ.* 3. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6.

Every ſhip or veſſel built in Great-Britain, or his majeſty's plantations in America, upon her being firſt navigated, is to be furniſhed with a complete ſet of new ſails of ſailcloth manufactured in Great-Britain, which ſhall, *bona fide*, belong to ſuch ſhip, on forfeiture of fifty pounds by the maſter thereof. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 4. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 11. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 3. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſect.* 3.

Every manufacturer muſt affix or impreſs a ſtamp, containing his name and place of abode, on every piece of ſailcloth made by him.

If any perſon ſhall ſell or expoſe to ſale, or work up into ſails any piece of Britiſh ſailcloth, without being ſo ſtamped, and be convicted thereof by the oath of a credible witneſs, before one or more juſtices of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, he is to forfeit ten pounds for every piece.

Any perſon wilfully cutting off or obliterating ſuch ſtamp, or uſing a ſtamp containing the name and place of abode of any other perſon, is, upon conviction, to forfeit five pounds for every offence; to be recovered by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant from two or more juſtices, to be applied to the uſe of the informer. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 37. *ſect.* 3.

Or canvas, foreign-made, uſually entered as Hollands duck or Vitery canvas, fit to be made uſe of for making ſails, upon importation thereof into Great-Britain, to be ſtamped at landing by a ſtamp, to be provided by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, of eight inches diameter, dipped in red lead mixed with linſeed oil well boiled, expreſſing the place and port where they are entered. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 5, 6. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

For counterfeiting ſuch ſtamp, or the impreſſion, or knowingly ſelling any foreign ſailcloth with a counterfeit ſtamp, the penalty is fifty pounds. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 6. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

No perſon in Great-Britain, or his majeſty's plantations in America, may make into ſails or tarpawlins any foreign ſailcloth or canvas, not ſo ſtamped, on forfeiture thereof; and the perſon ſo offending, on conviction thereof by the oath of a credible witneſs before a juſtice of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, is to forfeit fifty pounds for every ſail or tarpawling, for the uſe of the informer; to be levied by diſtreſs and ſail of his goods, by warrant from two juſtices of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed; and for want of ſuch diſtreſs, to be committed to gaol for ſix months, or until he pays the penalty. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 7. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

Any perſon making up foreign ſailcloth or canvas into ſails, muſt place the ſtamps on the after-ſide of ſuch ſails, and in ſuch manner, that the number of ſtamps may appear proportionable to the number of bolts or pieces in each ſail, on forfeiture of ſuch ſails, and ten pounds for offence. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 8. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

No perſon may alter or mend a ſail of foreign ſailcloth or canvas, not ſo ſtamped, on forfeiture of twenty pounds. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 9. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

Every ſail-maker or other perſon in Great-Britain, or his majeſty's plantations in America, muſt impreſs, on every new ſail he makes, a ſtamp of eight inches diameter, dipped in lamp-black mixed with linſeed oil well boiled, containing his name and place of abode in plain diſtinct letters and words at length, on forfeiture thereof, and of ten pounds for every new ſail delivered to any captain or maſter of a veſſel without ſuch ſtamp. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 10. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

Sailcloth of the manufacture of Ireland imported into Great-Britain (during the continuance of a bounty on exportation granted by an act of the parliament of Ireland, 19 *Geo.* II.) is ſubject to a new duty, 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1, 3.

No canvas or ſailcloth may be imported from Ireland, but in whole and entire bolts or pieces; and if the loops or double threads of the bolts (which are directed to be part of the warp in the middle of that end of the web which is laſt in weaving) are cut off; or if the bolts have a ſtamp importing the payment of either of the bounties, they ſhall be deemed to have received the bounty. 23 *G.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 2.

If any diſpute ariſes about the duty which ought to be paid, ſuch duty is to be aſcertained in the ſame manner, and under the ſame forfeitures and penalties, as upon goods ſubject to payment of duty *ad valorem*. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſect.* 5.

Upon the importation of canvas or ſailcloth from Ireland, the proper officer of the Cuſtoms may open, view, and examine the ſame, and if it appears that the ſaid bounty has been paid, and no regular entry made at importation, the canvas or ſailcloth ſo omitted to be entered ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſeized by any officer of the Cuſtoms. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 4.

For the bounty and regulations of Britiſh-made ſailcloth, *ſee* BOUNTY.

SAILCLOTH-WEAVER. This buſineſs requires no extraordinary ingenuity, and only a common education. The yarn, of which ſailcloth is made, is ſpun from dreſſed hemp, much in the ſame manner as rope-yarn; and the houſe wherein it is ſpun reſembles a ſmall rope-walk. The ſpinners make good bread of it; and women are as much employed as men. As to the weaving, it is performed in the ſame manner as linen cloth. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who works from ſix to eight. The journeymen are paid by the yard, according to the fineneſs of the ſailcloth; and it requires from two hundred to two thouſand pounds to commence maſter.

SAIL-MAKER. This is a pretty laborious buſineſs; but a lad may be bound about fifteen years of age, without



any

any particular genius or education. The ſail-maker is, in every reſpect, the ſhip's taylor; for it is his buſineſs to ſew and ſhape all the ſails. He takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who muſt work from ſix till eight. A journeyman may earn twenty ſhillings a week; but it will require from five hundred to a thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

SAILING, in a general ſenſe, implies the art or act of navigating; or of determining the various motions of a ſhip, and her true place at any time.

SAILORS. *See* SEAMEN.

SAILS. Every maſter of a veſſel, belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, navigated with, or having on board any foreign-made ſails, is, at the time of reporting his ſhip, to make an entry and report upon oath of every ſuch ſail, and, before the ſhip is cleared, to pay for them the ſame duty as by 12 *Ann. c.* 16. is laid upon foreign-made ſails imported by way of merchandize, on forfeiture of the ſails to his majeſty, and fifty pounds for every offence by the maſter; and ſuch ſails are to be ſtamped at the port of entry, in the ſame manner as directed for foreign ſail-cloth. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 1, 2. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

But if the maſter, before the ſhip is cleared, declares his intention of not paying the duty, and delivers up the ſails to the officer of the Cuſtoms, the ſails only are to be forfeited. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 3. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

No captain of a ſhip coming from the Eaſt-Indies liable to this duty or forfeiture for any foreign-made ſails, *bona fide*, brought from the Eaſt-Indies. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 4. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

Pecuniary penalties and forfeitures by this act (not otherwiſe directed and applied) may be proſecuted in any of his majeſty's courts of record in Great-Britain, or ſuch of his majeſty's plantations in America where the offence is committed; one moiety to his majeſty, the other to the proſecutor. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 12. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

SAINTONGE. *See* ROCHELLE.

ST. DOMINGO, divided formerly between the Spaniards and French, carries on a very conſiderable trade, of which the chief places aſſigned the latter are La Grande Ance, Leogane, La Grande Terre, Port de Paz, Port Margot, Lancon, Louiſa, Trou Charles Morin, Lemodada, Cape François, and the Little Goare. Beſides this diſtribution of St. Domingo, the French poſſeſs the ſmalleſt iſle of Tortuga, (about three-fourths of a league from the other) and the products of both are tobacco, ſugar, indigo, ginger, roucou, cotton, cocoa, hides, braziletto, yellow ſanders, fuſtic, cedar, grenadillo, and ſome other woods for the dyers or cabinet-makers uſe. The ſhips cargoes proper for theſe iſles, are much the ſame as thoſe for the Antilles, excepting the ſalt meat, which is not here wanted, St. Domingo having it in ſo great plenty, as even to ſupply the other iſles with large quantities. Here are about four thouſand families eſtabliſhed in the whole ſettlement, which more than double thoſe of the Spaniards, though theſe latter are near a century more ancient here than the other. *See* HISPANIOLA.

ST. HELENA. This iſland is ſituated in the weſtern part of the Ethiopian Sea, in ſixteen degrees, twelve minutes, ſouth latitude, almoſt four hundred leagues from the coaſts of Angola, and thoſe of Brazil, though ſomething nearer Afric than America, and therefore geographers have placed it to the former.

The Portugueze diſcovered it in 1508, and left it, as one may ſay, for a place of ſhelter and reſort, common to all nations, who ſhould trade to India; after which, the Dutch ſettled, and abandoned it for the more commodious ſituation of the Cape of Good Hope, and the Engliſh have poſſeſſed it ever ſince; but as it affords nothing for trade, more than the refreſhments to the ſhips that call there, we ſhall not add any thing to what we have now ſaid about it.

ST. JOHN DE ULHUA. *See* VERA CRUZ.

ST. GALL, is a large fine city, ſeated two leagues from the Lake Conſtance, in a narrow barren valley, whoſe ſoil produces nothing but graſs, notwithſtanding which, moſt of the inhabitants are rich, at leaſt very few of them ſtreightened in their circumſtances; their wealth flowing in with their great trade, which chiefly conſiſts in linen, whoſe conſumption is very extraordinary all over Switzerland and abroad. This buſineſs is ſo conſiderable as to place the weavers in ſome reſpects on a level with the nobility; as they with the gentry make the firſt of the twelve tribes, of which this city is compoſed. The manufactures of woollen ſtuffs are here alſo in a flouriſhing condition; beſides which, this city being ſo near the aforementioned lake, and on the road from Germany to Italy, it ſerves as a channel of communication between them; and its halls are the warehouſes for goods that go and come.

SALE, is the transferring the property of goods from one to another, upon valuable conſideration: and if a bargain is that another ſhall give me five pounds for ſuch a thing, and he gives me earneſt, which I accept, this is a perfect ſale. *Wood's Inſt.* 316. On ſale of goods, if earneſt be given to the ſeller, and part of them are taken away by the buyer, he muſt pay the reſidue of the money upon fetching away the reſt, becauſe no other time is appointed; and the earneſt given binds the bargain, and gives the buyer a right to demand the goods; but a demand without paying the money is void: and it has been held, that after the earneſt has been taken, the ſeller cannot diſpoſe of the goods to another, unleſs there is ſome default in the buyer; therefore if he doth not take away the goods, and pay the money, the ſeller ought to require him ſo to do; and then if he doth not do it in convenient time, the bargain and ſale is diſſolved, and the ſeller may diſpoſe of them to any other perſon. 1 *Salk.* 113.

A ſeller of a thing is to keep it a reaſonable time for delivery: but where no time is appointed for delivery of things ſold, or for payment of the money, it is generally implied that the delivery be made immediately, and payment on the delivery. 3 *Salk.* 61. Where one agrees for wares ſold, the buyer muſt not carry them away before paid for; except a day of payment is allowed him by the ſeller. *Noy.* 87. It is ſaid, a perfect bargain and ſale between parties will be good, though the ſeller knows of an execution that is againſt him; and doth ſell the goods to prevent the falling of it upon them. 3 *Shep. Abr.* 115. A ſale may be of any living or dead goods in a fair or market, be they whoſe they will, or however the ſeller come by them; if made with the cautions required by law: but if one ſell my goods unduly, I may have them again. *Doct.* and *Stud.* 328. *Perk. ſect.* 93. If a man affirms a thing ſold is of ſuch a value, when it is not, this is not actionable; but if he actually warrants it, at the time of the ſale, and not afterwards, it will bear an action, being part of the contract. 2 *Cro.* 5, 386, 630. 1 *Roll. Abr.* 97. *See* FAIRS *and* MARKETS, and 19 *Vin. Abr.* 274.

SALESMAN. Saleſmen are thoſe who deal in ready made cloaths for men's wear: they keep large ſhops, and many of them get handſome fortunes. They, at leaſt ſeveral of them, have taylors in their houſes, at ſo much a week to make what they ſell. A lad deſigned for this employment, ſhould be of an obliging carriage; muſt be ready at his pen, and underſtand accounts. The price given with an apprentice is from twenty to forty pounds. As journeymen, they get from twenty to thirty pounds a year and their board; and to ſet up, will take from three hundred to a thouſand pounds.

There is another ſort of ſaleſmen. Theſe ſell ſheep or black cattle at market for the graziers in the country; and have ſo much a ſcore for ſelling them. It is a good employment; but they take no apprentices.

SALLEE. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

SALMON. The puniſhment of taking ſalmon in time of defence. *St. Weſtm.* 2. 13 *Edw.* I. *c.* 47.

Young ſalmon ſhall not be taken in mill-pools, from the middle of April to Midſummer. *St. Weſtm.* 2. 13 *Edw.* I. *cap.* 47.

The chancellor ſhall take order for the buying and ſelling of ſtockfiſh of St. Botolph, and ſalmon of Berwick. 31 *Edw.* III. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 3.

No nets ſhall be uſed that may take brood of ſalmon or other fiſh. 13 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 19.

The rivers of Lancaſhire ſhall be put in defence from Michaelmas to Candlemas. 13 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 19.

Conſervators of theſe ſtatutes ſhall be appointed. 13 *R.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 19.

The juſtices ſhall be conſervators of theſe ſtatutes. 17 *R.* II. *cap.* 9.

The contents of barrels of ſalmon, herrings, and eels, with rules for their package. 22 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 2. 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 23. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15.

Taking the fry of ſalmon and eels prohibited. 25 *H.* VIII. *cap.* 7.

Salmon not to be taken out of ſeaſon. 1 *Eliz. cap.* 17. *ſect.* 1.

No ſalmon, &c. taken by foreigners ſhall be imported. 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 2.

Draw-backs on ſalmon exported. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *ſ.* 10. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 18.

Occupiers of mills to keep hatch open for ſalmon to paſs. 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 5.

For preſerving the ſalmon fiſheries in the counties of Southampton and Wilts. 4 *Ann. c.* 21. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 11 and 14.

Salmon not to be taken in the Thames between 24 Auguſt and 11 November. 9 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 2.

Fiſhmongers prohibited to buy ſalmon under ſix pounds weight. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 15.

Salmon may be taken in the Ribble between 1 January and 15 September. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 7. *See* FISHERY.

SALONICA (the ancient *Theſſalonica*) is a ſea-port ſeated at the bottom of the gulph, bearing the ſame name, in the Archipelago. All the European nations trade here, but the greateſt commerce is from Italy. This place is very fertile in corn, and produces very good wheat, though not quite ſo clean as it ſhould be. The other merchandizes of Salonica, are tobacco (of which whole ſhip loads are exported at a time) hides, cotton in wool, (better than that of Smyrna) yellow wax, brought here in large quantities from Turkiſh Valachia, unwaſhed wool, and ſome coarſe woollen ſtuffs, for the cloathing of the poor people and ſoldiers.

The goods carried there are indigo, cochineal, ginger, pepper, cinnamon, mace, nutmegs, dying woods, ſugar, lead, pewter, block and ſingle tin, cloths from England, France, and Holland, paper, almonds, verdigreaſe, and ſometimes coffee from the iſles.

SALT. There are two methods of obtaining common ſalt from ſaline ſprings and ſea-water: a haſty evaporation of the aqueous fluid, till the ſalt begins to concrete, and fall in grains to the bottom of the evaporating pan, from whence it is raked out, and ſet in proper veſſels to drain from the brine: the other is a more ſlow and gradual evaporation, continued no longer, than till a ſaline cruſt forms at the top of the liquor, which, upon removing the fire, ſoon begins to ſhoot, and run into cryſtals of a cubical figure. In the warmer climates, both theſe proceſſes are effected by the heat of the ſun. The ſalts obtained by them differ very conſiderably: that got by a haſty evaporation is very apt to relent in a moiſt air, and run *per deliquium*, an inconvenience which the cryſtallized ſalt is not ſubject to: this latter is likewiſe found better for the preſerving of meat, and for many other purpoſes.

There is a foſſile ſalt, of various ſorts, differing from one another in degree of purity, tranſparency, and colour, being either perfectly tranſparent and colourleſs, of a ſnowy whiteneſs, grey, red, or yellow. The firſt ſort is that commonly called *ſal gemmæ* or *gemmeus*, from its tranſparent appearance reſembling cryſtal, like which it is frequently cut into toys, little vaſes, &c. This ſalt is found in the mountains of Catalonia, not far from Barcelona; and in great plenty, in certain deep mines of prodigious extent, near Cracow in Poland. There is likewiſe ſome of this ſalt dug up in Cheſhire.

The three kinds of common ſalt, though different in appearance, are all of the ſame origin; and, when reduced to the greateſt degree of purity, do not ſenſibly differ from one another. Common ſalt eaſily melts in water, of which it requires about three times its own weight: the ſolution, being ſlowly evaporated, and ſet to ſhoot, affords cubical cryſtals, which unite together in the form of hollow truncated pyramids. Expoſed to the fire, it crackles, and flies about, but ſoon after melts, when it appears as fluid as water; kept in an extreme degree of heat for a long time, ſome part of it flies away in fume, and the remainder acquires ſomething of an alkaline nature. When decrepitated, or melted, it readily runs *per deliquium* into an unctuous liquor; and at the ſame time depoſits a conſiderable quantity of earth: if this liquor be inſpiſſated, and the dry matter ſuffered to run *per deliquium* again, it depoſits more earthy feces; and by repeating theſe operations, loſes entirely its ſaline qualities; but if well cryſtallized, it is not eaſily affected by the moiſture of the air. Thrown on burning coals, it ariſes in the form of a white fume. Mingled with the vitriolic or nitrous acid, and expoſed to the fire, it partly riſes in a copious white vapour, which being catched in proper veſſels, proves a highly acid liquor, that ferments with fixed alkaline ſalts, and when fully ſaturated therewith, and properly treated, ſhoots into cubical cryſtals, in appearance and ſeveral other reſpects ſimilar to the ſalt from which the ſpirit was at firſt obtained; but proving more acrimonious, more fuſible in the fire, and more fixed therein.

Common ſalt checks fermentation, and prevents putrefaction: hence it is uſed in the maceration of plants, to keep them from putrifying. It has the ſame effects likewiſe on the aliment, received into the ſtomach, where it not only prevents its putrefaction, but reſtrains the immoderate heat and ebullition of the other fluids. It readily unites with volatile ſalts, and turns them of an ammoniacal nature; whence it is capable of allaying the acrimony of the humours, and promoting their excretion by the urinary paſſages. Add to this, that by gently irritating the ſolids, it acts as a ſtimulus, and renders the oſcillation of the fibres more vivid: hence the many ſingular virtues aſcribed to common ſalt, as of heating, abſterging, promoting appetite, &c. Helmont commends the liberal uſe of it as a preſervative againſt the ſtone and gravel; but phyſicians are not at preſent agreed, whether it really prevents or promotes the generation of the calculus: moſt allow, that ſalted meat or fiſh furniſh matter for this diſeaſe; and that calculous patients are worſe after the uſe of ſuch food. But Mr. Geoffroy obſerves, that there is a very great difference between common ſalt, and the brine of ſalted meat, for ſalt, by a long digeſtion with the animal juice, undergoes a certain degree of putrefaction, and aſſumes, in ſome meaſure, the nature of a volatile ſalt: ſo that although ſalted meat may prove hurtful in this diſeaſe, it does not follow, that common ſalt itſelf will. If the reader deſires further ſatisfaction with regard to the effects of common ſalt upon the human body, he may conſult *Geoffroy de Mat. Med.* (*tom* i. *p.* 103).

Ships laden with ſalt hovering on the coaſt, and not proceeding directly to ſome port, may be compelled by the officers of the cuſtoms or ſalt duties, to come into port; officers to continue on board, till the ſalt is unladen, or the ſhip departs for her intended voyage; neglecting to enter and unlade the ſalt, or to proceed on her voyage in twenty days, the ſalt forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the maſter. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 7. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1.

Officers of the cuſtoms or ſalt duties may ſearch any veſſel lying in port, or riding on the ſea-coaſts; and if any ſalt, not duly entered, be found on board any veſſel in which it was not imported, it is forfeited, or the value; and the maſter is ſubject to the ſame penalties and forfeitures, as if it had been landed without entry.

Officers obſtructed, every offender is to forfeit forty pounds. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 22.

Neglecting, or refuſing to enter or unlade ſalt for the ſpace of twenty days after a ſhip is come into port, or within that time to depart and proceed regularly on her voyage to ſome other place (unleſs permitted to make longer ſtay by the chief officer of the cuſtoms) the ſalt on board is forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the maſter. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 7.

Imported in ſhips under forty tons, or otherwiſe than in bulk (except for the ſhips proviſions) forfeited, and double the value. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 8. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1.

Of the produce or manufacture of Great-Britain or Ireland, or other ſalt coming from Ireland or the Iſle of Man, may not be imported, or brought into any port or place of Great-Britain, nor taken out of any ſhip or veſſel, nor put on ſhore within any of the ſaid ports or places, upon forfeiture thereof, together with the veſſel, and all her tackle and apparel.

Perſons delivering, conveying, or aſſiſting, forfeit twenty pounds each, or ſix months impriſonment. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 1. 5 *Ann. c.* 8. *art.* 2.

Such ſalt may be ſeized within two months, and if not claimed within twenty days, and ſecurity given for the value, the ſalt and ſhip are to be ſold to the beſt advantage. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 2.

Salt (from Ireland or other foreign parts) taken in for the neceſſary proviſion of the ſhip, or for curing fiſh, may be landed, but entry thereof muſt be made within ten days

days after coming into port, and the duties paid or ſecured before landing, upon forfeiture, and double the value. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 6. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 18.

Salt regularly entered and exported to foreign parts, and the ſhip forced in by ſtreſs of weather, &c. in which caſe the ſalt may be landed within twenty days after coming in, provided the duties be again paid down (before relanding) for the whole quantity of ſalt entered for exportation. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 4.

Or carried cuaſtwiſe by certificate. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſect.* 3.

Taken in by fiſhermen to cure fiſh at ſea, upon oath before the ſalt-officer that it was taken on board from ſome port of Great-Britain, mentioning the place, and not out of any veſſel at ſea. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 5.

Salt imported from Jerſey, Guernſey, Sark, and Alderney, liable to the ſame duties as any other foreign ſalt. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 11.

From Ireland, or other foreign parts, though taken on board for neceſſary proviſion for the ſhip, or for curing fiſh, not entered within ten days after coming into port, and before the landing, &c. is forfeited, with double the value by the maſter of the ſhip, or the owner of the ſalt. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 6. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 18.

Foreign, landed before entry, and the exciſe duty be ſatisfied, or without a warrant from the collector, or officer appointed for the duty on ſalt, is forfeited, or the value thereof, and ten ſhillings *per* buſhel; and every perſon concerned is to forfeit one hundred pounds. 5 and 6 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 4. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 24. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 6. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

The perſons in whoſe cuſtody ſuch ſalt is found, are liable to the ſame penalties, as if they had been the importers; unleſs they make it appear from whom they had it. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3.

Imbezzled after importation, and before warehouſing, the forfeiture is twenty ſhillings for every buſhel of eighty-four pounds weight. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Cellared and locked up, may not be removed without a warrant or permit for the conveyance, upon forfeiture thereof, beſides ten ſhillings *per* buſhel, and twenty pounds for every ſuch offence; to be recovered of the importer, and of every perſon concerned in the removal. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 2.

Importers to be charged with the full quantity of ſalt cellared, though upon clearing ſuch cellar or warehouſe there may appear to be a deficiency. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 17.

At the end of every fiſhing ſeaſon, the officer is to take an account of the ſalt remaining, which muſt be forthwith locked up as before; and the proprietors are to deliver them an account upon oath, of the quantity of fiſh exported (confirmed by a certificate of the officers of the port of exportation) or of the red or white herrings entered for home-conſumption, on which the ſaid ſalt had been uſed. But as to white herrings ſent to foreign markets immediately from ſea without being brought into port by the ſociety of the free Britiſh fiſhery, the quantity is to be aſcertained by the oath of the ſociety's ſuperintendant before a juſtice of the peace, or officer of the ſalt duties; and a certificate under the hands of their ſecretary and accountant, either that it appears by the letters or accounts from their correſpondents or agents, to whom ſuch fiſh were conſigned, that they have come to their hands, or that ſuch fiſh have been loſt at ſea. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 3, 10. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 3, 6. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 5, 6.

But if delivered over by the proprietors to any other perſons for the curing of fiſh, it muſt be ſo expreſſed in his accounts, and made appear by oath or otherwiſe, that it was ſo uſed, upon forfeiture of fifty pounds, and the perſons to whom delivered muſt, upon oath likewiſe, give an account of the ſalt by them uſed in the curing of fiſh exported; confirmed by the certificate of the officers of the port of exportation.

Such ſalt not ſo accounted for within three months, after the expiration of each year, the forfeiture is ten ſhillings *per* buſhel. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 10. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 41. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Such ſalt as cannot be accounted for, having been ſold, given away, or uſed for any other purpoſe, the proprietor, or the perſon to whom delivered, and the buyer, are each of them to forfeit twenty ſhillings *per* buſhel; one-third to the uſe of his majeſty, and the remainder to the informer or ſuer.

In default of payment within fourteen days, if ſufficient effects cannot be found, the offenders muſt be ſent to the houſe of correction, for any time not exceeding three months. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſect.* 1.

Salt fiſh cured with ſalt, delivered out of warehouſes, not exported while good and merchantable, may be deſtroyed in the preſence of an officer, and his certificate thereof accepted inſtead of that for exportation. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4.

Foreign ſalt from Scotland into England, and all ſalt brought coaſtwiſe, may not be delivered, nor a warrant granted for the landing, till a certificate of the true quantity on board, ſigned by the cuſtom and ſalt-officers of the loading-port, be produced to the ſalt-officer of the delivering-port, and oath be made before the ſalt-officer by the maſter, mate, or boatſwain, that to his knowledge there has not been taken on board any ſalt ſince he came from ſuch port, upon forfeiture of double the value, and ten ſhillings *per* buſhel. Part only of ſuch ſalt landed, and the ſhip proceeding with the remainder, the quantity delivered muſt be certified by the officers, on the back of the cocket, tranſire or other warrant, or elſe by a ſeparate certificate under the hand and ſeal of the officers. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *ſ.* 9. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 12. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 20. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Officers at the delivering port may demand a ſight of the permit and cocket, and are to weigh the ſalt upon unlading; and if found to be more in weight than expreſſed in ſuch permit and cocket, the ſurpluſage is forfeited.

Maſters refuſing to ſhew the permit and cocket, the ſalt may be ſeized and detained; and if not produced within four days, the ſalt is forfeited. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 12, 13. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 21. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Salt for which the duties have been drawn back, fraudulently relanded, without entry and repayment of the duties; the offender is to forfeit double the value thereof and ten ſhillings *per* buſhel, and to be ſubject to ſuch other penalties and forfeitures as in caſe of foreign ſalt illegally landed. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *ſ.* 20. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 27. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Landed in Ireland, not to have any draw back, unleſs entered outwards for ſome port in Ireland. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 13. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Shipped for Ireland. Debentures not to be made out, nor drawback allowed, till a certificate, under the hand of the collector of ſome port in Ireland, of the particular quantity there landed, be produced; the drawback may not be allowed for any more than ſuch quantity. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 11. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Except the allowance for waſte, being four buſhels for every forty buſhels of white ſalt, and two buſhels for every forty buſhels of rock ſalt. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *ſ.* 14.

Shipped for Ireland, and loſt at ſea by ſinking of the ſhip, or taken by enemies; upon due proof made within two years, by the oaths of two credible witneſſes before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, and their certificate thereof produced, the drawback may be allowed, or the ſecurity vacated. 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 12. *ſ.* 11. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 7.

After put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, may not be taken out, unleſs to be put into the ſhip wherein it is to be exported; nor landed in Great-Britain, except in the preſence of a ſalt-officer, upon forfeiture of the boat, &c. goods, and twenty pounds by every perſon concerned, or ſix months impriſonment. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 23. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Ships laden with ſalt to be exported, drove into port by ſtreſs of weather, or other unavoidable neceſſity, ſalt-officers may go and remain on board till the ſalt be re-entered, or the ſhips proceed on their voyages.

Such ſalt may be relanded within twenty days, upon due entry and repayment of the duty for the whole quantity entered outwards.

Refuſing officers to come on board, penalty twenty pounds.

Unladen before due entry, or repayment of duty, forfeited, with the whole cargo remaining on board, 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 12.

*f.* 12. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *f.* 4. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *f.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 1.

Shipped for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe. The particular quantity muſt be expreſſed in the cocket, which muſt be ſigned by the ſalt-officer, and given without fee or delay; and if the ſhip puts into any port of Great-Britain, the officers of the cuſtoms and ſalt-duty may demand a ſight thereof; and upon oath made before the collector or cuſtomer, that they have juſt cauſe to ſuſpect that there is leſs on board than expreſſed in ſuch cocket, the ſalt may be weighed.

If upon weighing, a deficiency be found, after a reaſonable allowance made for waſte, &c. the remainder is forfeited. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 13.

Shipped for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe. Periſhed by the ſinking of the ſhip before gone out of port, and before the exporter is entitled to the drawback; upon proof of ſuch loſs before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, they are to grant the exporter or proprietor a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers, they are to permit the like quantity, therein mentioned, to be bought, without payment of any duty of exciſe. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *f.* 10.

Or ſuch ſalt loſt, in carrying down the river to be ſhipped for exportation, or loſt after it is ſo ſhipped, and before the exporter is intitled to a debenture, and proof thereof made as above, the certificate ſhall be applied by the collector of the duties on ſalt to diſcharge and vacate the ſecurity given for the duty of ſo much as appears thereby to be loſt. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *f.* 6.

Not to be ſhipped in order to be ſent coaſtwiſe by a retailer or ſhopkeeper, till it be made appear by oath or otherwiſe, before the officers, that the duty has been paid, or ſecured to be paid, or that it was bought of ſome other retailer, or ſhopkeeper, that had paid the duty. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *f.* 8. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *f.* 11. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *f.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 1.

Upon reſhipping from any boat, &c. on board any ſhip to be carried coaſtwiſe, the maſter of the boat, &c. muſt, before any diſpatches be granted, make oath before the ſalt-officer, that is is truly reſhipped, and not augmented or diminiſhed, upon forfeiture of double the value, and ten ſhillings *per* buſhel. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *f.* 25. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *f.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 1.

Belonging to Britiſh ſubjects that have paid the duty, periſhed or loſt in any port of Great-Britain, or ſhipped coaſtwiſe, and loſt at ſea by ſtorms, &c. upon proof of ſuch loſs, and that it was not occaſioned by leakage or negligence, made by the oaths of two or more credible witneſſes (whereof the maſter or mate to be one) before the juſtices of the peace at the general quarter-ſeſſions, they are to grant a certificate of ſuch proof being made; which being produced to any of the officers appointed to collect the duty upon ſalt, he is to permit the like quantity to be bought free of exciſe. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *f.* 21. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *f.* 28. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *f.* 18. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *f.* 11. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *f.* 1. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 1.

Imported, not of the product of Great-Britain, to be deemed foreign, and charged accordingly. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 7. *f.* 13.

Exported to the Iſle of Man, Jerſey, or Guernſey, entitled to the drawback. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *f.* 9.

Any ſaltmaker, importer of ſalt, or any refiner or proprietor of rock ſalt, refuſing, upon due requeſt or demand made by the ſalt-officer, in the day-time, or in the night, in the preſence of a conſtable or other lawful officer of the peace, to permit ſuch officer to enter his works, warehouſes, or other places by him made uſe of for making, laying, refining, or keeping of ſalt, is to forfeit forty pounds for every ſuch offence. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 2.

Rock ſalt, ſalt rock, or refined ſalt exported to parts beyond the ſeas. The exporter to be paid by the ſalt-officer, for every buſhel of rock ſalt or ſalt rock, after the rate of ſixty-five pounds to the buſhel, and refined ſalt, after the rate of fifty-ſix pounds to the buſhel, all the duties which have been paid for the ſame, within two days after demand, on a debenture to be prepared by the collector of the cuſtoms, verified by the ſearcher as to the quantity ſhipped; the oath of the exporter or his agent being firſt taken that the duties were paid, and that it is to be exported beyond the ſeas, and not relanded in Great-Britain; which debenture is to be given without fee or reward. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *f.* 7. 1 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 9.

Rock or white ſalt not to be ſhipped on board any veſſel for exportation, or to be carried coaſtwiſe, without being firſt weighed by the officers appointed by the commiſſioners of exciſe, and a permit or certificate of the quantity obtained, upon penalty of forfeiture of the ſalt, and ten ſhillings *per* buſhel, unleſs the officer refuſes, or does not attend to weigh it, or refuſes a permit or certificate when weighed.

The officer refuſing ſuch permit (which is to be given gratis) is to forfeit five pounds to the perſon grieved. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *f.* 10, 11.

Carried coaſtwiſe by cocket or tranſire twenty miles by ſea or more, or from the port of Great Yarmouth to Lowſtoff or Southwold Bay, although to a member or creek of the port from whence it is firſt ſhipped off, the allowance to be made for waſte is three buſhels for every forty buſhels of white ſalt, and one buſhel and a half for every forty buſhels of rock ſalt.

The allowance to be made but once, though the ſalt ſhould be carried coaſtwiſe from ſeveral ports, or members of ports. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *f.* 4. 6 *Ann. c.* 12. *f.* 1.

Foreign or Engliſh, rock or refined ſalt. The exporter to have no greater allowance on prompt payment, and for waſte, and upon exportation of the ſame, than what was paid or ſecured for the duty at firſt. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *f.* 16. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6. *f.* 5. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 1.

Engliſh to have nine months, and rock ſalt twelve months for payment of exciſe. 5 *Ann. c.* 29. *f.* 5.

Scots. Imported into England, to pay two ſhillings and four-pence *per* buſhel during the continuance of two ſhillings and four-pence *per* buſhel on Engliſh ſalt, impoſed by 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44.

And during the ſaid time, no ſalt may be brought from Scotland to England by land in any manner, upon forfeiture thereof, with the cattle and carriages, and twenty ſhillings *per* buſhel to be recovered of the carrier or owner; and the perſon carrying the ſame to be impriſoned by any one juſtice of the peace for ſix months, and until the penalty be paid. 5 *Ann. c.* 8. *art.* 8.

For the drawback and regulations on exportation of Britiſh ſalt, *ſee* DRAWBACK.

*Decrepitated* SALT. *Sal decrepitatus.*

Put a quantity of ſalt in an earthen veſſel capable of bearing the action of the fire, cover it with a lid, and ſet it on a moderately ſtrong charcoal fire, heaping up the coals about it as high as the ſalt reaches within; let the lid be taken off at times, and the matter ſtirred well about with an iron ſpatula. It will make a violent crackling for a long time, but at length the noiſe will ceaſe, and the ſalt be reduced to a dry powder; this is decrepitated ſalt. It is uſed in the cementation of metals, in many other chemical and metallurgical operations; and in diſtilling the acid ſpirit from the ſalt, much trouble and time being ſaved by this previous calcination, though none of the ſpirit will be diſſipated by it.

*Spirit of* SALT. *Spiritus ſalis.*

The acid ſpirit of ſea ſalt may be diſtilled by the retort, by mixing two parts of pipe-clay or any other ſuch earth, with one part of decrepitated ſalt, forming the whole into balls with water, and diſtilling theſe, after they are dried, in a reverberatory furnace with a coated retort and large receiver; but the method, now generally uſed and recommended by the late college diſpenſatory, is that of Glauber's invention, in which oil of vitriol is added.

Take ſea ſalt and oil of vitriol of each an equal quantity, common water one-fourth part of the weight of the whole; mix the water and the oil of vitriol together in an earthen veſſel, then pour them into a retort, and add to them the ſalt by ſmall quantities at a time; fit on a receiver, and diſtil the ſpirit by a fire, gentle at firſt, but afterwards raiſed to a conſiderable ſtrength. The mixture of theſe ingredients is to be made under a chimney, and the vapours carefully avoided, for they are of the moſt fatal ſuffocating kind. This ſpirit is uſed in many metallurgic operations.

*Sweet ſpirit of* SALT. *Spiritus ſalis dulcis.*

Mix together three parts of rectified ſpirit of wine, and one part of ſpirit of ſalt; let them ſtand in digeſtion three weeks or a month in a tall matraſs. The mixture will in this time acquire a very fragrant ſmell, and is to be preſerved for uſe.

This is given in ſome caſes with the *ſpiritus nitri dulcis*, or ſweet ſpirit of nitre. It promotes the diſcharge by urine, and is recommended in the caſes of graveſ and dropſies, and by ſome in malignant and peſtilential fevers. Its doſe is five, ten, or fifteen drops in any convenient vehicle. It has alſo been recommended for the cure of hernias; and that in ſo ſingular a manner, that the French king purchaſed the knowledge of the remedy, while a ſecret only in the hands of one man, at a very conſiderable price for the public.

*Glauber's purging* SALT. *Sal catharticus Glauberi.*

Take the cake remaining after the diſtillation of Glauber's ſpirit of ſea ſalt out of the retort, and diſſolve it in a ſufficient quantity of water; filtrate the ſolution, and evaporate it to a pellicle: ſet it in a cool place, and the ſalt will cryſtallize in large and fair tranſparent ſhoots.

This is a well known and excellent purge, its doſe is from half an ounce to one ounce. Our chemiſts have a way of counterfeiting it by adding the vitriolic acid to a ſolution of the common bitter ſalt called Epſom ſalt; but this may be eaſily diſcovered, the true and genuine ſalt being always much fairer, and more tranſparent than this ſophiſticated kind. The bitter purging ſalt from which this is thus prepared, is what is uſually ſold in our ſhops under the name of Epſom ſalt, and is called alſo *ſal catharticum amarum.*

This is made at the ſalt-works in many parts of England, eſpecially where they boil ſea-water to ſalt. After the ſalt is ſhot, they find a bitter liquor remaining, which they call bittern. They boil this longer, and then ſet it again to ſhoot, and by this means procure from it this ſalt, which obtained the name of Epſom ſalt from its reſemblance of the ſalt of the Epſom waters, which is alſo a purge.

This is a very cheap cathartic, and is in great uſe among the common people. They take it from half an ounce to an ounce, or an ounce and a half, for a doſe.

*Fixed* SALTS. *See* ALCALI.

*Volatile* SALTS, thoſe which are eaſily elevated in diſtillation, or are even exhaled by the noſe, and rendered ſenſible to the ſmell.

*Neutral* SALTS, a kind of intermediate ſalts between acid and alcali, and, though compoſed of both, yet, on trial, exhibit the marks of neither the one, nor the other.

SALT-PETRE. What quantity to be delivered yearly into the royal ſtores, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 113. King may prohibit the exportation of it. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 1. *See* NITRE.

SALVAGE is an allowance made for ſaving of ſhip or goods from the dangers of the ſeas, pirates, or enemies, and is provided for in the following acts, &c.

By 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1. the ſheriffs, juſtices of peace of every county, and all mayors, bailiffs, and other head officers of corporations, and port towns near the ſea, and all conſtables, headboroughs, and officers of the Cuſtoms, ſhall, upon application made to them, on behalf of any commander of a ſhip, being in danger of being ſtranded, command the conſtables of the ports neareſt the coaſts where ſuch ſhip ſhall be in danger, to ſummon as many men as ſhall be thought neceſſary, to the aſſiſtance of ſuch ſhip; and if there ſhall be any ſhip belonging to her majeſty or her ſubjects, riding near the place, the officers of the Cuſtoms, and conſtables, are required to demand of the ſuperior officers of ſuch ſhip, aſſiſtance by their boats, and ſuch hands as they can conveniently ſpare; and, in caſe ſuch ſuperior officer of ſuch ſhip neglect to give ſuch aſſiſtance, he ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds, to be recovered by the ſuperior officer of the ſhip in diſtreſs, with coſts, in any of her majeſty's courts of record.

The collectors of the Cuſtoms, and the commanding officer of any ſhips, and all others who ſhall act in the preſerving of any ſuch ſhip in diſtreſs, or their cargoes, ſhall, within thirty days, be paid a reaſonable reward, by the commander or owner of the ſhip in diſtreſs, or by the merchant, whoſe ſhip or goods ſhall be ſaved; and in default thereof, the ſhip or gnods ſhall remain in the cuſtody of ſuch officer of the Cuſtoms, until all charges be paid, and until the ſaid officer of the Cuſtoms, and the maſter or other officer of the ſhip, and all others ſo employed, ſhall be reaſonably gratified, or ſecurity given for that purpoſe, to the ſatisfaction of the parties; and in caſe, after ſuch ſalvage, the commander, mariners, or owners of ſuch ſhip ſo ſaved, or merchant whoſe goods ſhall be ſaved, ſhall diſagree with the officer of the Cuſtoms, touching the monies deſerved by any of the perſons employed, it ſhall be lawful for the commander of the ſhip ſo ſaved, or the owner of the goods, or the merchant intereſted, and alſo for the officer of the Cuſtoms, to nominate three of the neighbouring juſtices of peace, who ſhall adjuſt the *quantum* of the gratuities, to be paid to the ſeveral perſons, and ſuch adjuſtments ſhall be binding to all parties, and ſhall be recoverable in an action at law in any of her majeſty's courts of record; and in caſe no perſon ſhall appear to make his claim to the goods ſaved, the chief officer of the Cuſtoms of the neareſt port, ſhall apply to three of the neareſt juſtices of the peace, who ſhall put him, or ſome other reſponſible perſon, in poſſeſſion of the goods, ſuch juſtices taking an account of the goods, to be ſigned by ſuch officer of the Cuſtoms; and if the goods ſhall not be claimed within twelve months, public ſale ſhall be made thereof (and if periſhable goods, forthwith to be ſold) and, after charges deducted, the reſidue of the monies, with an account of the whole, ſhall be tranſmitted to her majeſty's Exchequer, for the benefit of the owner, who, upon affidavit or other proof of his property, to the ſatisfaction of one of the barons, ſhall, upon his order, receive the ſame.

If any perſons, beſides thoſe impowered by the officer of the Cuſtoms, and the conſtables, ſhall enter, or endeavour to enter on board any ſuch ſhip in diſtreſs, without the leave of the commander, or of the officer of the Cuſtoms, or conſtable; or in caſe any perſon ſhall moleſt them, in the ſaving of the ſhip or goods, or ſhall deface the marks of any goods, before the ſame be taken down in a book by the commander, and the firſt officer of the Cuſtoms; ſuch perſon ſhall, within twenty days, make double ſatisfaction, at the diſcretion of the two next juſtices of peace, or, in default thereof, ſhall by ſuch juſtices be ſent to the next houſe of correction, where he ſhall be employed in hard labour twelve months; and it ſhall be lawful for any commander, or ſuperior officer of the ſhip in diſtreſs, or of the officer of the Cuſtoms, or conſtable on board the ſhip, to repel by force any ſuch perſons as ſhall, without conſent as aforeſaid, preſs on board the ſaid ſhip in diſtreſs, and thereby moleſt them in the preſervation of the ſhip.

In caſe any goods ſhall be found on any perſon, that were ſtolen or carried off from any ſuch ſhip in diſtreſs, he, on whom ſuch goods ſhall be found, ſhall, upon demand, deliver the ſame to the owner, or to ſuch perſon by ſuch owner authorized to receive the ſame, or ſhall be liable to pay treble the value, to be recovered by ſuch owner in an action.

If any perſon ſhall make, or be aſſiſting in the making, a hole in any ſhip ſo in diſtreſs, or ſteal any pump, or ſhall be aiding in the ſtealing ſuch pump, or ſhall wilfully do any thing tending to the immediate loſs of ſuch ſhip, ſuch perſon ſhall be guilty of felony, without benefit of the clergy.

If any action be proſecuted for any thing done in purſuance of this act, all perſons ſo ſued may plead the general iſſue; and this act ſhall be a public act.

If any officer of the Cuſtoms ſhall, by fraud or wilful neglect, abuſe the truſt hereby repoſed in him, and ſhall be convicted thereof, ſuch officer ſhall forfeit treble damages to the party grieved, &c. and ſhall be incapable of any employment relating to the Cuſtoms.

This act ſhall be read four times in the year, in all churches and chapels of every ſea-port town, and upon the ſea-coaſt, upon the Sundays next before Michaelmas-day, Chriſtmas-day, Lady-day, and Midſummer-day, in the morning after prayers, and before ſermon.

This act ſhall not prejudice her majeſty, or any grantee of the crown, or any lord of a manor, or other perſon, in relation to any right to *wreck*, or any goods that are *flotſam*, *jetſam*, or *lagan*.

Made perpetual, 4 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12.

The act, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18. ſhall not affect the ancient juriſdiction of the Admiralty court of the cinque-ports; but the officers of the ſaid court ſhall put the ſaid act in execution, within the juriſdiction of the cinque-ports.

*In the year* 1753, *the following act of* 26 Geo. II. *paſſed, which having reduced the greateſt part of the former laws into this act, for the guidance of maſters of ſhips, and other perſons concerned in ſhipping, it is here inſerted.*

The preamble begins that, Whereas, notwithſtanding, the good and ſalutary laws now in being, againſt plundering and deſtroying veſſels in diſtreſs, and againſt taking away ſhipwrecked, loſt, or ſtranded goods, many wicked enormities have been committed, to the diſgrace of the nation, and to the grievous damage of merchants and mariners, of our own and other countries: be it enacted, that, if any perſon or perſons, ſhall plunder, ſteal, take away, or deſtroy any goods or merchandize, or other effects, from, or belonging to, any ſhip or veſſel which ſhall be in diſtreſs, or ſhall be wrecked, loſt, ſtranded, or caſt on ſhore, in any part of his majeſty's dominions, (whether any living creature be on board or not) or any of the furniture, tackle, apparel, proviſion, or any part of ſuch ſhip or veſſel; or ſhall beat, or wound, with intent to kill or deſtroy, or ſhall otherwiſe wilfully obſtruct the eſcape of any perſon endeavouring to ſave his or her life, from ſuch ſhip or veſſel, or the wreck thereof; or, if any perſon or perſons ſhall put out any falſe light or lights, with intention to bring any ſhip or veſſel into danger, then ſuch perſon or perſons ſo offending, ſhall be deemed guilty of felony, and being lawfully convicted thereof, ſhall ſuffer death, as in caſes of felony, without benefit of clergy.

Provided, that when goods of ſmall value ſhall be caſt on ſhore, and ſtolen without circumſtances of cruelty or violence, the offender, on conviction, be puniſhed as in caſes of petit larceny.

It ſhall be lawful for any juſtice of peace, upon information being made to him on oath, of any part of the cargo, or effects of any ſhip, loſt or ſtranded, being unlawfully carried away, and concealed, to iſſue his warrant for ſearching any houſe, &c. as in other caſes of ſtolen goods: and, if the ſame ſhall be found in ſuch houſe, &c. or in poſſeſſion of any perſon not legally authorized to keep the ſame, and the owner of ſuch houſe, or the perſon in whoſe cuſtody the ſame ſhall be found, ſhall not give an account to the ſatisfaction of the juſtice of the peace, how he came by the goods, it ſhall be lawful, upon proof of ſuch refuſal, and he is required, to commit the offender to the common goal for ſix months, or until he ſhall have paid the owner treble the value of the things unlawfully detained.

If any perſon ſhall offer to ſale any effects belonging to any veſſel loſt as aforeſaid, and unlawfully taken away, or ſuſpected ſo to have been, it ſhall be lawful to ſeize, and carry the ſame, or give notice thereof with all convenient ſpeed, to ſome juſtice of the peace; and, if the perſon offering them to ſale, or ſome other perſon in their behalf, ſhall not appear before the juſtice within ten days after ſuch ſeizure, and make out to the ſatisfaction of the juſtice, his property in the goods, or in ſome perſon who employed him, then the goods ſhall be delivered for the uſe of the right owner, upon payment of a reaſonable reward for ſuch ſeizure, to be aſcertained by the juſtice, to the perſon who ſeized the ſame, and ſuch juſtice ſhall commit the offender to the common goal for ſix months, or until he ſhall have paid the owner treble the value of the goods.

In caſe any perſon not employed by the maſter, &c. in the ſalvage of any veſſel, or the cargo, &c. ſhall, in the abſence of perſons ſo employed, ſave any ſuch ſhip, goods, &c. and cauſe the ſame to be carried for the benefit of the owners or proprietors, into port, or place of ſafe cuſtody, immediately giving notice to ſome juſtice of the peace, magiſtrate, Cuſtom-houſe or Exciſe officer, or ſhall diſcover to any magiſtrate or officer, where any ſuch goods are wrongfully, bought, ſold, or concealed, ſuch perſon ſhall be intitled to a reaſonable reward, to be paid by the maſter or owner of ſuch veſſel, in like manner as ſalvage is to be paid, by 12 *Ann.* intitled, an act for the preſerving all ſuch ſhips and goods thereof, which have happened to be forced on ſhore, or ſtranded upon the coaſt of this kingdom, or any other of his majeſty's dominions, or elſe in the manner herein after preſcribed, as the caſe ſhall require.

For the better aſcertaining the ſalvage, and putting the acts in execution, the juſtice of the peace, mayor, bailiff, collector of the Cuſtoms, or chief conſtable, who ſhall be neareſt where any ſhip is ſtranded or caſt away, ſhall, forthwith, give notice for a meeting of the ſheriffs or his deputy, the juſtice of the peace, mayor, or other chief magiſtrate of towns corporate, coroners, and commiſſioners of land-tax, or any five or more of them, who are required and impowered to employ proper perſons, for ſaving ſhips in diſtreſs, and ſhips and goods as ſhall be ſtranded or caſt away; and alſo to examine perſons concerning the ſame, or the ſalvage thereof, to adjuſt the *quantum* of ſuch ſalvage, and diſtribute the ſame, in caſe of diſagreement among the parties: and, that every perſon attending and acting at ſuch meeting, ſhall be allowed four ſhillings a day, out of the effects ſaved by their care and direction.

But if the charges and rewards for ſalvage, directed by the act 12 *Ann.* and by this preſent act, be not paid or ſecurity given within forty days, the officer of the Cuſtoms concerned in ſuch ſalvage, may borrow money on the goods, &c. by bill of ſale, on ſuch part of the goods, &c. as ſhall be ſufficient, redeemable upon payment of the principal ſum and intereſt, at four *per cent.*

And if oath ſhall be made before any magiſtrate, lawfully impowered to take the ſame, of any theft, and the examination taken ſhall be delivered to the clerk of the peace, for the county, &c. or his deputy; or if oath ſhall be made of the breaking any ſhip, contrary to the act, 12 *Ann.* and the examination delivered to the clerk of the peace or his deputy, he ſhall cauſe the offender to be proſecuted, either in the county where the fact was committed, or the county adjoining, where any indictment may be laid by any other proſecutor; and if the fact be committed in Wales, then the proſecution may be carried on in the next adjoining Engliſh county: the charge of ſuch proſecution by the clerks of the peace, to be ſettled by the juſtices at ſeſſion, and paid by the treaſurer of the county, &c. the clerk of the peace, on refuſal or neglect to carry on ſuch proſecution, to forfeit one hundred pounds for every offence, to any perſon who ſhall ſue for the ſame.

The lord wardens of the cinque-ports, the lieutenant of Dover-Caſtle, the deputy warden of the cinque-ports, and the judge officiate, and commiſſary of the court of Admiralty of the cinque ports, two ancient towns, and the members thereof, for the time being, and every perſon appointed by the lord warden of the cinque-ports, ſhall put the acts in execution within the juriſdiction of the cinque-ports, two ancient towns, and their members in the ſame manner, as the juſtices, &c. in other places.

If any perſon, appointed to put this act in execution, ſhall be wounded in ſuch ſervice, ſuch perſon or perſons, ſo wounding him, ſhall, upon trial and conviction, at the aſſizes or general goal delivery, or at the general or quarter ſeſſions for the county, &c. be tranſported for ſeven years, to ſome of his majeſty's colonies in America.

Any juſtice of the peace in the abſence of the ſheriff, may take ſufficient power to repreſs all violence, and enforce the execution of this act.

To prevent confuſion among perſons aſſembled to ſave any ſhip, &c. all perſons ſhall conform to the orders of the maſter, or other officers, or owners; or for want of their preſence or direction, to any of the perſons appointed to put this act in execution, in the following ſubordination: firſt, to the orders of the officer of the Cuſtoms, then of the Exciſe, the ſheriff of the county, or his deputy, a juſtice of the peace, the mayor or chief magiſtrate of any corporation, the coroner, the commiſſioner of the land-tax; then of any chief conſtable, petty conſtable, or other peace officers: and, whoever acts knowingly, or wilfully, contrary to ſuch orders, forfeits five pounds, and in caſe of non-payment, to be ſent to the houſe of correction, for any time, not exceeding three months.

Nothing in this act extends to Scotland. *See* AVERAGE *and* CONTRIBUTION.

SAMA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

SAMARANG, twenty-two leagues from Tagal, and about ſixty-eight from Batavia, is a city ſurrounded by a plain

plain, and croſſed by a river that receives barks and ſmall veſſels between its mouth and the city; it is the biggeſt on the coaſt after Bantam, and ſuppoſed to contain more than twenty thouſand houſes; the company have a factory and fort here, which commands all the others that are on the coaſt, the chief bearing the title of commander, and is the fourth that they have in India. The Chineſe, who have ſpread themſelves on all this coaſt, as well as in the other iſles, are very numerous in this place, by whoſe means the company correſponds with the Javan court, kept at Cartaſoura, a good way within land, as the emperor has for many years quitted Mataram, where he formerly reſided; it is reckoned four days journey from Samarang to Cartaſoura, and Mataram is another day's travel further to the ſouth.

SAMARKANT. *See* BOUCHARIE.

SAMBAS. *See* BORNEO.

SAMIAN EARTH, *terra Samia*, a medicinal earth, or bole, found in the iſland from whence it has its name among beds of ſtone, not properly in the fiſſures of ſtrata, for the ſtones it lies among do not form any; they are a kind of large and flat fragments of a ſoft ſtone of a pale brown colour, and there are ſeveral ranges of them, between which this earth lies in a kind of diſcontinuous horizontal ſtratum. The old Greek writers tell us of great difficulties that the workmen laboured under in procuring the white Samian earth, as they were forced to follow it between the fiſſures of the ſolid ſtrata, and to lie flat on their backs or ſides, as they picked it out; but no ſuch trouble was neceſſary about this other kind, for it was only neceſſary to remove the ſtones which were in a manner ready formed for building with, and they might take it up in large quantities. It ſtands recommended as an excellent aſtringent, and on trial is found to deſerve ſome praiſe on that account; but it is ſo much inferior, even in that reſpect, to any of the Oriental, and even to ſome of the European boles, that it would be idle to attempt the bringing it into uſe.

On analyſis it is found to contain a ſmall portion of that alcaline matter, which is the baſis of ſea-ſalt; for though this be not enough in quantity, or be too ſtrictly united with the reſt of its conſtituent matter, true cryſtals of ſea-ſalt of their proper form will be produced, and that fairer and in larger proportion than it could be done by means of any other alcali of whatever kind.

SAMOGITIA lies on the north of Pruſſia, between Courland and Semigallia, on the north; Lithuania on the eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt; and Ducal Pruſſia on the ſouth-weſt, with a ſmall part of it extending weſt, quite down to the Baltic. It is a marſhy ſoil, and has abundance of rivers and lakes, that at ſome ſeaſons overflow the land, which yields corn and paſture. The country has inacceſſible mountains, and is over-run with woods, wherein the inhabitants find great quantities of honey, every tree, almoſt, having a ſwarm of bees, and their wax is purer and whiter than that either of Lithuania or Livonia. Here is a breed of horſes which are ſmall, but ſprightly, ſwift, and hardy.

The Samogitians, as well as the Poles, plow, ſow, and harrow, all at the ſame time; and the ground having been but once improved by burning, will bear crops ſeven or eight years together, without dunging. When they burn the woods on the lands, if they meet with high trees, they do not cut them down, but only prune off their ſide branches, to let in the rays of the ſun upon the ground; which they perform with ſuch dexterity, that one peaſant will prune above a thouſand trees together, without once coming down: for which end, he provides himſelf with a ſeat of rope, much like a ſtirrup, which he faſtens to a long cord, and having caſt it over an arm of a tree, a boy, who is on the ground, draws him up and down; and, when this is done, by the help of another tree, he eaſily ſhifts himſelf, with his hook, to the next. They have alſo as odd a way of ſowing; which is, by mixing two parts of barley with one of wheat, and putting them into the ground together, in the ſpring; whereby it happens, that the barley may be mowed in one harveſt, and the wheat reaped the next. This wheat being trod down by thoſe that mow the barley, the next harveſt commonly comes up very thick and high. In time of war they bury their corn under ground, in a place made up of poſts and bark of trees, for that purpoſe, and they dry their corn with ſmoke, before they lay it up in their granaries, by which means it keeps good for ſeveral years together.

SAND, in Norway, lies on the weſt-ſide of Chriſtiana river, though the ſhips chiefly load on the eaſt ſide, at Drobark and Wenebeck; its exports are great quantities of white wood balks, and ſpars, principally for the Hollanders.

SANDARACH, in natural hiſtory, a very beautiful native foſſil, though too often confounded by authors, as well as by our druggiſts, with the common factitious red arſenic, and with the red matter formed by melting the common yellow orpiment. The firſt of theſe is a very terrible error, as it confounds a ſafe and harmleſs medicine with a horrible poiſon: the latter is of a leſs pernicious nature, as the ſandarach is truly of the nature of orpiments, and not only much reſembles the maſs produced by fire from the common orpiment, but very poſſibly may be, though native in regard to us, a foſſil formed within the earth from orpiment, by means of a ſimilar proceſs by the ſubterranean fires.

It is a pure and elegant ſubſtance, of a very even and regular ſtructure, moderately hard, and very remarkably heavy. It is naturally of a ſmooth and ſomewhat gloſſy ſurface, ſoft to the touch, and is found in looſe maſſes lodged among the ore in the veins of copper, and ſome other mines. It throughout of a very glowing red colour, ſuperior to that of the pureſt cinnabar, as it is brighter, and has ſomewhat of the yellowiſh tinge among it that is wanting in that foſſil; but though ſuperior to cinnabar in the maſs, in this reſpect, it is vaſtly inferior to it, when both are reduced to powder. It is found in Saxony and Bohemia in the copper and ſilver mines, and is uſed by painters, who find it a very fine and valuable red.

The qualities of this drug are no more aſcertained at this time, than thoſe of yellow orpiment; ſome authors looking upon it as poiſonous, and others as a good medicine. However, if there were no other reaſons againſt the bringing this and the yellow orpiment into uſe into medicine, the common error of confounding them with the red and yellow factitious arſenic would be ſufficient, at leaſt till it ſhould be better cleared up, than it is at preſent, to the generality of the world.

*Gum* SANDARACH. This is very improperly called a gum, being a dry and hard reſin, brought chiefly from the coaſts of Africa; we uſually meet with it in looſe drops or granules, of a pale whitiſh yellow colour, tranſparent, of a reſinous ſmell, and ſomewhat acrid and aromatic taſte.

The tree which produces it, is one of the *dicæcia monodelphia* of Linnæus, and of the *arbores flore fructu remoto bacciferæ* of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed by all the botanical writers under the name of *juniperus arboreſcens*, or *juniperus arbor*; ſome of it is alſo obtained from the *cedrus bacciferа* of authors. It flows from theſe trees only in hot countries, and there naturally in ſome plenty; but the natives generally promote the diſcharge of it by making inciſions in the bark. What is obtained by the *cedrus bacciferа* is more fragrant, and therefore more eſteemed by ſome; but it is ſeldom met with ſeparate in the ſhops, both being mixed together under the common name of ſandarach.

It is good in diarrhæas and hæmorrhages: its doſe is from ten grains to half a drachm: it is alſo ſometimes preſcribed in gonorrhæas and the *fluor albus*; but at preſent it is much diſuſed in medicine. It is, however, much uſed by writing-maſters, &c. reduced into a powder, which they call pounce, and which, being rubbed on the paper, makes it leſs apt to imbibe the ink, and by that means renders the writing fairer. The varniſh makers alſo uſe it; they make a kind of liquid varniſh of it, by diſſolving it in oil of turpentine, or linſeed, or in ſpirit of wine.

SANDARACH, alſo implies the matter found in the hive of bees, generally known by the name of bees-bread.

SANDEFIORD, in Norway, a ſmall place between Laurvig and Tonſberg, whoſe chief produce is ſpars for Denmark, as there are few inſtances of foreigners lading here.

SANDIVER, *or* SONDIVER, the droſs of glaſs; or the ſcum that ariſes from the aſhes of the herb kali, uſed in making glaſs. It is alſo uſed by ſome writers for the kali, or glaſs-wort itſelf.

SANDWICH. *See* RAMSGATE.

SANGUINE STONE, *lapis ſanguinalis*, a kind of jaſper, brought from Spain, of a dark brown colour, marked with blood-red ſpots.

SANTALA, the ſaunders woods. We have in the ſhops three very different woods brought to us under the general name of ſaunders, which are diſtinguiſhed, according to their colour, into the yellow, the white, and the red kind.

The white and yellow ſaunders are the wood of a tree which grows in China and Siam: the white is the outward part next to the bark, and the yellow the internal. Both ſorts have a bitteriſh, aromatic taſte, an agreeable kind of pungency, and a fragrant ſmell, which, Geoffroy thinks, ſomewhat reſembles a mixture of muſk and roſes: but the yellow poſſeſſes theſe qualities in a more eminent degree than the white. Yellow ſaunders, digeſted in ſpirit of wine, yields a rich yellow tincture, which, by a gentle abſtraction of the menſtruum, affords a balſam approaching, in colour and conſiſtence, to balſam of Peru. Hoffman ſays, that this eſſence, or balſam, of yellow ſaunders, is a medicine of ſimilar virtue to ambergreaſe, and recommends it as a reſtorative in great debilities.

Red ſaunders is the internal part of a tree, which grows in the Eaſt-Indies, in Malabar, and Coromandel. It is a ſolid, compact, heavy wood, of a dark red colour, which it readily communicates to ſpirit of wine, but not to water. Hoffman obtained from this wood a reſin of a deep red colour, which had no perceptible taſte or ſmell: a ſmall quantity of this reſin tinged a large one of ſpirit, but gave no colour either to expreſſed or diſtilled oils.

SAPPHIRE, *ſapphirus*, a precious ſtone, of a beautiful azure, or ſky-blue colour. The ſapphire is one of the firſt in the rank of gems, when perfect, and in its pureſt ſtate. It is equal in hardneſs, in luſtre, and in price, to the ruby, or any other of the coloured gems. It is found uſually in the pebble form, that is, in ſmall, roundiſh, or flattiſh maſſes, with no angles, their ſurfaces ſmooth, and ſomewhat gloſſy. In this ſtate, its uſual ſize is that of a pea, and the more rare ſtones are as large as a horſe-bean; and ſome have even been found pure and fine, of more than half an inch diameter. Their value does not always riſe in proportion to their ſize in this ſtate; for theſe pebbles are often of ſo irregular a figure, that there is no working them whole into one ſtone, but they muſt be cut into two or three; and often one part of them is well coloured and the other not.

The pebble ſapphires, though they have ſome brightneſs, have not by any means the luſtre and beauty of the native ruby. This is the moſt uſual form of this gem in its natural ſtate; but is ſometimes alſo found in the angular and columnar forms. In this ſtate, it always forms an hexangular column, terminated by a ſhort hexangular pyramid, and perfectly reſembling a ſprig of the common cryſtal, but that it is of a beautiful blue colour. There is great variety of theſe columnar ſapphires; they ſeldom ſtand ſingle, but cluſters of them are found together among a congeries of ten or a dozen of them; however, it is rare to find more than one or two that are duly and thoroughly coloured. Some are tinged only at the point, and a little way down the column; ſome have a faint tinge of the blue, ſcarce perceptible; and others are perfectly pellucid and colourleſs. Theſe are the true and genuine white ſapphires: they are very beautiful, extremely bright, and of a fine water, far exceeding any other ſtone, except the diamond. Our jewellers have a way of ſelling cryſtals, well cut, under the name of the white ſapphire, and have debaſed the value of the ſtone, in the opinion of the world; but, when a genuine white ſapphire is met, it is eaſily ſeen to be ſomething very different from all the counterfeits.

Beſides, the ſeveral ſhades and degrees of colour between the deepeſt indigo blue, and the pure colourleſs and pellucid (of every degree of which we find ſapphires) there are alſo ſome which have very little of the blue, but have with it a fine pearly whiteneſs; theſe have leſs pellucidity than the others, and are, from their milky hue, called milk ſapphires. Theſe reſemble the opal, but want the changeable colours of that ſtone. There is ſomething very beautiful in the milky ſapphire, in its ordinary ſtate; but it is at times found tinged with other colours, with any of which it makes a charming appearance. The ſapphire is of very different degrees of hardneſs, luſtre, and value, according to the different places where it is found. Our jewellers make four kinds of it. 1. When the ſtone is in its utmoſt perfection, finely coloured with a bright though ſtrong blue, and of the ſame degree of hardneſs with the ruby, they call it the oriental blue ſapphire; theſe ſtones are very ſcarce, and of a very great value. The ſecond kind is what they call the white ſapphire. The third kind includes the ſapphires of Sileſia and Bohemia, which are of a pale blue, and ſcarce harder than cryſtal; theſe they call water ſapphires, and are vaſtly inferior in luſtre to the oriental ones. The fourth kind is the milk ſapphire above-mentioned. The oriental ſapphires are brought from Pegu, where they are found of all ſhades of blue, from the paleſt tinge to the deepeſt violet. When any of theſe are ill coloured, they are ſometimes diveſted of it, by heating them in the fire, and ſold under the name of white ſapphires. The pebble ſapphires of the Eaſt-Indies are more valuable than the columnar; thoſe of Pegu are all of this kind. We have ſome pebble and ſome columnar or cryſtalliform ſapphires from Cananor, and the iſland of Ceylon, which are often very fine; and we ſometimes ſee ſtones half ſapphire, and half ruby; that is, part of them red, and the other part blue, from this part of the world. The red of theſe ſtones is true ruby, and the blue part true ſapphire; whence it naturally follows, that the baſis of theſe two gems is the ſame, and that they only become different, by imbibing different colours.

The ſapphire is ſaid to poſſeſs great virtues as a cordial, ſudorific, and alexipharmic; but theſe virtues are only ſuppoſitions, we having no good teſtimony that they are founded on experiment: and indeed, if the gem had any, we cannot profit by them; thoſe kept in the ſhops having not even the colour, luſtre, nor tranſparency, of the true ſapphire to recommend them. They are in general compoſed of a ferrugineous matter, and moſt of them will be attracted by the magnet.

SARCOCOLLA is a gummy juice, ſomewhat reſinous, ſaid to be the produce of a tree, of which we have no certain account. It is brought from Perſia and Arabia, in ſmall whitiſh yellow grains, with a few of a reddiſh colour mixed among them. It is of a bitteriſh and nauſeous ſweet taſte, and diſſolves, in a good meaſure, in water.

Some authors recommend ſarcocolla to be taken internally as a balſamic; but Hoffman, from experience, abſolutely condemns the internal uſe of it. It is recommended for opthalmics in defluxions of a ſharp matter on the eyes, and is generally ordered to be diſſolved in milk for this purpoſe.

SARDINIA, an iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituate between eight and ten degrees of eaſt longitude, and between thirty nine and forty-one degrees of north latitude; bounded by the ſtraight which divides it from Corſica on the north, by the Tuſcan ſea, which flows between this iſland and Italy, on the eaſt, and by other parts of the Mediterranean ſea, on the ſouth and weſt, and is about one hundred and forty miles long, and ſixty broad; a warm country, but not eſteemed very healthful.

This iſland, which is eſteemed the moſt conſiderable in the Mediterranean next to Sicily, for bigneſs and fertility, is ſaid to be about ſeven hundred miles in circuit, comprehending the turnings and windings of the coaſt, namely the capes and the gulphs; which way of calculating is no leſs uncertain than laborious; hence ſome will have it to be only five hundred miles in compaſs. The ſoil is fruitful in all ſorts of corn, and no leſs productive of various fruits, in great quantity and perfection. It alſo breeds vaſt herds of large and ſmall cattle, ſo that it furniſhes Italy with wool, hides, and a fine ſort of cheeſe, beſides its home conſumption. The traffic it drives moreover from the fiſhery of coral, linnen, ſilk, &c. is no leſs conſiderable. The moſt rocky and mountainous parts of this iſland, are no leſs rich within than barren without, they yielding great quantities of metals and minerals, as gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, alum, &c.

SARDONYX, a precious ſtone of an appearance between the ſarda and the onyx.

SARPLAR OF WOOL, otherwiſe called a pocket, is half a ſack, a ſack eighty tod, a tod two ſtone, and a ſtone fourteen pounds.

SARSAPARILLA, which is brought from New Spain, Peru, and Braſil, conſiſts of a great number of long ſlender roots, hanging from one head, or tranſverſe root, which is about an inch thick: the long roots (which are the parts alone made uſe of) are about the thickneſs of a gooſe quill, or thicker, flexible, and compoſed of fibres running their whole length, ſo that the root may be ſtript into pieces from

one

one end to the other; they contain, under a thin, browniſh, or aſh-coloured bark, a white, ſoft, farinaceous ſubſtance; have no ſmell, but a ſomewhat glutinous, bitteriſh, not ungrateful taſte: the pith is woody, flexible, and not eaſily broken.

It is a ſudorific, and an attenuant, and has been eſteemed a great medicine in the cure of the venereal diſeaſe, but the uſe of mercury has cauſed it of late to be neglected. It is however of great ſervice in many chronic caſes, which owe their origin to obſtructions of the viſcera; and where attenuants are proper; but it muſt be continued a long time, and is beſt given in decoction, or by way of diet-drink.

*Sarſaparilla*, may be imported from the American plantations, &c. if of the growth of America, 7 *Ann. c.* 8.

SASSAFRAS is a light, ſpongy wood, or root, brought from Virginia, Braſil, and other parts of America, in long, ſtraight pieces, covered with a rough, fungous bark, outwardly of an aſh colour, inwardly of the colour of ruſty iron, of an acrid, ſweetiſh, aromatic taſte, and a fragrant ſmell.

The wood and bark of ſaſſafras, being raſped, and macerated with a large quantity of water, and then diſtilled, yields a limpid, extremely fragrant and eſſential oil, which ſinks in water, and is the heavieſt of all eſſential oils.

Saſſafras wood is a diuretic and diaphoretic; it attenuates viſcid humours, and is good in all obſtructions of the viſcera. It is given in cachexies, in ſcorbutic complaints, and in the venereal diſeaſe. It is ſeldom given in ſubſtance; the uſual way of taking it being in infuſion, in the manner of common tea, in which method it is very pleaſant. The oil extracted from it is very fragrant, and poſſeſſes moſt of the virtues of the wood.

SAT, a meaſure uſed at Siam for corn, ſeeds, pulſe, and ſome dry fruits; it is a ſort of a buſhel made of bambou, and forty of them make a ſeſte, and forty ſeſtes the cohi; it is difficult to reduce with any certainty theſe meaſures to thoſe of Europe, as ſome reckon the ſeſte, one hundred catis, and the cati (as has been already obſerved) not being of the ſame weight in all parts of India, the ſeſte or ſat cannot be aſcertained; but if one hundred catis be eſteemed one hundred and twenty-five pounds marc, the ſat will be near three pounds, and the cochi five thouſand pounds.

SAUNDERS. *See* SANTALA.

SAVOY duchy is ſituated between France and Italy, on the weſt-ſide of the Alps, bounded by the lake and territories of Geneva, on the north; by Switzerland and Piedmont on the eaſt; by another part of Piedmont and Dauphine on the ſouth; and by Franche Compte and Dauphine on the weſt. It is a barren country, generally being encumbered with the high cold mountains of the Alps; however, there are ſome pleaſant fruitful vallies, producing corn, wine, and fruit; and they have large herds of cattle, and abundance of game, veniſon, and wild fowl, in their mountains, and plenty of fiſh in their lakes and rivers. Their greateſt misfortune is, that they lie open to the incurſions of the French; and whenever their prince is at war with that kingdom, Savoy is at firſt made ſenſible of the ravages of the French troops, and uſed as a conquered country, though, upon every treaty of peace, it has hitherto been reſtored to the duke of Savoy, at preſent king of Sardinia.

SAW, a well known inſtrument, ſerving to divide into pieces wood, ſtone, ivory, &c. The mechanics reckon the ſix following ſeveral ſorts of ſaws:

1. The pit-ſaw, which is uſed to ſaw timber and boards, and to cut off ſcantlings, quarters, or battens, from any piece of timber. The matter to be ſawed is ſometimes laid over a pit, and ſometimes on great veſſels above ground. 2. The whip-ſaw is uſed by joiners, to cut off ſuch pieces of ſtuff as the hand-ſaw will not eaſily cut through. It is drawn by two men, and the timber is placed on treſſes, in order to be cut. 3. The hand-ſaw, which is to be uſed by a ſingle man, and uſually with one hand. 4. The frame-ſaw, or bow-ſaw, is a ſaw with cheeks made to it, and with a twiſted cord and tongue in the middle to draw the upper ends of the cheeks cloſer together, that the lower ends may be farther aſunder, and ſo ſtrain the ſaw the ſtreighter. 5. The tennon-ſaw, which is a thin ſaw with a back to it, to keep it from bending. 6. The compaſs-ſaw, which is deſigned to cut a round, or any compaſs-kerf; wherefore its edge muſt be made broad, and the back thin, and the blade narrow, that the back may have a wide kerf to turn in, and ſo the eaſier to follow the edge.

SAW-MAKER. This is a buſineſs which requires ſtrength, but no extraordinary education. It is a branch of the ſmithery; and the perfection of the work conſiſts in the temper of the metal. The ſaw-maker takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn common ſmiths wages as a journeyman; or, with one hundred or two hundred pounds, ſet up maſter.

SAWYER. The boy, deſigned for this trade, ought to have great ſtrength of body. The ſawyer ſaws trees or large pieces of timber into boards; and though it ſeems a branch of the carpenter's buſineſs, yet it is ſo diſtinct from it, that neither a timber merchant, nor a carpenter, it is ſaid, can employ any but regular bred ſawyers to do that work. The maſter-ſawyer has uſually five or ten pounds with an apprentice; who muſt work from ſix to ſix. The journeymen, who always work in pairs, commonly earn three ſhillings a day each; and a maſter ſawyer, who can conſtantly keep three or four pair of ſawyers at work, may live handſomely and ſave money. Sometimes they fall into the timber trade.

SAXIFRAGE, a medicinal plant, ſo called from its ſuppoſed virtue in diſſolving the ſtone; but it is rarely uſed at preſent.

SAXON GREEN COLOUR. Method of dying white cloth green, called Saxon green.

The ordinary greens, ſtained blue in a woad-vat, and afterwards yellow, in a bath of dyer's woad, are ſeldom uniform, almoſt always dull, and require ſeveral days labour to finiſh them entirely. The green, dyed according to the new proceſs, of which the Saxons are believed to be the inventors, is, without compariſon, more freſh and lively; and, in four and twenty hours, one may dye ſeveral pieces of cloth, firſt blue, and then green, in the ſame copper.

Although this green is not ſolid, when tried inſtantaneouſly, as the common green, nevertheleſs, it reſiſts as much as theſe, both the action of the air, and the rays of the ſun; and its luſtre hath obtained it the preference over them in England, Germany, and the northern countries.

The firſt Saxon greens imported into the kingdom of France were purchaſed, ſays M. Savary, immediately, and the public, aſtoniſhed at their liveline's, was deſirous that they ſhould be imitated in France. Their deſire was complied with, as ſoon as it was poſſible to learn the baſis of the proceſs; and thoſe who were charged with the execution, have ſucceeded ſo much to their wiſh, that the laſt cloths which they dyed are, at leaſt, as pretty as the fineſt greens, brought from Saxony.

The foundation of this green, is a blue, extracted from indigo by the acid of vitriol: it is covered with a yellow, extracted from real yellow woad, from dyer's weed, or from any other ingredient, which gives a yellow of good tint: but the ſucceſs of the proceſs depends upon the choice of the acid, known in trade by the appellation of oil of vitriol; and alſo upon the equal diſtribution of the ſame acid, when it is incorporated with the blue of indigo in the copper, where the cloth is to be dyed firſt a lively ſhining blue, and afterwards a yellow, which is to be changed into a green.

If the oil of vitriol is weakened by a too great quantity of aqueous particles, it doth not attack the beſt indigo, or, at leaſt, extracts from it an ugly grey. If the indigo blue, extracted by a concentrated, or very acid oil of vitriol, is not eaſily diſtributed in the bath of the copper, as this liquor is much heavier than water, it is precipitated to the bottom by its own gravity: in this caſe, the cloth dipped in the bath imbibes the blue very unequally, and appears variouſly ſhaded. It takes, indeed, the green colour in the bath of yellow, but that green is alſo differently ſhaded.

In publiſhing the proceſs of a Saxon green, we thought proper to begin with informing dyers with the method of preventing theſe defects. The common oil of vitriol which is bought of druggiſts, or brought from Hamburgh or Holland, muſt be concentrated by diſtillation. But this operation is difficult for a dyer, who may not be always ſuppoſed capable of conducting diſtillation by a retort. Now it is required to have the oil of vitriol with the feweſt aqueous particles poſſible; theſe may be expelled by a ſand-fire, ſtrong enough to make them evaporate into ſmoke or vapour. When the oil of vitriol ceaſes to ſmoke with the ſame degree of heat, it is a ſure ſign that it is concentrated, or acid enough to extract the blue colour from indigo; and conſequently to make what is called, in the proceſs, the

compoſition. This evaporation is performed in a glaſs-pot without a funnel, better than in any other veſſel: where that is wanting, a well burnt ſtone-pot may be uſed, provided it is not porous; or finally, an earthen pot well varniſhed, which, however, is not ſo proper for that operation, as either thoſe of ſtone or glaſs.

This veſſel, of glaſs, of ſtone, or of varniſhed earth, is to be placed upon an iron pan, half, or two-thirds, full of fine ſand, which ought to be well dried before. This iron pan muſt be put upon a ſtove, with a grate, and an aſh-pan under it, and the bed of ſand muſt be gradually heated with a charcoal fire, that the glaſs, ſtone, or earthen pot may likewiſe be heated by degrees, and not be in danger of cracking, which would certainly be the caſe, if it was warmed too precipitately.

As ſoon as the oil of vitriol emits no more aqueous vapours, the acid begins to evaporate: it is eaſily judged if the vapour is acid, by holding a piece of blue paper ſtretched over it: if the paper becomes red almoſt inſtantaneouſly, the liquor is ſufficiently evaporated: allow it then to cool till it be lukewarm, by taking the pot off the hot ſand, and placing it upon ſtraw at a ſmall diſtance from the ſtone, that the contiguous air may be dry; for, was it placed in a moiſt air, the oil of vitriol would re-imbibe the aqueous humidity, which is loſt by evaporation. This liquor, being thus cooled, ſo as to be hardly lukewarm, muſt be poured upon the quantity of indigo which ſhall be afterwards preſcribed. The indigo, however, muſt be beforehand reduced to a powder, and put into a glaſs or ſtone-veſſel, which ſhould be well ſtopped with a cork, with wax round it, leaſt the oil of vitriol, after diſſolving the indigo, which is then called the compoſition of blue, ſhould re-attract the moiſture of the air.

In fine, if you would be abſolutely certain that the oil of vitriol is concentrated enough not to fail in forming this compoſition, you have only to pour two ounces of it upon forty or fifty grains of pulverized indigo, put into a phial, and to mix them well by ſhaking the phial; in an hour's time, the liquor which floats above the ſediment, ſhould be of a fine dark blue: if it is only grey, the oil of vitriol is not enough concentrated.

*Proceſs for dying a piece of cloth twenty ells long, into a Saxon green.*

Diſſolve in a ſufficient quantity of river water, which breaks ſoap perfectly well, three pounds and a half of Roman allum, and two pounds of the powder of white tartar; boil the cloth in it half an hour, or five and thirty minutes at moſt; take it out and expoſe it to air to cool, but do not waſh it.

Refreſh the bath of this boiler with twenty buckets full of water, and throw in, at two different times, the compoſitions of blue deſigned for the cloth. If the oil of vitriol has concentrated, or has ſtood the proof as deſcribed above, it is ſufficient to take a pound and a half, and pour it lukewarm upon two ounces and an half of fine powder of indigo. You muſt wait till the diſſolution is made, and the liquor becomes a fine dark blue; but if this compoſition of blue has been made ſome days before, ſo much the better; for then you may take one pound ten ounces, or a little more, and pour the half of it into a large ſtone-pot, or into a bucket, proper for the uſe, into which there muſt be put before, ten or twelve pints of the refreſhed bath from the boiler. The whole muſt be well jumbled, in order to diffuſe the compoſition of blue. You muſt likewiſe have a ſtraining-bag of cloth, ſteep it well in the bath of the boiler, open it, and pour it into that half of the compoſition, which is already mixed. By this means you will preſerve the ſtraining-bag, which, without this precaution, would have been burnt by the oil of vitriol, if it had been poured in as much concentrated as at firſt.

Put the ſtraining-bag over the whole extent of the bath, that it may imbibe the blue equally; palliate likewiſe the bath, that the diſtribution of the colouring particles may be more equal; when the cloth is cooled, let it down into the cauldron, and keep it there five or ſix minutes without boiling, turning it rapidly, and agitating the bath with a pole of white wood. Then take out the cloth, raiſing it only upon the turn. Put the ſtraining-bag again into the ſame bath, and throw in the other half of the compoſition of blue, after it has been diſſolved as the former half, in ten or twelve pints of water taken from the boiler. Paſs the ſtraining-bag over the bath, as formerly, palliate it ſtrongly, let down the cloth, and turn it three or four times very quickly, in continuing to agitate the bath with the ſtick: in fine, in order to make the colour even, boil the bath of blue very gently, and turn the cloth in it ſlowly for ſeven or eight minutes. Take it out ſtained blue, and let it cool.

Empty this boiler of three-fourths of its contents, and as many buckets full as you take out of the blue bath, pour in the like number of the yellow bath, deſcribed below.

In order to make the yellow bath, you muſt heat gradually another boiler, into which muſt be put a ſufficient quantity of pure river water, with a bag of new coarſe cloth, containing from ten to twelve pounds of real yellow woad, (not fuſtic, cut into chips). When this bath hath been heated by degrees till it boil, you muſt let it boil two full hours. Yellow woad, cut into chips, ſucceeds better than when it is ground; in this caſe, eight pounds are ſufficient for a piece of cloth of twenty ells; but there is a great riſque of uſing it adulterated.

After you have poured into the firſt boiler when the blue was made, the quantity of the yellow bath, preſcribed above, or even a greater number of buckets full, according to the ſhade of green required; the blue cloth, which ought to be ſufficiently cooled, muſt be let down into this new bath, when very hot, and ſtirred about till you have the ſhade of green you want; then take out the cloth, cool it, by expoſing it to the air, waſh it, lay the nap, dry it on the tenter-hooks, bruſh it, as ſcarlet is bruſhed, and afterwards preſs it, but in this operation, let it be as cool as poſſible. If you have ſeveral pieces of blue cloth to be dyed green ſucceſſively, you muſt take from the bath, which dyed the preceding piece blue, as many buckets full as are to be added from the yellow bath to dye the blue cloth into a green; which will amount to twenty buckets full, or thereabouts, to be taken out, and twenty to be ſupplied; by theſe means the ſhades of green are rendered more equal and uniform.

The Saxon green of that cloth, which hath been firſt dyed blue in a bath compoſed of allum and white tartar, is much more ſolid than that which is ſtained blue in a new bath of plain water, without theſe ſalts; but it has not ſo good a luſtre. However, as it reſiſts the rays of the ſun for twelve days, it may be reputed a very good tint. Being made by means of an acid, it muſt not be proved by ſoap, which is preſcribed for the ordinary greens made in the blue vats. In order to prove it, you ſhould boil it for five minutes in a quart of water, with two drachms of Roman allum as ſcarlet is tried, which is alſo dyed with an acid: if it preſerves its colour, it may be reckoned a very good tint, although, by this operation, it loſes much more than in the rays of the ſun.

SAXONY, the electorate and dominions of Saxony in Germany.

Theſe dominions, as they are included in the circle of Upper Saxony, are bounded by the duchies of Magdeburg and Brunſwic on the north, Sileſia and part of Bohemia on the eaſt, Bohemia and Franconia on the ſouth, and the landgraviate of Heſſe on the weſt.

The particular diviſions, as they lie from ſouth eaſt to north-weſt, where the Upper leads to Lower Saxony, are as follow, viz. The firſt, which lies betwixt the Elbe and Oder, is the *marquiſate of Luſatia*.

It is for the moſt part ſandy and boggy, and has little corn; but here is ſuch plenty of wood, veniſon, and fiſh, as might enrich the inhabitants if they had any trade.

*Gorlitz* is the largeſt town in the marquiſate, and by ſome called its capital. Their chief trade is in beer, and in dreſſing and dyeing woollen and linen cloth.

*Lauban* upon the river Queiſs is a little town, but has a great linen manufacture.

*Zittaw* is a fine city, has a good trade in beer, and a great manufacture of cloth.

*Camitz* is a populous little city, and has a manufacture both of woollen and linen cloth.

*Guben* is a large and populous town, and has a woollen manufacture.

*Sommerfield* has alſo a woollen manufacture, and Calow has a great market for wool.

*The marquiſate of Miſnia* is the ſecond diviſion of the electorate of Saxony. It has Luſatia on the eaſt, Thuringia on the weſt, Meiſberg, Bohemia, and Franconia on the ſouth,

A New MAP of the NORTHERN PART of UPPER SAXONY Drawn from the best Authorities.
BALTIC SEA
LOWER SAXONY
DUCHY OF POMERANIA
MARCHEL OF BRANDENBURG
POLAND
RUGEN ISLE
SWEDISH POMERANIA
STETTIN
BERLIN
Magdeburg
Brandenburg
Frankfort on Oder
Stargard
Colberg
Stendal
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Nietze R.
Warta R.
British Miles 69 to a Degree
German Miles 15 to a Degree
Longit. East from London

An Accurate MAP of the NORTHERN PART of LOWER SAXONY. Drawn from the best Authorities.
BALTIC SEA
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
D. OF HOLSTEIN
D. OF MECKLENBURG
D. OF SAXE
D. OF BREMEN
D. OF FERDEN
DUC. OF LUNENBURG
WESTPHALIA
SAXONY
German Miles
British Statute Miles
Longit. E. from London.
G. Rollos Sculp.

ſouth, and the duchy of Saxony, with Anhalt on the north. Their plains abound with all ſorts of corn and their hills with rich minerals.

*Dreſden* is a large city ſituate on the Elbe, the capital of the electorate of Saxony, ſixty-five miles north-weſt of Prague, and eighty-five ſouth of Berlin.

The trade of this place is very inconſiderable. The moſt important commodity here is ſilver, of which the mines near Fridburgh produce every fifteen days about the value of twenty thouſand dollars *, which is brought into the city in ingots in a regular carriage appointed for that purpoſe, and immediately coined and delivered to the proprietors. The mines are under the care of directors, whoſe buſineſs it is to ſupport the value of the ſtock, but they uſually go in a beaten track, without making any efforts to increaſe the quantity; on the contrary, it often comes ſhort of the ordinary computation. This ſilver is immediately coined into florins of ſixteen groſch, which, with reſpect to the current money of bats, driers, &c. is worth ſeven *per cent.* advance, and is conſequently ſo ſpeedily conveyed into the neighbouring territories to be again melted down, that it is next to impoſſible to obtain in change in this true ſilver, money for one ſingle louis d'or in the ordinary commerce of the people: in which inſtance the Saxons ſeem very regardleſs of their own intereſt; for though this ſilver may be conſidered as a commodity, the currency of ſuch a coin as their bats and driers, muſt be detrimental in proportion as they are worſe than their genuine coin.

* Three thouſand five hundred pounds.

The exchange here is regulated as in Leipſic. The par is reckoned one hundred and twenty five Saxon dollars for one hundred rix-dollars current in Amſterdam, but the exchange is generally one hundred and thirty five for their ſmall monies: there is an agio of three *per cent.* when payment is made for bills in louis d'ors, and for ducats four *per cent.* is allowed.

*Meiſſen* has a manufacture of porcelain, which is more beautifully painted and enamelled than that of Japan, and much dearer; and the vent of it brings no inconſiderable ſum annually into this country. *See* our article PORCELAIN.

*Colditz* is a little town of good trade, at the conflux of the Muldaw and Multa.

*Freyberg* is a large, well built, and populous town, but owes both its increaſe and riſe to the neighbouring mines of all ſorts of metal, but eſpecially ſilver, copper, pewter, and lead, beſides brimſtone, vitriol, &c.

*Thuringia* is bounded on the north by the duchy of Brunſwic and the principality of Anhalt, on the eaſt with Miſnia, on the ſouth by Franconia, and on the weſt by Heſſe.

*Gotha*, the capital of the duchy of Saxe Gotha, is a large walled city on the river Leina. Its chief trade is in dyer's woad.

*Eyſenach* is a pretty little city on the river Neſæ. It has a conſiderable trade in iron, of which here are mines not far from it.

*Erfurt* is reckoned the capital city of Thuringia, it lies in a pleaſant fruitful plain on the river Gere, in a country abounding with all ſorts of corn and good wines, by their trade in which, and in woad, the inhabitants get much money at their two great fairs.

*Weymar* is a neat, well built city, on the river Ilma. It has a good trade in wine, yet the adjacent country abounds with corn fields and hop-grounds, inſtead of vines.

*Mulhauſen* on the river Unſtrut lies in a fruitful ſoil, and reaped ſo much benefit by its river, in point of commerce, that it was admitted amongſt the Hanſe-Towns, and is called a large populous city.

*Wirpen*, on a river of the ſame name, is a town of good trade.

One of the chief places of trade in the Upper Saxony, is *Leipſic*, in the principality of Miſnia or Meiſſen ſituate on the river Pleiſs, forty-two miles north-weſt of Dreſden.

Leipſic, by its advantageous ſituation in the centre of Germany, is become one of the moſt commercial cities of Europe, none in Germany are equal to it, being but little inferior to Hamburg itſelf; though ſmall, it is very populous, and as well built.

In order to a juſt idea of the trade of this city, it muſt be conſidered in two points of view, during the time of the fairs and out of the fairs. [*See* the article FAIRS]. Leipſic abounds in merchants, with a few or no manufactures, yet conſiderable fortunes are raiſed there. Three years ago only a retail dealer left an only ſon three millions of livres, and M. Stoman, who ſet out with little or nothing, even outſtripped the former. Eſtates of two or three hundred thouſand rixdollars are no extraordinary matter, ſeveral of four or five may be produced.

The merchants of Leipſic may be divided into three claſſes, the wholeſale dealers making one hundred and fifty, the retailers to the number of two hundred and fifty, and the woollen-drapers who make no ſmall number. To theſe may be added the bookſellers, a conſiderable body, Leipſic having the greateſt book-trade of any city in Germany, but differently managed from any part of Europe. The German and northern bookſellers furniſh themſelves at Leipſic, and this is done either by barter, or ready money; but the far greateſt part by barter.

One of the moſt lucrative branches of the commerce of this city conſiſts in exchange of monies, which is ſo conſiderable, as to be computed at four millions of livres at each of the principal fairs.

The ſecond branch of trade lies in home and foreign goods; by the home are meant, the products of the ſoil and manufactures of the inhabitants of the country. As to the foreign, Leipſic is a ſtaple for all French, Engliſh, and Dutch commodities, for which there is a demand in the north, and of ſuch northern goods as turn to good account among the more ſouthern nations. The former are Lyons ſtuffs, Niſmes and Paris ſtockings, French jewellers work, and hard-ware, Dutch and Engliſh cloths, ſilk and woollen ſtuffs.

This trade is carried on perſonally, or by commiſſion; many limit themſelves to the latter, and find the ſweets of it. In and out of fair-time, commiſſions pour in upon them from merchants of all quarters to buy or ſell goods, draw bills of exchange, receive or pay money, and to forward goods.

The fairs are unqueſtionably the main ſprings of its opulence, few, if any in Europe equalling them in the amount of the ſales and bargains tranſacted there; and they may be ſaid chiefly to owe the incredible reſort thither to the conveniency of their appointed times, and the privileges of the city. The moſt conſiderable fair is that of Eaſter, beginning on Jubilate day, three weeks after Eaſter; this is ſucceeded by that of Michaelmas, opening on the firſt of October; the laſt is new New Year's fair, beginning the ſecond of January, and ſcarce worth the name of a fair, in compariſon with the others.

The city privileges are alſo very favourable to commerce, its citizens are its garriſon, no ſoldier of the king of Poland is ſo much as to be a night in the palace. During the fair, it is in the fulleſt ſenſe a free port for the home goods, and the foreign pay only one duty, which is a very ſmall exciſe; the ſteel-yard fee is alſo very moderate. The magiſtracy omit nothing for the ſafety and eaſe of ſtrangers. As to the total of the buſineſs done at the fairs, it cannot be well aſcertained by reaſon of the difference of them; that of the Jubilate is eſteemed at ten millions of livres, and the produce of the ſteel-yard about four hundred thouſand.

In Leipſic are about thirty French refugee merchants, and ſome Italians; but the natives only are allowed to deal by retail or purchaſe land; however, the trade for French cloths and laces are only in the hands of the ſaid refugees, ſeveral of whom go themſelves every year to Lyons to buy up their ſortments. The quantities of home goods at Leipſic aſtoniſh a ſtranger. Among the various manufactures of Saxony, that of linen at Luſatz is not the leaſt conſiderable. The prodigious quantities of Chemnitz dimities and handkerchiefs, are carried off by the Engliſh and Dutch, to ſend to both the Indies. The Saxon woollen ſtuffs, anniſeed, tin-work, the celebrated porcelain, juſtly preferred to china, ſmalt, called the Pruſſian blue, are all articles which deſerve to come into account. Likewiſe gold and ſilver lace, velvet, camblets, damaſks, and other ſilk ſtuffs, are made at Leipſic, but they are not the beſt in the world; what goes off much better is, thin waxen linen bedaubed with flowers and antic figures; theſe being ſold extremely cheap, are all taken off their hands by the northern traders, who diſpoſe of them for tapeſtry.

The Leipſic fairs were confirmed by the emperor Maximilian I. with a prohibition of the like within fifteen German (ſeventy five Engliſh) miles. By its *jus ſtapulæ*, or ſtaple

ſtaple privilege, the refuſal of all goods coming on the king's roads from within fifteen miles, is to be offered to the merchants of Leipſic.

SCABIOUS, *ſcabioſa*, a medicinal plant, very common in the fields, ſaid to be good in aſthmas and pleuriſies; but at preſent rarely uſed.

SCHAFFHOUSE is the twelfth canton in Switzerland, and the ſtaple for ſteel, copper, lattin wire in rolls and bands, which the Swiſs get from Stiria, Salzbourg, Hungary, &c. many things are caſt here, and a variety of works eſtabliſhed, of buttons, trimmings for bridles, coach-harneſſes, and cottons printed; though its trade is very different from that of Zurick, except in the aforeſaid articles, as it furniſhes but little to the other cantons. It is not large, but the ſoil very good and fertile in wheat and fruits, abundant in paſturage, and produces excellent wines.

SCALE-MAKER. This is a buſineſs that requires ingenuity and a nice hand. The ſcale-makers are partly ſmiths, and partly braziers. They in particular make ſteel-yards, and the beams of all kinds of ſcales, from thoſe made for the weighing of a diamond, to thoſe for the weighing of hogſheads on the keys; which are no leſs than fifty different ſorts. They alſo ſell all kinds of weights; and keep well furniſhed ſhops. They take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; and the pay of a journeyman is from fifteen to twenty ſhillings a week. A maſter for the working part may begin with one hundred pounds; but if he ſtocks a ſhop, he may eaſily uſe five times that ſum.

SCAMMONY is a concrete juice, extracted from the root of a plant. The beſt ſort, which comes from Aleppo, is light, ſpongy, tender, free from ſtones and other impurities, of an aſh-colour inclining to black, when powdered of a light grey or white colour, of a bitteriſh, ſomewhat acrimonious taſte, and of a faint, unpleaſant ſmell. Geoffroy relates, that from ſix ounces of ſcammony were obtained, by means of ſpirit of wine, five ounces of reſin.

The Greeks uſed ſcammony among the ſtronger purges; the Arabians were very fond of it, and Meſue in particular calls it the greateſt of all purges, and, by way of emihence, ſometimes the purge. It is at preſent, alſo, in great eſteem and frequent uſe, and would be more ſo, if it were to be depended upon: but there is ſo mch difference in the purgative virtue of ſume maſſes of ſcammony, and that of others, that it is ſeldom depended upon alone, in extemporaneous practice. Scammony in general, however, is a better purge for robuſt people, than for thoſe of more delicate conſtitutions; though, with the correctives with which it is joined in the *pulvis cornachina* and the like, it is given with ſafety and ſucceſs to children. The ancients gave it in much larger doſes than we venture to do at preſent. Galen ſet on foot a preparation of ſcammony intended to correct it, which was the baking it in a quince; we retain it to this time, and call the ſcammony thus prepared diagrydium; but it is of very little conſequence.

The chemical writers have given us many preparations of ſcammony, among which are a tincture and a reſin; but the ſcammony in ſubſtance is preferable to either; for they both irritate more, and yet purge leſs; the reſin itſelf, given in an equal doſe with the crude ſcammony, will give fewer ſtools, and thoſe attended with more gripings. The ancients uſed ſcammony externally for cutaneous eruptions, and to ſoften hard tumours; but, at preſent, it is uſed only as a purge.

SCARBOROUGH. By the 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 1.

The king erecteth a corporation of two perſons, called, the maſters, or keepers, of the key or pier of Scarborough.

The maſter and keepers ſhall receive of the owners of tenements in Scarborough, the fifth part of the yearly rents, for the maintenance of the key or pier, at the feaſts of Pentecoſt and St. Martin.

From the twenty-fourth of June, 1732, until the twenty-fourth of June, 1763, by 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1. the duties aftermentioned ſhall be paid, for the enlarging and keeping in repair the piers of Scarborough, to wit, two quarters for every chaldron of coals, laden on board any ſhip in the port of Newcaſtle, or any member of the port of Newcaſtle; which duties ſhall be paid to the bailiffs and burgeſſes of Scarborough, as they in council aſſembled ſhall appoint, by every maſter of a ſhip, before ſuch ſhip be ſuffered to proceed in any voyage, to be paid near the place where ſuch ſhip ſhall take on board ſuch coals.

Till the twenty-fourth of June, 1783, there ſhall be paid to the ſaid bailiffs and burgeſſes, for coals landed within the port of Scarborough, one ſhilling *per* chaldron, town's meaſure; for cinders one ſhilling *per* chaldron; for every weigh of ſalt two ſhillings; for every groſs of glaſs bottles two pence; for fir timber imported in Engliſh bottoms three-pence *per* ton; for every hundred of fir deals three ſhillings; of half deals one ſhilling and ſix-pence; of middle balks three ſhillings; of double ufirs three ſhillings; of ſingle ufirs one ſhilling; of capraevens three ſhillings; of ſmall balks one ſhilling; of ſmall ſpars ſix-pence; of battins one ſhilling; of pale-boards two-pence; great maſts apiece three ſhillings; middle maſts apiece one ſhilling and ſixpence; ſmall maſts apiece ſix-pence; oak timber and oak plank *per* ton three-pence; wine and brandy *per* ton five ſhillings; and for all the above enumerated goods, which ſhall be imported in foreign bottoms, double duties; and for all foreign goods, not abovementioned, imported in Engliſh bottoms, three ſhillings *per* ton; and foreign bottoms ſix-pence per ton; and for butter ſhipped off from Scarborough one penny *per* firkin; for dried fiſh and mud fiſh ſhipped off two-pence *per* ſcore; for barrel fiſh ſo ſhipped off *per* barrel four-pence; for tallow ſo ſhipped off three-pence *per* hundred weight; every ham of bacon two-pence; neats tongues *per* dozen three-pence; pickled pork *per* barrel one ſhilling; for every flitch of bacon two-pence; rabit ſkins *per* pack two ſhillings and ſix-pence; calves ſkins *per* dozen three-pence; leather *per* hundred weight one ſhilling. And for every Engliſh ſhip which ſhall enter within the piers ſix-pence; and for the top, or croſs trees, of ſuch Engliſh ſhip, being of the burden of one hundred and thirty tons, four-pence; and for every foreign ſhip ſo entering one ſhilling; and for the top, or croſs trees of ſuch foreign ſhip of one hundred and thirty tons, eight-pence.

In default of payment, it ſhall be lawful for the collectors to diſtrain.

All ſhips within the port of Scarborough ſhall lie, moor, and ballaſt, in ſuch place as they ſhall be directed, under penalty of five pounds, &c.

The ancient tolls for ſupporting the piers ſhall be paid.

All ſhips Britiſh built, and manned according to the act of navigation, belonging to Great Yarmouth, ſhall be free from the ſaid duty of two quarters *per* chaldron of coals, ſo as the maſter, or ſome mariner on his behalf, produce a certificate, made upon oath before the mayor of Yarmouth, and under the ſeal of mayoralty, that ſuch ſhip does belong to Yarmouth, and that the inhabitants thereof are owners of the major part of ſuch ſhip.

By 25 *Geo.* II. truſtees are appointed to put the then act in force, in the room of the bailiffs and burgeſſes of Scarborough. No perſon is to empty any ballaſt, rubbiſh, duſt, aſhes, earth, or ſtone, into the harbour, or lay any logs, or floats of timber, or other materials; or ſet up any ports, or incroach on the harbour, to the annoyance thereof, on pain of a fine to be levied by order of any two of the commiſſioners, not exceeding five pounds, to be applied to the uſe of the harbour. On non-payment, the offender to be committed to the county-goal till paid, or compounded with five of the commiſſioners.

SCARLET, in dying, one of the ſeven kinds of good reds.

There are two kinds of ſcarlets; the one given with kermes, or ſcarlet-grain, the other with cochineal.

SCARLET-*Grain*, the ſame with kermes. *See* KERMES.

SCAVAGE. *See* PACKAGE.

SCAVENGER. Two of every pariſh within London and the ſuburbs are yearly choſen into this office, who hire men called rakers, and carts to clean the ſtreets, and carry away the dirt and filth thereof, mentioned 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 2.

The duty of ſcavengers, 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 9. How appointed in towns, 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 9. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

SCHAN, *or* SCHANG (in Chineſe cati) is a weight uſed in the kingdom of Siam; the Chineſe cati is worth two Siameſe ſchans; ſo that the Chineſe being ſixteen taels, the Siameſe muſt be only eight, though ſome reckon that

that of China at twenty taels, and the other half. The tael weighs four baats or ticals, each of near half an ounce; the baat four ſelings, or mayons; the mayon two ſouangs; the ſouang four payes, the paye two clams, the clām weighs twelve grains of rice; ſo that the tical or baat weighs ſeven hundred and ſixty-eight of thoſe grains. *See* BAAT.

It is to be obſerved, that the greateſt part of thoſe weights paſs alſo for money, either real or in reckoning, as ſilver is a merchandize, and ſold by weight.

SCHARIFI, a golden coin, that was formerly made in Egypt, worth the ſame as a ſultanin, that is, near a golden crown of France; the Arabians call it dinar, or methcal-aldhegel: the ſcharifi is at preſent ſcarce; and ſome believe them to be the ſame ſpecie as what the Greeks name golden-bezans.

SCHEDULE, a ſcroll of paper or parchment, annexed to a will, leaſe, or other deed; containing an inventory of goods, &c. omitted in the body of the deed.

SCHEREFI, a gold coin current in Perſia, worth eight larins, at the rate of two Spaniſh dollars *per* larin; the Europeans call them golden ſeraphin.

SCHERIF, otherwiſe called ſultanin, and very commonly ſequin; it is a gold coin current in all the grand ſeignor's dominions; though it is hardly ever made at any place of them but Cairo; and is the only gold ſpecie ſtruck in Turkey.

SCHÆNANTHUS, *ſquinanth*, is a dry, ſmooth ſtalk, in ſhape and colour ſomewhat reſembling a barley-ſtraw, full of a fungous pith, brought to us along with the leaves, and ſometimes the flowers (which are of a red carnation colour) from Turkey and Arabia, tied up in bundles about a foot long. When in perfection, it is of a hot, bitteriſh, aromatic, not unpleaſant taſte; and a very fragrant ſmell.

SCHOOL-MASTER. The boy deſigned for this employment, ought not only to be well qualified for the branch of learning in which he is to be educated, but to have a natural good temper, and a genteel carriage, and the behaviour of a gentleman; more particularly, he ſhould himſelf be free from vice; and be ready upon all occaſions to inſtil the ſacred maxims of virtue, decency, and truth, into the minds of his pupils. It is now very common for writing-maſters in particular to take apprentices, with whom they have uſually about ten pounds, and ſometimes twenty. After they are out of their time, they may eaſily commence writing-maſters; become uſhers to ſchools or academies, with the ſalary of fifteen or twenty pounds a year and their board; or clerks to merchants, or in ſome of the public offices.

SCHUITE D'ARGENT, a ſort of account money of Japan, of which payments in trade are eſtimated, being worth twelve and a half Dutch guilders, that is five rixdollars, or crowns of the United Provinces; and otherwiſe it is reckoned equal to four taels, ſix mace, and five condorins, the value of them varying a little, according to the year.

SCHWITZ. In this canton of Switzerland are made linens of hemp and flax; but cattle and cheeſe are the two great branches of their trade.

SCILLA, the *ſquill*, or *ſea onion*, is a large, roundiſh root, compoſed of a great number of coats incloſing one another, with ſeveral fibres at the bottom, of an acrid, bitter taſte. It ſhould be choſen plump, ſound, freſh, full of a bitter, acrid, clammy juice, free from worms, and not at all carious.

It has been a received opinion, as Mr. Savary obſerves in his Dictionaire de Commerce, that the heart of a ſquill was of a poiſonous nature, and therefore great care has been uſually taken to ſeparate it from the reſt: but experience ſhews the folly of this opinion; the internal part of the ſquill is generally the moſt efficacious, as being fulleſt of juice, and beſt preſerved from the injuries of the weather and other accidents.

Powder of ſquills, given from four to twelve grains, has been found of great ſervice in the cure of aſthmas; and its efficacy in this diſorder may be ſeen atteſted by ſeveral phyſicians, in the Commerc. Literar. Norimberg. Dr. Wagner recommends this powder, given along with nitre, in hydropical ſwellings, and in the nephritis; and mentions ſeveral cures, which he performed by giving from four to ten grains of it, mixed with a double quantity of nitre: he ſays, it almoſt always operates as a diuretic, and ſometimes vomits or purges.

SCILLY, weſt longitude ſeven, latitude fifty, a cluſter of iſlands and rocks, ſituated in the Atlantic ocean, thirty minutes weſt of Cornwall, the moſt weſterly county of England, dangerous to be approached by ſtrangers on account of the hidden rocks: and have been very fatal to many ſhips of our own nation on their return home; particularly admiral Shovel, with three other men of war, were caſt away here on the twenty-ſecond of October 1707, in the night-time, in their return from the Mediterranean and the ſiege of Toulon, there being near one thouſand people on board the admiral, ſeveral of them gentlemen of quality, both of Spain and England. There is, however, a ſafe paſſage to theſe iſlands, where ſhips are furniſhed with pilots from the place; and there are ſome ſecure harbours in them, large enough to receive the royal navy.

In the town of St. Mary, the people trade in ſeveral ſorts of commodities, uſually ſold in ſhops, many of which they are furniſhed with from England; and ſhips coming in, or paſſing by the iſland, ſupply the reſt of their occaſions. With theſe ſtrangers they ſometimes exchange dried fiſh, cattle, or proviſion of the iſland, for ſuch commodities as they want.

A fleet of coaſters, forced in by an eaſterly wind, is of advantage to the iſlanders, as well in their pilotage of them into the harbours, as in the traffic and expences of the people aſhore. Commanders and paſſengers of ſhips from the Weſt-Indies, or other foreign parts, putting in, never fail of ſhewing their liberality, and of leaving ſome of their commodities and riches behind them. By this means the iſlanders are ſupplied with a ſtock of rum, brandy, wine, and other foreign liquors; ſome for conſumption upon the iſlands, and ſome (by leave of the cuſtom-houſe) for conſumption elſewhere. For the ſake of this trade, which is their principal dependence at preſent, the people of Scilly run very great hazards in going off with their ſmall boats to ſupply themſelves from ſhipping paſſing by, ſhewing undaunted courage and reſolution, in venturing when the ſeas run mountains high.

There being no owners of houſes and lands in Scilly, the people's hindrances in the improvements of land and trade, are the ſhort leaſes, and ſcarcity of houſes to be met with; it requiring one intereſt to procure a houſe, and another for a leaſe of one. On which account, it was uſual here to engage houſes at the deceaſe of the preſent dwellers. If any houſes are built by leaſe, at the expence of an iſlander, they become the property of the proprietor after a ſhort term: ſo that no iſlander poſſeſſes houſe or land, but upon pleaſure or leaſe.

The agent is the proper perſon to apply to for a houſe, or land, or a leaſe of either, or both; who has the direction and management of all the houſes, buildings, repairs, rents, &c. upon the iſlands; who alſo has it in his power to diſtribute favour, or ſhew vengeance, in unequal meaſure: but the preſent agent is a gentleman, eſteemed for his generoſity, good ſenſe, and humanity.

The inhabitants are very civilized, and are improved in trade and commerce. The lands are naturally very fruitful, and could eaſily be improved; but as theſe iſlands are held of the crown by proprietors, the perſons in truſt for the proprietors have uſually made their advantage of them, injurious to the iſlanders, and the good intent of the repoſers of that truſt. But if, inſtead of the cuſtom of letting ſhort leaſes (of about twenty-one years) long leaſes were let, as in Cornwall, and other parts, it would much encourage the improvement of lands in Scilly, and foreigners to ſettle there: and no doubt but thoſe iſlands are as well ſtored with tin, as many parts of Cornwall.

SCLAVONIA, including Ratzia, is bounded by the rivers Dravc and Danube, which ſeparate it from Hungary, on the north-eaſt, by the river Save, which divides it from the Turkiſh provinces of Servia and Boſnia on the ſouth-weſt, and by Croatia and the country of Cilley on the weſt, being two hundred miles long and ſixty broad, a fine level fruitful country, where it is cultivated; but having been for many years a frontier province againſt Turkey, and ſubject to the ravage of the Chriſtian as well as Turkiſh armies, it has produced but little corn or wine; the chief town is Poſega which, with the whole country, is ſubject to the houſe

of Auſtria. The people are a mixture of Greek and Latin Chriſtians. The Ratzians inhabit the eaſtern diviſion of this country.

SCORDIUM, *water germander*, in botany, a ſmall plant growing in moiſt and marſhy ground.

Scordium has long had the credit of being a very great ſudorific and alexipharmic, and good in all malignant and peſtilential fevers, and even in the plague itſelf. It is, however, at preſent, rarely preſcribed alone in theſe intentions, and is merely kept in the ſhops as an ingredient in the *confectio Fracaſtorii*, which, though it contains ſeveral medicines of more virtue, yet takes its name diaſcordium from it.

SCOT *and Lot*, ſignifies a cuſtomary contribution laid upon all ſubjects according to their ability. *Spelm.* Nor are theſe old words grown obſelete; for whoever in like manner (though not by equal proportion) are aſſeſſed to any contribution, are generally ſaid to pay Scot and Lot. *Stat.* 33 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9.

SCOTLAND, is bounded on the ſouth by the Iriſh ſea and England, from which it is divided by Solway firth, and the rivers Eſk and Kerſop; on the weſt border, by the Cheviot hills, in the middle marches; and by the lower parts of the river Tweed on the eaſt border. On the eaſt it is bounded by the German ſea; on the north by the Deucaledonian ſea; and on the weſt by the great weſtern ocean.

Its ſituation is by ſome ſuppoſed to be from fifty-four degrees fifty-four minutes to fifty-eight degrees thirty-two minutes of latitude, and from fifteen degrees forty minutes to ſeventeen degrees fifty minutes of longitude; though by Straloch's maps the latitude is made to be from fifty-five degrees eleven minutes to fifty-nine degrees twenty minutes, and the longitude from ten degrees five minutes to ſixteen degrees.

Authors likewiſe differ as much about its extent as they do in regard of its ſituation; though the generality of them conclude it to be from the Mull of Galloway in the ſouth, to Dungſbayhead in Cathneſs, north, about two hundred and fifteen Scots and two hundred and fifty-ſeven Italian miles; and between Buchaneſs, on the eaſt ſea, and Ardnamurchan point on the weſt, near one hundred and forty Scots or one hundred and ſixty-eight Italian miles; and though it be thus long and broad, yet the ſea running up into the land in ſome places, and the land thruſting out into the ſea in others, leaves no one houſe above forty or forty-five miles diſtant from the latter.

The diviſion of it is into thirty-one ſhires and two ſtuarties, of which an account may be ſeen in their alphabetical order.

Scotland furniſhes to the trade of Great-Britain large quantities of wool, wrought and unwrought; hemp and flax, crude and worked up into linens, coarſe and fine; hollands, cambricks, muſlins, callicoes, dornicks, damaſks, &c. Plaids (in which they excel all nations both in fineneſs and colours) iron, copper and lead both white and black; pearls, coral, and ſometimes ambergris; great quantities of fiſh, ſuch as whales, herring, ſalmon, cod, ling, torbuts, mackril, and ſometimes ſturgeon; among theſe may alſo be reckoned, otters, as they are amphibious creatures, and produce the wool which ſerves for various uſes. Scotland alſo affords fullers earth, ſome ſperma ceti (found on the coaſt of the Orcades) coal, marble, agate, cryſtal, &c. different ſorts of grain, cattle, butter, cheeſe, timber, &c. of which ſome are ſent to different markets.

Commiſſioners appointed to treat of the union, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 14. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 37.

Reſtraints on the ſubjects of Scotland, 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 7. repealed, 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 3.

Articles of the union with Scotland, 5 *Ann. c.* 8.

For improving the union, 6 *Ann. c.* 6. 7 *Ann. c.* 21.

Brandy. *Aqua vitæ* exempted from duties, 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 22. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 27. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 40. *ſect.* 26.

Bread. Regulations to prevent adulteration thereof, 3 *Geo.* III. *c.* 6.

Calendar. Courts of ſeſſion and exchequer, and markets, &c. not to be continued according to the new calendar, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 4.

Coals. Carried from Stirling to Dunbar exempt from duties, 8 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 3. 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 10.

Imported to Ireland liable to ſame duties as from England, 9 *Ann. c.* 22. *ſ.* 90.

Debenture on corn exported payable in three months, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 9.

Cuſtoms. Laws of the cuſtoms extended to Scotland, 6 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 17.

The crown may appoint further ports for the landing of goods, 6 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 18.

For a treaty with the proprietors of ſugar-houſes, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 19.

The privileges of the ſugar-houſes purchaſed, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 6. *See* CUSTOMS.

Edinburgh. A duty of two pennies Scots on ale, &c. granted to the town, continued for nineteen years, 3 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 5.

The duties extended, &c. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9.

Petty-poſt cuſtoms deſcribed, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 22.

Equivalent. No equivalent debentures to be ſtopped, 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14.

Fiſhery. Commiſſioners to be appointed for applying part of the equivalent for the improvement of the fiſheries and manufactures, 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30.

Penalty of killing lobſters on the coaſt of Scotland in ſpawning time, 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 4.

Encouragement given to fiſhery in Scotland, 29 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 23.

Linen. Length and breadth of Scoth linen, &c. 10 *Ann. c.* 21.

No perſon to import bad lintſeed, 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31.

Stamp-maſter not to ſtamp linen before taking the oath of office, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24.

Encouragement given to the manufacturers of linens in the Highlands, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20.

Malt. The malt-tax to be deducted out of the price of ale, mentioned in the ſeventh article of the union, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 62.

Perpetual duty on malt, &c. 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1, 14. Cyder for diſtilling, and for private uſe, exempt, *ibid. ſ.* 11. and 23.

Manufactures. Offences in ſeducing artificers, to be tried in the court of juſticiary or circuits, 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27. *ſect.* 5.

Money. Part of coinage duties appropriated to pay ſalaries of officers of the mints in Scotland, &c. 7 *Ann. c.* 24. *ſect.* 3.

Salt. Scotch ſalt landed before the entry, forfeited, 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 45.

No ſalt of the produce of England to be imported from Scotland, 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 14. *ſ.* 1, 7.

Laws to prevent frauds in importing and exporting fiſh or fleſh, extended to Scotland, 7 *Ann. c.* 11. *ſ.* 5.

Regulations for importing Scotch ſalt, 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſect.* 20.

Servants wages not to be paid in ſalt, 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſect.* 4.

Stores. Premium for importing maſts to England, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 12.

Tax. Commiſſioners of land-tax to levy duty on places and penſions, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 14, 29.

What ſum to be raiſed on land-tax in Scotland, 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 124.

Wines. Proportional duties in Scotland, 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſect.* 15.

Woollen manufactures. Manufactures of ſerges, pladdings, fingrams, and ſtockings, regulated, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 13. 10 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18.

SCOURER. The buſineſs of the ſcourer requires as little genius and education as any other; it conſiſts in ſcouring men's cloths, &c. either wet or dry; and is pretty laborious. Thoſe of this buſineſs take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn, as a journeyman, from ten to fifteen ſhillings a week; and it requires but little to ſet up maſter.

SCREEN-MAKER. The boy, who is deſigned for this buſineſs, would do well to learn to draw, and to obtain ſome knowledge in perſpective, before he goes apprentice. There is great variety in this piece of furniture, ſerving both for ornament and uſe; and therefore there is ſome room for a boy of genius to exert his talents. The maſters, who are but few in number, generally keep handſome ſhops; they make their own frames, which they mount with gilt or painted leather, &c. and they ſometimes deal alſo in cabinet and chair-

chair-makers goods. They take about twenty pounds with an apprentice; and, if they keep a genteel ſhop, employ ſeveral hundred pounds in trade.

SCRIVENER. The youth deſigned to be of this genteel buſineſs, ought to be taught to write very neatly, and in particular to be well verſed in the law hands, which will be of great advantage to him when ſent apprentice. The ſcrivener engroſſes all writings for the attornies on paper, vellum, and parchment; and no attorney in the city can employ his own clerk in engroſſing, without paying a valuable conſideration to the company of ſcriveners for a licence to do it. The ſcriveners ſometimes alſo practiſe the buſineſs of a notary-public; and at other times ſell their own ſtamps, with pens, ink, and paper; in which laſt caſe they go under the denomination of writing-ſtationers. They take from twenty to fifty pounds with an apprentice.

Scriveners are mentioned in the ſtatutes againſt uſury and exceſſive intereſt of money. 12 *Ann. c.* 6. If a ſcrivener is entruſted with a bond, he may receive the intereſt; and if he fails, the obligee ſhall bear the loſs; and ſo it is if he receive the principal, and deliver up the bond; for being intruſted with the ſecurity itſelf, it ſhall be preſumed he is truſted with power to receive the principal and intereſt; and the giving up the bond or payment of the money is a diſcharge thereof: but if a ſcrivener be intruſted with a mortgage-deed, he hath only authority to receive the intereſt, not the principal; the giving up the deed in this caſe not being ſufficient to reſtore the eſtate, but there muſt be a re-conveyance, &c. decreed in chancery. *Hill.* 7 *Ann.* 1 *Salk.* 157.

It is held, where a ſcrivener puts out his client's money on a bad ſecurity, which on inquiry might have been eaſily found ſo, yet he cannot be charged in equity to anſwer the money; for it is here ſaid, no one would venture to put out money of another upon a ſecurity, if he were obliged to warrant and make it good, in caſe a loſs ſhould happen, without any fraud in him. *Prcced. Chanc.* 146, 149. *See* 19 *Vin. Abr.* 289, 292.

SCRUPLE, a weight, containing twenty grains, or the third part of a drachm. Among goldſmiths it is twenty-four grains.

SEA, *mare*, in geography, is frequently uſed to ſignify that vaſt body of water encompaſſing the whole earth, more properly called ocean.

Sea is more properly uſed for a particular part, or diviſion of the ocean; denominated from the country it waſhes, or other circumſtances. As the Iriſh ſea, Mediterranean ſea, Baltic ſea, North ſea, Red ſea, &c. *See* OCEAN.

SEA-CHART, SEA-COMPASS, *See* CHART. COMPASS.

SEA-DOMINION in general. The conſtant proſperity of our trade and navigation depending principally on the figure the nation is capable of making at ſea, and preſerving thoſe rights and privileges upon that liquid element, to which we are not only intitled by nature, but by the laws of nations, and by treaties; it becomes neceſſary, in a work of this kind, to take proper notice of a topic of ſuch high concernment.

The ſovereignty of the Britiſh ſeas, maintained and aſſerted to have always been, and ſtill continues to be, the undoubted right of the kings and queens of Great-Britain.

We ſhall firſt ſettle the bounds of the Britiſh ſea. The eaſtern and ſouthern coaſts of Britain are waſhed by the German ocean, and that which Ptolemy particularly calls the Britiſh ſea, and which according to Mela, in his Treatiſe de Situ Orbis, *lib.* II. *cap.* 3. reaches as far as the northern coaſt of Spain. And the Arabian geographer, (Clim. 4. part 1.) ſays, Towards the north, Andaluſia, by which name the Arabians comprehend all Spain, is waſhed with the Engliſh ſea; adding, there are nine ſtages from Toledo to St. James's, which place he ſays (Clim. 5. part. 1.) is ſituated on a promontory of the Engliſh ſea. St. James's is a town in the province of Galicia. On the weſt-ſide of Britain lies the Virgivian ſea, which, where it waſhes the coaſt of Scotland, takes from thence the name of Deucaledonian ſea: of this Vergivian ſea, the Iriſh, or St. George's channel, is a part. Upon the north of Britain flows the Caledonian ſea, in which are ſituated the Orcades. Thus the Britiſh ſea, or the channel lying between England and France, the Vergivian, the Deucaledonian, and the Caledoniau ſeas, are properly called the Britiſh ſeas, and as ſuch, are ſubject to the Britiſh empire.

Hugo Grotius, in the ſecond book of his Treatiſe of Peace and War, *chap.* 3. *ſect.* 11. ſpeaking of the ſea, has theſe words: "The bare poſſeſſion of the ſhore is not ſufficient to intitle any people to a right to the adjoining ſea: nor is it enough for a prince to imagine, or write himſelf lord of the ſea, without proclaiming himſelf by ſome overt-act to be ſo." By which he certainly means, that it is not from a bare occupation or poſſeſſion of the neighbouring land, but from an actual and peculiar uſe and enjoyment of the ſea itſelf, and exerting all the functions of a ſovereign upon it; ſuch as preſcribing rules of navigation to thoſe that frequent it, puniſhing delinquents, protecting of others, and receiving from all that homage and advantage due to every lawful ſovereign, that ſufficient arguments can be derived for proving a lawful title to the dominion of it. Now, if we make it appear, that the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh ſeas was at firſt acquired, and ever ſince aſſerted, in the very manner ſpecified by that author, though he wrote againſt it, we hope there will be no room for objection, by which the argument can be invalidated.

Before we proceed further, it may be proper to obſerve, that the extent of the Britiſh dominions in the eaſtern and ſouthern ſeas were ſettled by a treaty concluded in the year 1674, between king Charles II. and the ſtates-general, by which it was to reach from the middle point of the land Vanſlaten in Norway to Cape Fineſterre. The dominion of the ſea intitles the lawful poſſeſſors to the ſix following prerogatives.

(1.) The royalty of granting the liberty of fiſhing for pearl, coral, amber, and all other ſuch precious commodities.

(2.) To grant licences to fiſh for whale, ſturgeon, pilchard, ſalmon, herring, and all other ſorts of fiſh whatſoever, as is uſual in Spain, Portugal, and ſeveral other places.

(3.) To impoſe tribute and cuſtom on all merchants ſhips and fiſhermen fiſhing and trading within the limits of the ſea that is ſubjected to any particular dominion.

(4.) The regular execution of juſtice for protecting the innocent, and puniſhing the guilty for all crimes committed within the extent of ſuch ſea dominions.

(5.) To grant free paſſage through any ſuch ſea to any number of ſhips of war belonging to any other prince or republic, or to deny the ſame, according to circumſtances and occaſion of ſuch paſſage, in the ſame manner as any prince or ſtate may grant or deny free paſſage to the foreign troops through their territories by land, even though the prince or ſtate to whom ſuch ſhips or land forces belong, be not only in peace, but in alliance, with the prince or republic of whom paſſage is deſired.

(6.) To demand of all forcign ſhips whatſoever within thoſe ſeas, to ſtrike the flag, and lower the top-ſail, to any ſhips of war, or others bearing the colours of the ſovereign of ſuch ſeas.

All which prerogatives do unqueſtionably belong to the kings and queens of Great-Britain. And although the duty of the flag is but an indifferent honorary ceremony, yet it is a ſignificant acknowledgement that the abſolute ſovereignty of the ſeas in which the colours are required to be ſtruck, is veſted in the prince to whom that duty is paid: and ſuch is the high regard that the Britiſh nation puts upon the execution of this ceremonious homage, that a contempt thereof, according to the marine laws, is puniſhable as open rebellion or high treaſon.

SEA-MARK. *See* LIGHTHOUSE.

SEAMEN. Mariners deferting the king's ſervice, to be impriſoned, 2 *Rich.* II. *ſtat.* 1. *c.* 4.

The puniſhment of watermen withdrawing in times of preſs, 2 and 3 *Phil.* and *Mar. c.* 16. *f.* 8.

What mariners may take apprentices, 5 *Eliz. c.* 5. *f.* 12.

The *ſtat.* 18 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 19. againſt ſoldiers departing, extended to mariners, 5 *Eliz. c* 5. *f.* 27.

Seamen and fiſhermen not compellable to ſerve as ſoldiers, 5 *Eliz. c.* 5. *f.* 41.

The Trinity-houſe at Deptford Stronḍ to ſet up ſea-marks, 8 *Eliz. c.* 13. *f.* 2.

For preſſing of mariners, 16 *Car.* I. *c.* 5, 23, 26.

Againſt diſturbances by ſeamen, 16 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. 16 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 23.

Seamen declining to fight, to loſe their wages and be impriſoned, 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *f.* 9.

Seamen defending their ſhips, to be rewarded, 22 and 23 *Car.* II *c.* 11. *ſ.* 10.

Seamen to be regiſtered, 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 21. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 23. Repealed as to regiſtering ſeamen, 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 64.

Diſabled to be admitted to Greenwich-hoſpital, 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 7. 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 19.

A duty of ſixpence a month payable by ſeamen to Greenwich-hoſpital, 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 6.

Penalty of receiving wages in fraud of a ſeaman or his repreſentatives, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 3.

A will of a ſeaman on the ſame paper with a warrant of attorney, void, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 6.

Seamen deſerting merchants ſhips, to loſe their wages, 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 17.

Seamen not to be wilfully left beyond ſea, 11 and 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 18.

Pariſh-boys may be bound or turned over to the ſea-ſervice, 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 6.

Exempted till eighteen from duty of ſixpence per month to Greenwich-hoſpital, 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 7.

Apprentices to have protections for three years, 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 15. 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17.

Vagrants to be preſſed, 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 16.

Maſters to have wages of apprentices preſſed, 2 and 3 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 17.

Seamen to have their tickets when diſcharged or turned over, 4 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 10.

Maſters not obliged to take apprentices under the age of thirteen, 4 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 16.

Apprentices not exempt from preſſing after eighteen, if in ſea-ſervice before, 4 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 17.

Watermen not appearing when ſummoned to ſerve, diſabled, 4 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 18.

Firemen exempted from the preſs, 6 *Ann. c.* 31. *ſ.* 2.

Seamen in America exempted from the preſs, 6 *Ann. c.* 37. *ſ.* 9.

Commiſſioners of the navy may puniſh diſturbances by ſea in the yards, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25.

Seamen maimed in fight againſt pirates, to be rewarded, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 5.

Penalty on ſeamen not fighting pirates, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 6.

Maſters not to pay the men more than half their wages beyond ſea, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 7. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 12.

Penalty on commanders of ſhips of war carrying merchandize, 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 8.

Direction for the punctual payment of ſeamen's wages, 1 *Geo.* II. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 19 *ſ.* 6.

Bounty or conduct-money, &c. allowed to volunteer ſeamen, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38.

Proviſions againſt impoſitions upon ſeamen, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 7.

Proviſion for ſeamen in foreign parts, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14, *ſ.* 12.

Seamen in the ſea-ſervice privileged from arreſt under twenty pounds, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 15. 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 3.

Maſters of merchant ſhips to contract with their ſeamen in writing, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 1. Made perpetual, 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 31.

Taking mariners without ſuch agreement, forfeits five pounds to Greenwich-hoſpital, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 1.

Penalties on ſeamen in merchants ſervice deſerting or abſenting, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 3, 5, 9, 10.

Penalties to be deducted from wages, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36, *ſ.* 9.

One man's pay in one hundred given to the widows, 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 18.

Merchants ſhips may be navigated by three-fourths foreigners in war, 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 1.

Foreign ſeamen ſerving two years upon proclamation in time of war to be deemed natural ſubjects, 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3, 1. *ſ.* 2.

Bounty to ſeamen taking or deſtroying enemies ſhips of war, 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 15. 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 18.

Several exemptions from the preſs, 13 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 5.

A bounty to widows of ſeamen killed in the ſervice, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 2.

Seamen not to be arreſted for ſmall debts in Ireland, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 3.

Reſtriction of ſeamen's wages in the merchants ſervice, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 4.

Offenders on board privateers to be puniſhed as on board ſhips of war, 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 25.

Seamen in the plantations not to be impreſſed, 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30.

Maſters of ſhips in the plantations to carry ſeamen for his majeſty's ſervice, 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 5.

Seamen's letters of attorney to be revocable, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 6.

An hoſpital erected for relief of ſeamen in the merchants ſervice, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38.

Penalty of forging certificates, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 4.

Perſons giving fifty pounds to be governors, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 16.

Seamen to pay ſix-pence *per* month, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 37.

Seamen in the India-company's ſervice exempted, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 38. *ſ.* 37.

Forging ſeamen's tickets, or Mediterranean paſſes, excepted out of the general pardon, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 25.

Mariners and ſoldiers that have been in his majeſty's ſervice authorized to ſet up trades, 22 *Geo.* II. *c.* 44.

Two men's pay in one hundred pounds to be given to the widows of officers in the navy, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 47. *ſ.* 10.

Three-fourths of the crew of merchants ſhips may be foreigners, 28 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16.

Volunteers to be paid from the time of their entering, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10.

Supernumeraries intitled to wages, 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 2.

Wages of apprentices, to whom payable, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 16.

Seamen not to be taken out of the ſervice, except for crimes or debts of twenty pounds, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 28.

Mariners not to have the benefit of inſolvent acts unleſs they inliſt, 1 *Geo.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 57.

Farther proviſions for the encouragement of ſeamen, &c. 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 16.

The proviſions of 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. extended to America, 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 31.

SEALING DEEDS, makes perſons parties to them; and if they are not thus ſealed, they are void. *Dyer.* B. If a ſeal is broken off, it will make the deed void, and when ſeveral are bound in a bond, the pulling off the ſeal of one makes it void as to the others. 2 *Lev.* 220. But in a deed of covenants, it is held that a perſon's breaking off the ſeal of one of the covenanters, after making the covenant, ſhall avoid the deed only againſt himſelf, *Cro. Eliz.* 408, 546. In caſe the ſeal of a bond be broke or eat off by rats, or it is any ways cancelled, no action can be brought on ſuch bond, &c. 2 *Bulſt.* 246.

SEED-SHOP. Thoſe who keep ſeed-ſhops ſell all ſorts of garden and graſs-ſeeds, gardeners tools, mats, &c. This is a very profitable branch of buſineſs: it is in few hands; and requires no more ſkill than other retail trades. They take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; and their journeymen, as ſhopkeepers, have from eighteen to twenty pounds a year with board and lodging. It requires from one hundred to five hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

SEYDE, is the ancient *Sidon of Phenicia*, ſo renowned formerly for its great traffic, very little inferior to that of Tyre itſelf, whoſe reputation for commerce has been equally publiſhed, both by ſacred and prophane authors. The modern Sidonians retain nothing of the ancient but their inclination for trade. Every thing elſe is altered: their power by ſea no longer ſubſiſts: the vaſt extent of their city is reduced to leſs than one quarter of what it was formerly; and the great number of its inhabitants to leſs than ſix thouſand, of which foreigners make near half.

But few weſtern commodities find a ſale at Seyde, though with the products of the country a pretty good trade is ſupported; thoſe few are ſome cloths of lively colours, ſattins and damaſks of Lucca and Genoa, with ſome paper, a few cheſts of indigo and cochineal, ſpice, ſugar, and Brazil wood, all in ſmall quantities. The goods loaden here are principally ſilks and cottons, with ſome aſhes, galls, oil, ſoap, and birdlime; and as the occidental ſales do not balance their purchaſes, a conſiderable ſum of money is yearly obliged to do it.

The French trade to this place, Acre and Rama (which are in its diſtrict) imports about three hundred and fifty thouſand dollars yearly, and there are no merchants but of this nation ſettled in theſe places.

SEIZURE, in commerce, an arreſt of ſome merchandize, moveable, or other matter, either in conſequence of ſome law, or of ſome expreſs order of the ſovereign. Among us one half of the goods ſeized goes to the ſeizer, or informer, and the other half to the king.

Seizures and forfeitures of ſhips. For the ſeveral cauſes thereof, *ſee* SHIPS.

Seizures of ſhips and goods as forfeited, for unlawful importation and exportation, or for non-payment of duties, may be made only by officers of the cuſtoms, or perſons authorized by warrant from the treaſury, or by ſpecial commiſſion under his majeſty's great or privy ſeal; and if made by any other perſons, they are void, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 15.

Except in the following caſes; viz. alamodes, arrack, brandy, cattle, fiſh, goods inwards, Ireland, plantations, wool, which *ſee*.

Officers making colluſive ſeizures of foreign goods, in order to evade the duties, are to forfeit five hundred pounds, and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty; and the importers or owners are to forfeit treble the value of the goods, 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 24.

Officers or proprietors diſcovering their offences to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, within two months, ſo as to convict their accomplices, are to be acquitted, 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 25.

Other perſons ſo diſcovering within three months, are to have half of his majeſty's ſhare, 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 26.

Not proſecuted to effect for the bringing of them to trial and condemnation, by the ſeizer or informer, may be ſeized or informed againſt, or an action brought by way of devenerunt, by any other officer, &c. who is to be eſteemed as the true firſt informer or ſeizer, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 17.

Officers or informers may not compound any ſeizure, under one-third part of the appraiſed value, upon forfeiture of office, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 18.

In all ſuits and informations upon any act concerning the importation of goods, if the property be claimed by any perſon as the importer, the *onus probandi* is to lie on the owner or claimer, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 28.

Upon entry of claim to any prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, or to any ſhips, veſſels or boats, ſeized by virtue of any law now in force for the more effectual preventing the exportation of wool; or to any ſhip, veſſel or boat, of one hundred tons burthen or under, ſeized for any other cauſe of forfeiture; the claimer muſt give ſecurity in the penalty of thirty pounds in the court where proſecuted, to pay the coſts; in default whereof, within the time limited by the courſe of ſuch court, the goods may be recovered, 8 *Ann.* *c.* 7. *ſ.* 76. 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 8.

Foreign goods ſeized for non-payment of duties, or any other cauſe. In diſputes, whether the duties have been paid, or the goods have been lawfully imported, or legally compounded for, or condemned, or concerning the place from whence imported, the proof is to lie on the owner or claimer, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 8.

In ſeizures or informations upon the act of navigation, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. the defendant may have a commiſſion out of the high court of Chancery to examine witneſſes beyond the ſeas, and a competent time allowed before trial; and ſuch examination is to be admitted for evidence, as if given *vivâ voce*, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 29.

In every action, ſuit, indictment, information, or proſecution commenced againſt officers of the cuſtoms, &c. for any matter or thing done by virtue, or in purſuance, or execution of this, or any other act relating to the cuſtoms and navigation, the defendants may plead the general iſſue, and give thoſe particular acts, and the ſpecial matter in evidence for their defence, in any of the courts of juſtice; and if, upon trial, a verdict paſs for the defendants, or the plaintiffs diſcontinue or forbear their actions, or become non-ſuited, or judgment be given againſt them by demurrer or otherwiſe, the defendants are to have (full, double or treble) coſts of ſuits awarded againſt ſuch plaintiffs, &c. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 16. And the ſeveral other acts on which the officers are to proceed.

Writs of delivery may not be granted out of the court of Exchequer for goods ſeized, but upon good ſecurity, and only for ſuch goods as are periſhable, or where the informer defers or delays coming to as ſpeedy a trial, as the courſe of that court will permit, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 30.

Forfeitures and penalties may be ſued for, proſecuted, and recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, information, or indictment, in his majeſty's court of Exchequer, or any other of his majeſty's courts of record; wherein no eſſoign, protection, privilege, or wager of law, or any more than one imparlance, muſt be allowed or admitted, except in ſome particular caſes, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 31. And the other acts which inflict the forfeitures and penalties.

Upon ſeizures of goods run or prohibited, and of the veſſels, carriages, horſes, &c. which may be tried before the juſtice of the peace. One or more of the ſaid juſtices may adminiſter an oath to perſons ſkilled in the nature of the goods, &c. ſeized, to view the ſame, and to return the ſpecies, quantity, quality, and value thereof to the ſaid juſtices in a limited time, in order that informations may be exhibited for their hearing and determining ſuch ſeizures.

After condemnation, by the judgment of ſuch juſtices, the goods, &c. are to be publickly ſold to the beſt bidder, at ſuch places and times as the reſpective commiſſioners ſhall think proper, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 16.

Of goods liable to duties, forfeited for being ſhipped or put into any boat, &c. with intent to be exported, or for being unſhipped to be laid on land, out of any ſhip from foreign parts, before the ſaid duties are paid, ſecured, tendered or agreed for, and all forfeitures and penalties; one moiety of the rate or value thereof is to be for the uſe of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to the perſon that ſeizes, informs, or ſues for the ſame; except in ſome particular caſes, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 4. And the ſeveral other acts quoted for goods inwards (which *ſee*) and thoſe which inflict the forfeitures and penalties.

On all trials of ſeizures, the ſeizure, together with the method and form of making it, ſhall be taken to have been done in the manner as ſet forth in the information, without any evidence thereof; and all judges and juſtices of the peace are to proceed to the trial of the merits of the cauſe, without enquiring into the fact, form, or manner of making the ſeizure, 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 34.

In any information brought to trial on account of the ſeizure of any ſhip or goods as forfeited, wherein a verdict is found for the claimer, if it appears to the court there was a probable cauſe of ſeizure, and is ſo certified upon the record, the defendant ſhall not be intitled to any coſts, nor the ſeizer liable to any action, indictment, or proſecution.

In any action, indictment or proſecution, brought againſt any perſon for ſeizing any ſhip or goods, wherein a verdict is given againſt the defendant, if the court ſhall certify upon the record, that there was a probable cauſe of ſeizure, the plaintiff, beſides his ſhip or goods, or the value thereof, ſhall not be entitled to above two-pence damage; nor to any coſts, nor the defendant fined above one ſhilling, 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 16. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1.

The produce of the ſeizures of prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, is to be applied towards the ſupport of his majeſty's houſhold, and of the honour and dignity of the crown, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 4.

SELENITE, *ſelenites*, moon-ſtone, in natural hiſtory, a rhomboidal pellucid foſſile, diviſible into thin lamina; often confounded with the lapis ſpecularis. It is found in many places, particularly near Epſom-wells in Surrey.

SELKIRK produces but little corn, the country being fitter for the grazing trade than the plough, and accordingly the inhabitants principally ſubſiſt by it, as they raiſe and feed great numbers of cattle, which they ſend to England for ſale.

SENA, is a ſmall, dry, ſharp-pointed leaf, of a yellowiſh green colour, of a ſomewhat grateful ſmell, and of ſubacrid, bitteriſh, naſeous taſte. There are three kinds of it ſometimes to be met with in the ſhops: the beſt comes from Alexandria, and is the ſort deſcribed above: this ſhould be choſen freſh, well ſcented, of a lively yellowiſh green colour, ſoft to the touch, with whole leaves,

not bruiſed nor ſpotted, cleared from the larger ſtalks, and ſuch like impurities. The ſtalks of ſena uſed to be thrown away: but they have been found to be near as purgative as the leaves.

Sena, infuſed in water, communicates to it a deep colour: by evaporating the menſtruum, an exſtract is obtained, which, according to Geoffroy, is extremely acrimonious, and when exſiccated, readily takes fire. Several attempts have been made to correct the griping quality of ſena; but moſt of them ſeem to have been founded upon wrong principles. Mr. Geoffroy obſerves, that the purgative virtue of this drug depends upon a gummy and reſinous ſubſtance, which proves more or leſs irritating, according as the volume is greater or leſs in which it is given, and as it is more or leſs divided by ſuch matter as takes off its adheſive quality. Hence infuſion of ſena in a ſmall quantity of fluid, or its extract, gripes ſeverely, and purges leſs then when diluted with a larger quantity of ſuitable menſtruum, or when divided by fixed alcaline ſalts, oily ſubſtances, or the like.

Sena, what duties liable to on importation. 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 43. *ſ.* 3.

SENEKA. This root is not at preſent much known in the ſhops. The Indians are ſaid to prevent the otherwiſe fatal effects, which follows the bite of the rattle ſnake, by giving it internally, and applying it to the wound. It is likewiſe ſaid to have been of extraordinary ſervice in the rheumatiſm, and other diſorders ariſing from a viſcidity of the blood. Meſſrs. Lemery, Hamel, and Juſſieu, vouch for its good effects in pleuriſies and other inflammatory diſorders.

SEQUIN, *Zechin*, or *Zecchino*, a gold coin ſtruck at Venice, and ſeveral parts of the grand ſeignior's dominions, particularly at Cairo. The value of thoſe ſequins is different, thoſe of Venice exceeding thoſe of Turkey by nearly one fifteenth part.

SER, SERRE, *or* CEER. *See* MAN.

SERON of almonds, is the quantity of two hundred weight; of aniſe-ſeeds, from three to four hundred; of Caſtile-ſoap, from two hundred and a half to three hundred and three quarters.

SERPENTARIA VIRGINIANA, Virginian ſnake-root. A medicinal root of a very ſingular figure, not long or thick, and tuberous and roundiſh as moſt of the other roots of the ſhops, but wholly made up, as it were, of fibres, or is compoſed of a multitude of long and thin filaments, arranged in cluſters together; they are about the bigneſs of a ſmall packthread each, and are of a ſmooth ſurface, a tolerably tough and firm texture, very light, and eaſily cut or powdered; they are of a duſky browniſh colour on the outſide, and when freſh and good, have a yellowiſh caſt within; they are of a remarkable ſmell, ſomething approaching to that of zedoary, and are of a biteriſh and ſubacrid taſte.

Snake-roots are to be choſen in large fibres, clean, of a brown colour, tough, and free from dirt, or any other filth that may have been entangled among them; they are apt to decay in keeping, but this is known by their being brittle and duſty, and loſing their ſmell; ſuch are to be wholly rejected. Snake-root is frequently met with ſophiſcated, or adulterated with the roots or the plant called Virginian *aſarum*, or black ſnake-root; but this is eaſily diſcovered, the roots of that plant being black: theſe are the roots of the *aſarum Virginianum, piſtolochiæ folio ſubrotundo cyclaminis more maculato*, of Plunket. This plant is a true ſpecies of aſarabacca, and its roots, though they ſomewhat reſemble thoſe of Virginian ſnake-root in taſte and ſmell, are by no means to be confounded with it, or uſed in its place. This is the only adulteration of any conſequence, in regard to this drug. We often ſee it differ, indeed, a little in appearance between one parcel and another, but this is not material: we know that the roots of two or three ſpecies of the ſame genus of plant, are ſent to us indiſcriminately under this name; but, as they all poſſeſs the ſame virtues, the thing is of no conſequence.

The ancients were wholly unacquainted with our ſnake-root; but it has now been a long time in uſe with us, and keeps up its credit as a very valuable medicine. We have it from many parts of America; it is indeed no where more plentiful than in the country from which it takes its name, Virginia; but it is alſo found in ſufficient abundance in Maryland, Penſilvania, New Jerſey, and Carolina, and, in general, that which is brought from the more ſouthern provinces, is beſt.

The plant which produces the true Virginian ſnake-root, or the peculiar ſpecies of it, firſt known and uſed in Europe, is the *ariſtolochia polyrhizos, auriculatis foliis; Virginiana*, of Moriſon, hiſtor. 3, 510; but, beſides this, the roots of two other ſpecies, the *ariſtolochia, violæ fruticoſæ foliis, Virginiana*, and thoſe of the *ariſtolochia, piſtolochia, ſen ſerpentaria Virginiana, caule nodoſo*, are taken up as the ſame, and ſent into all parts of Europe indiſcriminately under the name of *ſerpentaria Virginiana*. All theſe plants are of the ſame claſs; they are of the number of the *gynandria hexandria* of Linnæus, and of the *herbæ flore monopetalo* of Mr. Ray. The roots of the firſt may be diſtinguiſhed from the reſt by their being thicker, and of a darker brown than either of the others; thoſe of the ſecond being paler, with ſomewhat of a greyiſh caſt intermixed; and thoſe of the laſt paler, with ſome faint caſt of yellowiſh; but the diſtinction is of no conſequence, ſince the one is as good and fit for all purpoſes as the other.

Virginia ſnake-root, diſtilled in a ſand-heat by a retort, affords an acid ſpirit in great quantity; and after this a thin eſſential oil, and then a thick one, having much the ſmell of camphor. The remainder in the retort is a black cinder, which contains a moderate portion of fixed alcaline ſalt. A very good extract of the gummous kind may be made from this root with water; and it affords a ſtrong tincture with ſpirit of wine, from which a reſinous extract may be procured; but it is always found to contain a large portion of ſalt in it, ſo as by no means to deſerve the name of a pure reſin.

This root was firſt brought into uſe as a remedy againſt venomous bites, it being affirmed to us, that the bite of the rattle-ſnake was to be cured by it; whatever truth there may be in this, there is no doubt but it is a very noble medicine. It is diuretic, diaphoretic, and alexipharmic. It is even recommended as a cure for the bite of a mad dog, but it is not ſafe to truſt to ſo uncertain a remedy in ſuch terrible caſes. It is certainly good in fevers, in hyſteric complaints, and againſt worms; it is given in powder or tincture; its doſe is from four to ten or fifteeen grains; it is alſo, ſometimes, made an ingredient in decoctions, a drachm or two to the pint. It is not an ingredient in any of the officinal compoſitions; but our late diſpenſatory orders a tincture of it to be kept in the ſhops, made by digeſting three ounces of the root in a quart of proof ſpirit, and, after three days ſtanding without heat, the tincture is to be filtered off for uſe.

SESSION, Juſticiary, and Exchequer-courts in Scotland, the charges of keeping them up to be paid out of the cuſtom or exciſe, yet not to leſſen the excreſcence due to the commiſſioners of the equivalent. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 108.

SESSIONS *for weights and meaſures*. In London, four juſtices from among the mayor, recorder, and aldermen (of which the mayor or recorder to be one) may hold a ſeſſions to inquire into offences of ſelling by falſe weights and meaſures, contrary to the ſtatutes; and to receive indictment, puniſh the offenders, &c. *King's charter.*

SESTE, a meaſure for corn, &c. *See* SAT.

SETTERS. This buſineſs is unfit for weak lads, as it requires great ſtrength; they being obliged to carry heavy burthens. The ſetter takes cloths and other wollen goods wet from the dyers, and hang them on tenters to dry, ſtretch, &c. In ſhort, the ſetters are nearly in town what the fullers are in the country; the ſcouring excepted. They have from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have twelve ſhillings a week by being a journeyman; or with one hundred pounds may commence maſter, provided he only rents a tenter-ground.

SETTLEMENTS *ſeparate* are frequently made before marriage; and the fitteſt and ſecureſt manner of making them is as follows.

The intended wife names truſtees of her own, and that part of her fortune or eſtate, which ſhe thinks fit to ſettle for ſuch ſeparate uſe, is with the privity and conſent of the

the intended husband, and who ought always to be made a party to the deed, conveyed or assigned to such trustees for her sole and separate use and benefit, and to and for such uses, intents and purposes, as the said intended wife by deed or deeds in writing, or by her last will, shall direct or appoint: and there is a particular agreement that such separate estate shall not be subject in any respect to the debts, controul, or engagements of the husband; but that the trustees are to pay and apply such separate estate, or the rents or interest thereof, into her own proper hands, or to permit her, or her assigns, to receive the same for her own separate use (exclusive of her husband) as she shall appoint.

And in this deed the intended husband usually covenants with the trustees, that they shall quietly enjoy such separate estate or money; and he consents to the settlement; and he agrees that any deed or will that she may make, according to that deed, shall have its full effect; and that he will not obstruct the execution of the same.

These separate provisions are also frequently made by deed or will, by parents to their daughters that are married, as a provision for their support and maintenance, in case any misfortunes or losses may happen to their husbands; and if they are secured in this manner, they are effectual against any of the husband's creditors, or any incumbrance or act of bankruptcy.

And the reason why settlements should be made in this manner will appear from the following cases.

A widow makes a deed of settlement of her estate, and marries a second husband, who was not privy to such settlement; and it appearing to the court, that it was in confidence of her having such an estate that the husband married her, the court set aside the deed as fraudulent. 2 *Chan. Rep.* 18. *Howard and Hooker.*

So where the intended wife the day before her marriage entered into a recognizance to her brother, it was decreed to be delivered up. 2 *Chan. Rep.* 79.

So where a conveyance was made by the wife before her marriage to trustees in trust, that they should permit her to receive the rents and profits of the estate, and act in every thing as she, whether sole or covert, should appoint; the lady being crazed in her understanding, endeavoured to run away from her husband, and stirred up her creditors to sue him; and the conveyance appearing to be without the husband's privity, my lord chancellor held it to be in derogation of the rights of marriage; and decreed the possession of the estate to the husband, and a conveyance from the trustees to the six clerks, that it might be subject to the order of the court. 2 *Vern.* 17. *Carleton and the earl of Dorset. Hil.* 1688.

A woman on agreement before marriage with her husband, being to have a power to act as a feme sole; and the husband dying, and she marrying again, the second husband not being privy to the settlement on the first marriage, it was decreed, that the second husband should not be bound by the settlement made on the former marriage. A case cited to be decreed. 2 *Vern.* 17. *Edmonds and Dennington.*

But when a widow, before her marriage with a second husband, assigned over the greatest part of her estate to trustees, in trust for children by her former husband; and though it was insisted, that this was without the privity of her husband, and done with a design to cheat him, yet the court thought that a widow may thus provide for her children, before she put herself under the power of an husband; and it being proved that eight hundred pounds were thus settled, and that the husband had suppressed the deed, he was decreed to pay the whole money, without directing any account. 1 *Vern.* 408. *Hunt and Mathews. Mich.* 1689.

William Davison having devised a legacy of six hundred pounds to his son, payable at twenty-one, for which he had obtained a decree, and six hundred and thirty-seven pounds reported due. Before he received the money he became a bankrupt, and the commissioners assigned the legacy and benefit of the decree. *Toulson a Grout.* 2 *Vern. Rep.* 432. *Hil. term.* 1701. *in Cur. Can.*

The bill was brought by the assignees to have the benefit of the decree, to which the defendants, the executors, demurred, insisting that a legacy was not within the compass or provision of any of the acts made against bankrupts, to be assigned to the creditors. But the demurrer was over-ruled; and said, that the act of parliament ought to be taken in the most beneficial sense for the advantage of the creditors. *See the title Articles before marriage, for their validity in case of bankruptcy.*

SEVEN-OAKE, wool-key, how vested in trustees for the king, subject to an agreement concerning the free-school in Seven-oake. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 31.

SHAGREEN, *or* CHAGREEN, a kind of grained leather, chiefly used in the covers of cases, books, &c. It is very close and solid, and covered with little roundish grains or papillæ. It is brought from Constantinople, mount Taurus, Tripoli, Algiers, and some parts of Poland.

Authors are not agreed what the animal is whence the shagreen is prepared. Ongar tells us it is the onager, a kind of wild ass. Borel says it is a sea-calf; others, a kind of fish called shagreen by the Turks.

SHAGREEN-CASE-MAKER. This art requires ingenuity; but neither much strength, nor any previous education, besides that of any other artist or tradesman. He makes shagreen cases for watches, tweezers, &c. and shagreen chests for plate. He takes from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, with twenty pounds, may set up master; though, if he would keep a stock by him, he will have occasion for two hundred pounds.

SHALLOONS, under what penalties not to be exported from Ireland to any place but England. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 10.

SHAMMY, *or* CHAMMY, *chamois*, a kind of leather, either dressed in oil or tanned; much esteemed for its softness, pliancy, &c.

It is prepared from the skin of the chamois, or shamois, a kind of wild goat, inhabiting the mountains of Dauphiné, Savoy, Piedmont, and the Pyrenees.

SHEATHING *of a Ship*, the casing that part of her hull which is under water, with something to keep the worms from eating into her planks.

It is usually done by laying tar and hair all over the old plank, and then nailing on very thin boards.

SHEEP not to be exported. 3 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 2. 22 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 7.

None to keep more than two thousand two hundred sheep. 25 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 13.

The penalties of exporting sheep alive, 8 *Eliz. c.* 3. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32.

Stealing or killing sheep or other cattle, made felony without clergy, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6.

Extended to bull, cow, ox, steer, bullock, heifer, calf, and lamb, by 15 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. *See* CATTLE, WOOL.

SHEERING *or* SHEARING, in the woollen manufactury, is the cutting off, with large sheers, the superfluous nap or shag, found on the surface of woollen stuffs, &c.

SHEERING, is also a sea term, for the motion of the ship, when she does not move in a streight line, but traverses, or moves, in and out.

SHELL, in natural history, a hard crust serving to cover and inclose a kind of animals hence called testaceous.

Naturalists have been generally mistaken in the manner of the formation of shells. The animal, and its shell, have always been supposed to arrive from the same egg. But M. Reaumur, Malpighi, Lewenhoek, and several other curious naturalists, have shewn this supposition to be entirely false, since it is formed by a viscous fluid composed of glew, and several sandy particles of an exquisite fineness, which are transmitted through an infinite number of little channels to the pores where it transpires, condenses, and hardens. When the animal increases in bulk, and the extremity of her body is not sufficiently covered, it continues to evacuate and build in the same manner, finishing or repairing her habitation. This viscous matter is proved, by undeniable experiments, to arise from the body of animals, and not from the shell, as some have imagined. Those streaks and clouds which we observe most shells to be beautified with, proceed, probably, from the different disposition of the extreme parts of the animal body that are visible at the aperture of the shell, where we may frequently discover some minute lobes or lines of flesh that differ from the rest in colour, containing, perhaps, different juices which may acquire a

particular

particular complexion in that place; many other different cauſes may concur to paint, vein, and diverſify the colours with a more or leſs lively glow. The quality of the food, the health, or indiſpoſition of the animal, the inequality of its conſtitution according to the ſeveral periods of age, and the changes that may happen to the different perſoration of the ſkin: in ſhort, a thouſand accidents may intervene, to heighten or diminiſh certain tints, and diverſify the whole to infinity.

If the ſhell, in the variety of its colours, imitates the diverſity of the animal's pores, it is ſtill more apparent that it muſt aſſume the form of the body in which it is moulded. Thus we obſerve on all ſea-ſhells, that if the animal has any ſwelling or inequality on its body, a tumor likewiſe riſes in the correſponding part of the incruſtation. When the creature diſplaces herſelf, and enlarges the dimenſions of her dwelling, the ſame tumor which had already raiſed the ſhell in one part, ſwells it anew at a little diſtance, by which means you ſee the ſame ſpaces of inequality in a winding line round the ſhell. Sometimes, theſe protuberances of the animal are ſo large, or ſo pointed, that thoſe which riſe over them in the ſhell are like horns. She afterwards fills the inſides of theſe cavities, and then, by new evacuations of ſweat, ſtrikes out another ſet of horns, that protect her from fiſhes, who are fond of fleſh. If her body happens to be channelled, the ſhell that covers it has the ſame configuration: if the fleſh riſes in ſwellings, that wind round her in the form of a ſcrew, the ſhell has likewiſe its elevation and depreſſions, that are carried on a ſpiral line from her tail to the extremity of her body.

In Aldrovand, Geſner, and Fabius Columna, we have all that the ancients have ſaid on ſhells. In 1692, Dr. Liſter publiſhed a natural hiſtory of ſhells, in folio, full of cuts repreſenting the various kinds, and ranged in four claſſes; firſt, terreſtrial or land ſhells; in the ſecond, freſh-water ſhells, both the turbinata and bibalvia and multivalvia; in the third and fourth, he divides, into ſeveral claſſes, the ſea-ſhells called turbinata.

Shells are frequently found under-ground, in places far remote from the ſea, in mines, and even in the top of mountains; but how they ſhould come there, is a thing the naturaliſts are generally divided about. The moſt uſual and eaſy opinion is, that thoſe parts have been formerly ſeas, or, at leaſt, have been overflown thereby; and many go as high even as the general deluge. But others take theſe to be the natural places of their birth and formation; ſome of them being found no other than hard clay; others of the ſame texture with the rock, whereto they grow; and others of as abſolutely a ſhelly ſubſtance as any in the ſea: in effect, they may be only ſo many gradations of nature, which can as well produce ſhells in mines as in the ſea, there being no want of ſaline particles for that purpoſe; nor is there any difference between ſome ſorts of ſpars and ſea-ſhells.

SHETLAND. The iſles of Orkney and Shetland, being many, their ſoils are various, though in general they are fertile, notwithſtanding they lie ſo far north, and are fruitful in corn and cattle. The author of the preſent ſtate of Great-Britain, ſays, that in Pomona, (the largeſt of the Orcades) there are ſeveral mines of good white and black lead, and that its lakes and rivulets abound with ſalmon. Salt is made at Sanda; and from theſe iſlands together are yearly exported large quantities of butter, tallow, hides, barley, malt, oatmeal, fiſh, ſalted beef, pork, rabbit ſkins, other ſkins, white ſalt, ſtuffs, ſtockings, wool, hams, quills, down, and feathers. The iſles of Shetland differ very much from the Orkneys, as they have but little corn of their own growth, ſo are obliged to import it from the others, though they have abundance of fiſh on their coaſts, and an equal plenty of cattle on their lands. They have manufactures of coarſe cloth, ſtockings, and knit gloves for their own uſe, and ſome they ſell to the Norwegians.

SHILLING, an Engliſh ſilver coin, equal to twelvepence, or the twentieth part of a pound.

SHIPS, the fabric of ſhips has been various, as occaſions have required, and inventions could dictate to make them anſwer the intent, which variety continues to this very day, not only between nations, but even in the ſame country, ſome being built for war, ſome for ſailing, and others with the lucrative view of ſtowing well, and each has a name properly adapted, as gallies, frigates, &c. and the increaſe of theſe, and improvement of navigation, have always ſo much merited the attention of the legiſlators from the earlieſt times, as to have occaſioned many excellent laws being made for theſe purpoſes, though none ſo favourable and compleat among us, as the act of trade and navigation in 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. and ſo much importance to every trader. It ſtill remains in full force and vigour, having only had a ſmall part repealed by 17 *Geo.* II. during the then war, which being now over, the whole act remains as it did before the ſaid partial repeal. *See* ACT *of Navigation.*

In treating of maritime affairs, the owners of ſhips are the firſt which naturally challenge our regard, and they become ſuch either by building or purchaſing their veſſels, and this either in partnerſhip or alone; and if the former, and the property is diſtributed among ſeveral, the major part of them may let the ſhip out to freight againſt the conſent, though not without the privity of the minor. *Molloy de Jur. Mar. pag.* 220, 221. *ſ.* 2.

Two owners ſent out a ſhip without the conſent of a third, and ſhe was loſt, the third muſt bear his proportion of the loſs, becauſe he would have had his ſhare of the profit, if any. 1 *Vern.* 297.

A voyage ſettled by the major part of the owners binds the reſt. 1 *Vern.* 465.

In caſe a ſhip be taken away from the owners, or they be otherwiſe diſpoſſeſſed, it is provided, both by the common and maritime laws of this realm, that they maintain an action of trover and converſion for an eighth, ſixteenth, or any other part or ſhare of the ſame; and in an action on the caſe, the plaintiff declared, that he was owner of the ſixteenth part of a ſhip, and the defendant owner of another ſixteenth part of the ſame ſhip, and that the defendant fraudulently and deceitfully carried the ſaid ſhip, *ad loca tranſmarina* (into a foreign part) and diſpoſed of her to his own uſe, by which the plaintiff loſt his ſixteenth part to his damage: on not guilty pleaded, and verdict for the plaintiff, it was moved in arreſt of judgment, that the action did not lie for, though it be found deceptive. Yet this did not help it, if the action did not lie on the ſubject matter, and here they are tenants in common of the ſhip, and by Littleton, between tenants in common there is not any remedy, and there cannot be any fraud between them, becauſe the law ſuppoſes a truſt and confidence betwixt them, and upon theſe reaſons judgment was given *quod querens nil capiat per billam. Lit. ſ.* 323. 1. *inſt.* 199. *Graves a Sawcer, Ray.* 15, 1. *Levinz.* 29, 1. *Keeble* 38, 3.

Owners are not bound to continue their paction or partnerſhip longer than they pleaſe, for though by the law marine it was required, that a new built ſhip ſhould make one voyage upon the common riſk, before the owners ſhould be allowed to ſeparate, yet by the laws of England any owner may ſell or tranſmit his right at what time he pleaſes. *Bennington adver. Bennington. Molloy de Jur. Mar. page* 222. *ſ.* 3.

But if any one obſtinately refuſes his conſent to a voyage, the law will force him either to hold or ſell his ſhare; but if he will ſet no price, the reſt may fit the ſhip out at their own coſt and charges, and whatſoever freight ſhe earns ſhall be ſolely theirs, and no part thereof be given to the diſſenting owner; but if the ſhip ſhould miſcarry, or be caſt away, the reſt muſt make him ſatisfaction for the part he held.

Tho' on the contrary, if the greateſt part of the owners refuſe to fit out the veſſel, they ſhall not be compelled, on account of their majority, but in this caſe the ſhip ſhall be valued and ſold, and the like where part of the owners become deficient, and unable to fit her out.

Owners of ſhips are liable for the actions of the maſters they employ, therefore it behoves them carefully to conſult as well the honeſty as ability of him they intend to commit the care of their intereſts to, as the charge both of the veſſel and its lading reſts on him; and the owners are obliged both by the common laws of England and the law-marine to make ſatisfaction for all damages that ſhall accrue through the maſter's neglect, and were formerly ob-

bliged to make good the contents of a bill of loading ſigned by the maſter, provided he abſconded, though the ſaid bill of loading might be iniquitouſly obtained; as I remember to have occured with a merchant, who had a ſhip of his own from Liſbon, and was arreſted (I think) in fifteen actions for money his maſter had ſigned bills of loading for, and had run away with, and which he might have continued coining, and firmed new bills every day to the utter ruin of his owner, though never ſo wealthy, had not the act, 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 1. prevented ſuch fraudulent proceedings, by limiting the owners loſs to ſhip and freight, ſo he now knows the extent of what damage a roguiſh maſter can do him, which he was before unaſcertained and endleſs.

Though if the maſter commits offences, either negligently or wilfully, he ſhall be reſponſible to his owners for the reparation of damages; and they are not bound to ſue jointly, but may do it ſeparately, both according to the common and marine law; as alſo in caſe the ſhip hath by freight got ſomething clear to divide, and the maſter hath paid ſome of the owners their parts, the reſt may bring their action for their ſhares without joining with the others. *Stanley. v. Ayler* 3, *Keeble* 444.

The defendant and ſeven other perſons were proprietors of a ſhip, which uſually carried goods on freight between Topſham and London, and the plaintiff loaded goods upon her at the latter, to be carried to the former port; but the defendant, not careful of his duty, had ſo careleſsly ſtowed the ſaid goods, that though the ſhip arrived ſafe at Topſham, yet the goods were all ſpoiled. And upon *non culp.* pleaded, the jury found a ſpecial verdict, viz. that the defendant, and ſeven other perſons were proprietors and part-owners of the ſhip; that the ſhip had a maſter Locat in her by the part-owners, who had ſixty pounds wages for every voyage between Topſham and London, that the goods were delivered to the maſter, none of the part-owners being preſent, and that there was not any contract made with them, or any of them by the plaintiff, that the ſhip arrived ſafe to Topſham, but the goods were ſpoiled. *Et ſi pro quer', pro quer' ſi non pro def.*

And two points were made.

1ſt. If the proprietors are chargeable, no contract being made with them, and there being a maſter that is chargeable in reſpect of his wages, according to the caſe of Morſe and Slue, yet per *Holt*, *Car.* I. clearly, that though the maſter be chargeable in reſpect of his wages, ſo are the proprietors in reſpect of their freight, that they receive for the carriage of the goods at the election of the plaintiff.

2dly. If the action lay againſt the defendant alone, it appearing that there are other part-owners, not made defendants; and held that the action did not lie againſt him ſole, but ought to have been againſt all the part-owners; for all the part-owners are chargeable in reſpect of the profit they make by the carriage of the goods, and that in point of contract upon their undertaking, be it implied or expreſs, and are not chargeable as treſpaſſers, for then one might be chargeable alone, but in point of contract, upon their receipt of the goods to be carried for hire. Judgment pro def. as by 3 mod. 321. *Boſon con. Sand.* 3. *Levinz.* 258. where it is with a *cur. Adverſare*, *mes le reporter ut audivit judgm. pro defen.*

If a ſhip be broken up, or taken in pieces with an intent to convert the ſame to other uſes, and afterwards on change of mind ſhe be rebuilt with the ſame materials, ſhe is now another, and not the ſame ſhip, eſpecially if the keel be ript up, or changed, and the whole ſhip be all once taken aſunder and rebuilt, there determines the partnerſhip, *quoad* the ſhip; but if a ſhip be ripped up in parts, and taken aſunder in parts, and repaired in parts, yet ſhe remains ſtill the ſame veſſel, and not another; nay, though ſhe hath been ſo often repaired, that there remains not one ſtick of the original fabric. *Molloy de Jur. Mar. page* 224. *ſ.* 6.

If a man repairs his ſhip with plank or other materials not his own, but appertaining to another, yet the property is not hereby altered, but the ſhip maintains and keeps her firſt owners. Though if a man take plank and materials prepared for the uſe of ſhipping, and belonging to another, the property of the veſſel follows the owner of the materials, and not the builder; but if a man cut down the trees of another, or takes timber or planks prepared for the erecting or repairing of a dwelling-houſe, (nay though ſome of them were for ſhipping) and builds a ſhip, the property follows not the owners but the builders. *Ditto pag. ditto. ſ.* 7.

The words which were uſually made uſe of formerly in the ſale of ſhips, viz. her tackle, furniture, apparel, and all other her inſtruments thereunto belonging, did not convey the ſhip's boat, which, if unexpreſſed in the ſale, remained ſtill in the owners, as ſhe does, if a ſhip is forfeited for committing piracy. *Ditto, ditto. ſ.* 8. *Rolls Abridg.* 530.

Though ballaſt is generally uſed in ſhipping, where a veſſel goes out empty, or filled with light goods, yet it is not eſteemed any part of her furniture; and ſo it was adjudged in debt on bond; of which the condition was, that whereas the plaintiff had bought of the defendant a ſhip, if the plaintiff ſhall enjoy the ſaid ſhip with all the furniture belonging to the ſame, without being diſturbed for the ſhip, or any furniture appertaining to it, that then, &c. and the caſe was, after the ſale of the ſhip, a ſtranger ſued the plaintiff for certain monies due for ballaſt bought by the defendant for the ſame ſhip, in which ſuit he obtained ſentence, upon which the ſhip was ſeized: the queſtion was whether ballaſt be furniture for a ſhip or not, and it was reſolved in the negative; for although it may ſometimes be as neceſſary as ſails, yet it is not always ſo, as ſhips frequently ſail without it, more eſpecially when a heavy loading anſwers the purpoſe by ſupplying its place. *Linter's caſe. Leon.* 46, 47.

If a ſhip commits a piracy, and is thereby become forfeited, but before ſeizure ſhe be *bona fide* ſold, the property ſhall not be queſtioned, nor the owners diveſted of the ſame. *Bingley's caſe*, *Rolls abridg. fol.* 530.

And if a mortgagee of ſhips, by deed, entruſts the mortgager with the original bill of ſale; and the morgager indorſes thereon ſubſequent mortgages, or bills of ſale of ſeveral parts of the ſhip, the firſt mortgagee acquieſces, he ſhall be poſtponed. 1 *Peer Will.* 393, 394.

Where a ſhip ſtands in need of repairs, and the maſter takes up money for that purpoſe, though he ſpends it another way, the owner and ſhip becomes liable to ſatisfy the lender; but if the maſter borrows money to repair or victual the ſhip when there is no occaſion for it, he only ſhall become Dr. and not the owners, though they are generally bound to anſwer the fact of the maſter; for as on the one hand, it would be very unreaſonable, that the creditor ſhould be bound to take upon him the care of repairing the ſhip, and ſupply the owners room, which muſt be ſo, if it ſhould be neceſſary for him to prove, that the money was laid out on the ſhip; ſo, on the other hand, it is conſiſtent with reaſon, that he be ſure he lends his money on ſuch an occaſion, as the maſter's act may thereby oblige the owners, which he cannot do otherwiſe, than by knowing that the money borrowed was neceſſary for the ſhip's repair; and therefore if the ſhip wanted ſome repairs, and a far greater ſum was lent than was needful, the owners ſhall not be liable for the whole. *Molloy de Jure Mar. page* 225, 226. *ſ.* 10. *Bridgman's caſe*, *Hobart*, *fol.* 11, 12. *mov.* 918. *Gloſs African. ſuper cod. Leg. & ſ.*

Upon an information *tam quam*, grounded upon the act of navigation for importing goods in a foreign veſſel contrary to that act, the queſtion was, whether or not, if a foreign ſhip, naturalized by the new act, being a prize taken in the late war with Holland, be afterwards ſold to a foreigner, who ſells her again to an Engliſhman, whether or no the oath muſt be taken again, according to the act; *per cur.* it need not, becauſe the ſhip was once lawfully naturalized. *Hardres* 511. *Martin A. Verdne. Molloy de Jure Mar. page* 227, 228. *ſ.* 15.

An agent for the Eaſt-India company (in the Eaſt-Indies) bought a ſhip and cargo of the commander, who had no right or power to ſell either, and the owner on a ſuit here had the value decreed him for ſhip and cargo (the value being found by a jury) and Indian intereſt, viz. 12 *per cent. Ditto, page* 226. 1 *Peer Will.* 395.

If a man gets poſſeſſion of a ſhip without a juſt title to the ſame, he ſhall (by the law marine) anſwer ſuch damage as the ſhip in all probability might have earned; and the reaſon of that is, becauſe the only end of ſhipping is the employment thereof; but if a warrant be directed out of the admiralty to the marſhal to arreſt ſuch a ſhip, and *ſalvo cuſtodire*,

*todire*, (preſerve her in ſafety) who by force of the ſame enters into the ſhip; and though the warrant does not mention that the officer ſhould carry away her ſails, yet he may juſtify the taking them, for that he cannot *ſalvo cuſtodire* her, unleſs he takes away the ſails. *Dig. lib.* 6. *tit.* 1. 62. *& lib.* 7. *tit.* 1. 12. *ſ.* 1. *Creamer* v. *Jockley Latch. fol.* 188.

In caſe a ſhip is freighted out, and in conſequence of the agreement receives her lading aboard, if an embargo happens afterwards, and her cargo is taken as forfeited, yet the owners ſhall notwithſtanding receive the freight, as the fault was not in them, but in him whoſe property the goods were. *Dig. lib.* 19. *tit.* 2. 61.

In the main ſea, or in an arm of it, a ſhip may not become a deodand, though any body be drowned out of it, or otherwiſe come by their death aboard, becauſe on ſuch waters ſhips are naturally expoſed to the dangers of tempeſtuous weather; but a ſhip or veſſel in freſh water may become a deodand, as happened with one lying at Rotherhithe, near the ſhore, to be careened, where a ſhipwright being at work under at low-water, as ſhe leaned aſide, ſhe unexpectedly turned over, and unfortunately killed him. Upon a trial at bar the queſtion was, whether ſhe belonged to the lord of the manor contiguous to the place where the man was ſlain, or to the almoner, as a matter not granted out of the crown; and it was reſolved that the ſhip was a deodand, and the jury found a verdict for the lord of the manor. 3 *Inſt. fol.* 58. *Mich.* 29. *Car.* II. *in* B. R.

If a ſhip imports prohibited goods ſhe cannot be ſeized as forfeit till there is a condemnation in the exchequer thereon. 1 *Vent.* 47. 1 *Sed.* 421. 1 *Mod.* 18. 2 *Keeble* 604. *Horne* a *Ivye*.

If foreign brandy or ſpirits ſhall be imported in any ſhip under fifteen tons, (except for the uſe of the ſeamen, not exceeding one gallon each) ſuch brandy, &c. ſhall be forfeited. 12 *Will.* III. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1.

If any maſter, owner, purſer, or boatſwain of any ſhip willingly permit any braſs, copper, latten, bell-metal, pan-metal, gun-metal, or ſhrof-metal, whether it be clear or mixed, (tin and lead excepted) to be ſhipped contrary to this act, or perceiving ſuch metal to be ſhipped, do not diſcloſe the ſame in three days after knowledge had to the cuſtomer or comptroller of the port, or their deputies, every ſuch owner, &c. ſhall forfeit double the value of the metal. 2 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 5.

Every veſſel, with all her tackle, in which any great cattle, ſheep or ſwine, or any beef, pork, or bacon (except for the neceſſary proviſion of the ſhips, in which the ſame ſhall be brought, not expoſing it to ſale) ſhall be imported, and out of which they ſhall be put on ſhore, ſhall be forfeited; and it ſhall be lawful for any perſon, within one year after ſuch importation, to ſeize the veſſel, and make ſale thereof to the beſt advantage, &c. and it ſhall be lawful for any juſtice of peace of the county, or chief officer of the port town, where ſuch importation ſhall be, or where any of the cattle, beef, &c. ſo imported ſhall be brought, by warrant to cauſe to be apprehended the maſter and ſeamen, having charge of, or belonging to ſuch veſſel; and every other perſon employed in the landing, or taking care of the ſaid cattle, beef, &c. and them to commit to the common goal for three months. 20 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 5.

It ſhall be lawful for any perſons who ſhall reſide in her majeſty's dominions to import cochineal in ſhips belonging to any ſtate in amity, Spaniſh ſhips, or ſuch as are deemed Spaniſh ſhips, ſailing with Spaniſh paſſes and colours, from Cadiz, Sevile, Port St. Mary, St. Lucar, and Gibraltar, or any other ports in Spain, during the war, &c. the act 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. notwithſtanding. 6 *Ann. c.* 33.

Made perpetual, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 3.

No perſon ſhall huy any rough hide or calf-ſkin in the hair, but only ſuch as ſhall tan them, except ſalt hides for the uſe of ſhips, &c. 1 *Jacob.* I. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 7.

No maſter ſhall loſe his ſhip for any ſmall thing, not cuſtomed, put in the ſhip without his knowledge. 38 *Edw.* III. *c.* 8.

No cuſtomer or cnmptroller ſhall have ſhips of their own, nor meddle with the freight of ſhips. 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 10.

No ſhip or goods ſhall be ſeized as forfeited for unlawful importation or exportation, or for non-payment of cuſtoms, but by the perſons appointed to manage the cuſtoms, or officers of cuſtoms, or perſons deputed by warrant from the lord treaſuter, or under-treaſurer, or by commiſſion from his majeſty under the great or privy-ſeal, and if any ſeizure ſhall be made by any other perſon for the cauſes aforeſaid, ſuch ſeizure ſhall be void. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 15.

In caſe the ſeizure or information ſhall be made upon the act of navigation, the defendants ſhall, on their requeſt, have a commiſſion out of chancery to examine witneſſes beyond ſea, and have a competent time allowed for the return thereof before trial; and the examination of witneſſes ſo returned ſhall be evidence at the trial. *Ditto, ſect.* 29.

Every perſon that ſhall export goods from any port of this kingdom, capable of a ſhip of two hundred tons upon an ordinary full ſea, to any part of the Mediterranean beyond the port of Malaga, or import goods from the places aforeſaid, in any ſhip that hath not two decks, and do carry leſs than ſixteen pieces of ordnance mounted, with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable, ſhall pay for all merchandizes ſo exported or imported one *per cent.* above the tonnage and poundage. *Ditto, ſect.* 35.

It ſhall be lawful to export fiſh into any of the ports of the Mediterranean in any Engliſh ſhip, provided one moiety of her lading be fiſh, and to import merchandize in the ſame ſhip for that voyage, without paying any other rates than accuſtomed. *Ditto, ſect.* 36.

The maſter of every ſhip, carrying certificate goods to Ireland, ſhall take from the collector in Great-Britain a duplicate of his content, under the hand and ſeal of the collector and comptroller, (which they are required to deliver without fee) and ſuch maſter ſhall deliver ſuch duplicate to the officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland before he be permitted to land ſuch goods. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 19.

In caſe any foreign goods ſhall, by any collier, fiſher-boat, or other coaſting veſſel, be taken in at ſea, or out of any veſſel, to be landed, or put into any other ſhip, &c. within the limits of any port, without payment of the duties, ſuch goods ſhall be forfeited, and the maſter of ſuch collier, &c. ſhall forfeit treble the value, unleſs in caſe of neceſſity, of which ſuch maſter ſhall give notice, and make proof, before the chief officers of the cuſtoms of the firſt port where he ſhall arrive; the maſter or other perſon taking charge of the ſhip out of which ſuch goods ſhall be taken in at ſea, ſhall forfeit treble the value. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 3.

All goods not reported, and found after clearing the ſhip by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, ſhall be liable to forfeiture. *Ditto. ſect.* 4.

Where any veſſel of fifty tons, or under, laden with cuſtomable, or prohibited goods, ſhall be found hovering on the coaſts, within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage, (wind and weather permitting) any officer of the cuſtoms may go on board, and take an account of the lading, and demand ſecurity of the maſter, &c. by his own bond, to his majeſty, &c. in treble the value of the foreign goods on board, with condition, that ſuch veſſel, (as ſoon as wind and weather, and the ſtate of ſuch veſſel doth permit) ſhall proceed regularly on her voyage, and ſhall land ſuch goods in ſome foreign port. And if ſuch maſter, &c. ſhall refuſe to enter into ſuch bond, or ſhall not proceed on ſuch voyage, (as ſoon as wind, weather, and the ſtate of ſuch ſhip will permit) unleſs ſuffered to make longer ſtay by the collector, or other chief officer, (not exceeding twenty days) all the foreign goods on board ſuch veſſel may, by any officer of the cuſtoms by direction of the collector, or other principal officer, be taken out of the ſhip and ſecured; and if ſuch goods are cuſtomable, the duties ſhall be paid; and wool, or any prohibited goods, found on board, are declared ſubject to forfeiture. *Ditto, ſect.* 8. *.

* *N. B.* There is the ſame act made for any ſhip hovering on the coaſt of Ireland, &c. by 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 1. *ſ.* 62.

All goods found concealed on board any ſhip after the maſter ſhall have made his report at the cuſtom-houſe, and not mentioned in the ſaid report, ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms, and the maſter of ſuch ſhip (in caſe he was privy to ſuch concealment) ſhall forfeit treble the value of the goods. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 27.

It ſhall be lawful for the officers of exciſe to go on board any veſſel within the limits of any port, and to continue on board, and rummage in like manner as the officers of the cuſtoms,

cuſtoms, for arrack, rum, brandy, or other exciſable liquors; and for coffee, tea, cocoa-nuts, chocolate, and cocoa-paſte; and to ſeize for his majeſty's uſe all ſuch of the ſaid commodities there found, as by law ſhall be forfeited, together with the package; and to ſeize ſuch of the ſaid commodities as before due entry, and without paying or ſecuring the duties on the importation, ſhall be found unſhipping or unſhipped. 11. *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 1.

For encouragement of the North Sea, Iſland, and Weſtmony fiſheries, no freſh herring, freſh cod, or haddock, coal-fiſh, or gull-fiſh ſhall be imported but in Engliſh built ſhips, and having certificate as in the act, and whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, and which have been caught in ſuch ſhips, and not bought of ſtrangers, under pain of forfeiture of all ſuch fiſh, and the ſhip in which it was imported. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 16.

No Britiſh ſhip trading to any part of the Mediterranean ſea beyond Malaga, ſhall be entitled to the exemption granted in the act 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 36. (herein before recited) for that one moiety of the loading of ſuch ſhip ſhall conſiſt of fiſh, unleſs ſuch moiety conſiſt of fiſh taken and cured by his majeſty's ſubjects. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 3.

It ſhall be lawful for natives of England or Ireland to import into England directly from Ireland any ſorts of hemp or flax, and all the productions thereof, as thread, yarn and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, free from all duties, the maſter of the veſſel importing the ſame bringing a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expreſſing the marks, number, tale, or weight of the ſpecies in each bale mentioned in the bills of lading, with the names and places of abode of the exporters from Ireland, and of ſuch perſons that ſhall have ſworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of the kingdom, and where, and to whom in England conſigned; and the maſter of the ſhip, on arrival in England, making oath that the ſaid bales and goods are the bales and goods taken on board by virtue of the ſaid certificates. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 39. *ſ.* 1.

If any perſon ſhall within his majeſty's dominions, or without, falſely forge or counterfeit any paſs for any ſhip, commonly called a Mediterranean paſs, or ſhall alter or eraſe any paſs made out by the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral; or ſhall publiſh as true any forged, altered, or eraſed paſs, knowing the ſame to be forged, &c. every ſuch perſon being convicted in Great-Britain, Ireland, or his majeſty's plantations, where ſuch offence ſhall be committed, ſhall be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 1.

None of the duties upon hop (except of Britiſh growth, ſhall be drawn back upon exportation for Ireland;) and no perſon ſhall import into Ireland from Flanders, or any nther parts (other than Great Britain) any hops, upon pain of forfeiting the hops ſo imported, or the value of the ſame, and alſo the ſhip. 9 *Ann.* *c.* 12. *ſ.* 27.

The maſter of every ſhip carrying hops to Ireland ſhall take from the collector or comptroller of the port in Great-Britain where he ſhall lade any hops, a duplicate of his content of all the hops laden on board his ſhip, before he be permitted to ſail, under the hand and ſeal of ſuch collector, &c. who ſhall deliver it without fee; which duplicate the ſaid maſter ſhall deliver on oath to the officer of the cuſtoms in Ireland befnre he be permitted to land any hops; and in caſe any hops ſhall be landed in Ireland before ſuch duplicate be produced, all ſuch hops, and ten ſhillings for every pound weight, ſhall be forfeited. 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 6.

The duty on hops of Britiſh growth ſhall not be drawn back for any ſuch hops exported for Ireland. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 40.

No commodity of the product or manufacture of the Eaſt-Indies ſhall be imported into Ireland, the iſlands of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or to any of the plantations in Africa or America, belonging to the crown of Great-Britain, but ſuch only as be ſhipped in Great-Britain in ſhips navigated according to law, on penalty of forfeiting all ſuch goods, or the value thereof, together with the ſhip, &c. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 9.

This act ſhall not prohibit the carrying of hides or leather for the neceſſary uſe of the ſhip, and which ſhall not be ſold in foreign parts, ſo as the number do not exceed ſix raw hides, and three tanned hides. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 12.

It ſhall be lawful for any natives of England or Ireland to ſhip, in any port of Ireland, in Engliſh built ſhipping, whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners be Engliſh or Iriſh, any white or brown linen-cloth, of the manufacture of Ireland, and the ſame to tranſport into any of the plantations, the act 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. notwithſtanding. 3 *Ann.* *c.* 8. *ſ.* 1.

Provided, that no ſhip coming to the plantations from Ireland ſhall break bulk, until the maſter ſhall have made known to the governor, or to ſuch officer as ſhall be by him appointed, the arrival of the ſaid ſhip, with her name, and the name of the maſter, and ſhall have delivered a true inventory or invoice of the lading, together with the certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland where ſuch ſhip ſhall be laden, expreſſing the particulars of ſuch lading, with the names and abodes of the exporters, and of two perſons, who ſhall have made oath before ſuch chief officer, that the ſaid goods and linen are *bona fide* of the manufacture of Ireland; and until the maſter ſhall have made oath, before ſuch governor or officer, that the ſaid goods are the ſame that he took on board by virtue of ſuch certificate, nor until ſuch ſhip ſhall have been ſearched by an officer; and, in caſe the commander of ſuch ſhip ſhall break bulk before ſuch notice given and certificate produced, and ſuch oath made, or before ſuch ſearch, or if any goods of woollen manufacture, not laden in England (neceſſary apparel of the commander and mariners excepted) or any linen goods not laden in England, nor of the manufacture of Ireland, ſhall be found, ſuch ſhip ſhall be forfeited, together with all goods imported, or found in ſuch ſhip. *Ditto*, *ſ.* 2.

No ſugars, tobacco, cotton wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtick, or other dying-wood, of the production of any Engliſh plantations in America, Aſia or Africa, ſhall be carried from any of the ſaid Engliſh plantations, to any place whatſoever, other than to ſuch Engliſh plantations as belong to his majeſty, or to England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, there to be laid on ſhore, under the penalty of forfeiture of the goods, or the value thereof, as alſo of the ſhip, with her tackle. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 18.

For every ſhip which ſhall ſet out from England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, for any Engliſh plantation in America, Aſia, nr Africa, bond ſhall be given with one ſurety, to the chief officers of the cuſtom-houſe of ſuch port from whence the ſhip ſhall ſet ſail, to the value of one thouſand pounds, if the ſhip be of leſs burthen than one hundred tons, and of two thouſand pounds, if the ſhip be of greater burthen; that in caſe the ſhip ſhall load any of the ſaid commodities at the Engliſh plantations, that the ſame ſhall be by the ſaid ſhip brought to ſome port of England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, and ſhall there unload the ſame, danger of the ſeas excepted; and for all ſhips coming from any other place to any of the plantations, the governor of ſuch plantation ſhall, before the ſhip be permitted tn load any of the ſaid commodities, take bond to the value aforeſaid, that ſuch ſhip ſhall carry all the aforeſaid goods to ſome other of his majeſty's Engliſh plantations, or to England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick; and every ſhip which ſhall take on board any of the aforeſaid goods, until ſuch bond given to the governor, or certificate produced from the officers of any cuſtom-houſe of England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, that ſuch bonds have been there given, ſhall be forfeited with all her tackle. *Ditto*. *ſ.* 19.

Confirmed, 13 *Car.* II. *c.* 14.

No commodity, of the production of Europe, ſhall be imported into any plantation or place, which ſhall belong to his majeſty in Aſia, Africa, or America, but what ſhall be ſhipped in England, Wales, or Berwick, and in Engliſh built ſhipping, and whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, and which ſhall be carried directly thence to the ſaid plantations, under the penalty of the loſs of all ſuch commodities imported from any other place; and, if by water, of the ſhip alſo with her tackle. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 6.

Prnvided, that it ſhall be lawful to lade in ſhips navigated as in the foregoing clauſe, in any part of Europe, ſalt, for the fiſheries of New-England and Newfoundland, and to ſhip in the Madeiras, wines of the growth thereof, and to ſhip in the weſtern iſlands or Azores, wines of the growth

growth of the ſaid iſlands, and to take in ſervants or horſes in Ireland, and to ſhip in Ireland, victual of the production of Ireland, and the ſame to tranſport into any of the ſaid plantations. *Ditto, ſ.* 7.

Every perſon importing by land any goods into the ſaid plantations, ſhall deliver to the governor, or to ſuch perſon as ſhall be by him appointed, within twenty-four hours after ſuch importation, his name, and a particular of all ſuch goods: and no ſhip coming to any ſuch plantation ſhall lade or unlade any goods, until the maſter ſhall firſt have made known to the governor, or ſuch other officer as ſhall be by him appointed, the arrival of the ſhip, with her name, and the name of her commander, and have ſhewn to him that ſhe is an Engliſh built ſhip, or made good by producing ſuch certificate, that ſhe is a ſhip belonging to England, Wales, or Berwick, and navigated with an Engliſh maſter, and three-fourth parts of the mariners Engliſh, and have delivered to ſuch governor, or other officer, an inventory of her lading, with the places in which the goods were laden, under the pain of loſs of the ſhip with her tackle, and of all ſuch goods of the production of Europe, as were not laden in England, Wales, or Berwick. *Ditto, ſ.* 8.

The word Ireland ſhall be left out of all bonds taken from any ſhip, which ſhall ſet ſail from England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, for any Engliſh plantation in America, Aſia, or Africa; and, in caſe the ſhip ſhall load any of the ſaid commodities at the ſaid Engliſh plantations, the ſaid commodities ſhall be by the ſaid ſhip brought to ſome port of England, Wales, or Berwick, and ſhall there unload the ſame, (danger of the ſeas excepted) and in like manner for all ſhips coming from any other port to the ſaid plantations, the governor of ſuch plantations ſhall, before the ſhips be permitted to load any of the ſaid commodities, take bond in the manner directed in the act, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. for the encouraging of navigation, that ſuch ſhip ſhall carry all the ſaid goods to ſome other of his majeſty's Engliſh plantations, or to England, Wales, or Berwick; and every ſuch ſhip which ſhall load any of the ſaid commodities, until ſuch bond given, or certificate produced, from the officers of ſome cuſtom-houſe of England, Wales, or Berwick, that ſuch bond hath been there given, or which, contrary to the tenor of ſuch bond, ſhall carry the ſaid goods to any place other than to other Engliſh plantations, or to England, Wales, or Berwick, and there lay the ſame on ſhore, every ſuch ſhip ſhall be forfeited, with her tackle and lading. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 11.

If any ſhip, which by law may trade in any of his majeſty's plantations, ſhall come to any of them to ſhip any of the ſaid commodities, and bond ſhall not he firſt given with ſurety, to bring the ſame to England, Wales, or Berwick, and there to unload the ſame (the danger of the ſeas excepted) there ſhall be paid to his majeſty, for ſo much of the ſaid commodities as ſhall be put on board ſuch ſhip, theſe duties, viz. for ſugar white, the hundred weight five ſhillings, brown ſugar and muſcovadoes, one ſhilling and ſix-pence, for tobacco the pound one penny, cotton wool one half-penny, indigo two pence, ginger the hundred weight one ſhilling, for logwood five pounds, for fuſtick, and all other dying woods ſix pence, and for every pound of cocoa nuts one penny, to be collected as ſhall be appointed in the plantations before the landing thereof, and under ſuch penalties as for defrauding his majeſty of his cuſtoms in England. 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 2.

In caſe any perſon liable to pay the duties before-mentioned ſhall not have monies to pay the ſame, the officers ſhall accept ſuch a proportion of the commodities as ſhall amount to the value. *Ditto, ſect.* 4.

No goods ſhall be imported into, or exported out of any plantation, to his majeſty in Aſia, Africa or America belonging, or ſhall be carried from any one port in the plantations to any other port in the ſame, the kingdom of England, Wales, or Berwick, in any ſhip but what ſhall be of the built of England, or of Ireland, or the plantations, and wholly owned by the people thereof, and navigated with the maſters, and three-fourths of the mariners, of the ſaid places (except ſhips taken prize, and condemnation thereof made in the courts of admiralty in England, Ireland, or the plantations, to be navigated by the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners Engliſh, or of the plantations, and whereof the property doth belong to Engliſhmen) under pain of forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2.

Merchandizes may be exported or imported to and from this kingdom and places aforeſaid, in any ſhips taken as prize, and whereof condemnation ſhall be made in one of the courts of admiralty aforeſaid, and ſhall be navigated by the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, Engliſh, and whereof the property ſhall belong to Engliſhmen. *Ditto, ſect.* 3.

All ſhips coming into, or going out of, any of the plantations, and lading or unlading any goods, whether the ſame be his majeſty's ſhips of war, or merchants ſhips, and the commanders thereof, ſhall be liable to the ſame rules, viſitations and forfeitures, as to the entering, lading, or diſcharging their ſhips, as ſhips are liable to in this kingdom, by 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11, for preventing frauds in his majeſty's cuſtoms; and the officers for collecting his majeſty's revenue, and inſpecting the plantation trade in the plantations, ſhall have the ſame power for ſearching of ſhips, and taking their entries, and for ſeizing goods prohibited, or for which any duties are payable, as are provided for the officers of the cuſtoms in England, by the ſaid act, as alſo to enter houſes or warehouſes, to ſearch for and ſeize ſuch goods; and all the wharfingers, lighter-men, or other perſons, aſſiſting in the concealment or reſcue of the ſaid goods, or in the hindering the officers in the performance of their duty; and the veſſels employed in the conveyance of ſuch goods ſhall be ſubject to the like penalties, as are provided by the ſame act, in relation to prohibited or uncuſtomed goods in this kingdom; and the like aſſiſtance ſhall be given to the officers, as by the ſaid act is provided for the officers in England, &c. *Ditto, ſect.* 6.

Where any queſtion ſhall ariſe concerning the importation or exportation of any goods, into or out of the ſaid plantations, the proof ſhall lie upon the owner, and the claimer ſhall be reputed the importer or owner. *Ditto, ſ.* 7.

Notwithſtanding the payment of the duties granted by 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. in any of the plantations, none of the goods mentioned in the act ſhall be ſhipped until ſecurity be given, as is required by the ſaid act, to carry the ſame to England, Wales, or Berwick, or to ſome other of his majeſty's plantations, and ſo *toties quoties* as any of the ſaid goods ſhall be brought to be reſhipt, under forfeiture of ſhip and goods. *Ditto, ſect.* 8.

All laws, by-laws, uſages or cuſtoms, which ſhall be in practice in the plantations, repugnant to the before-mentioned laws, or to this act, or any other law to be made in this kingdom, ſo far as ſuch law ſhall relate to the plantations, are void. *Ditto, ſect.* 9.

Where the governor, or officers appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in the plantations, ſhall have ground of ſuſpicion, that the certificate of having given ſecurity in England is falſe, the governor, or officers of the cuſtoms, ſhall take ſecurity there for the diſcharge of the plantation lading in England, Wales, or Berwick; and where there ſhall be cauſe to ſuſpect, that the certificates of having diſcharged her lading of plantation goods in this kingdom is falſe, the governor or officers ſhall not cancel the ſecurity given in the plantation, until they be informed from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, that the certificate is true; and if any perſon ſhall raſe or falſify any cocket, certificate, return, or permit, for any veſſel or goods, or ſhall knowingly make uſe thereof, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit five hundred pounds. *Ditto, ſect.* 10.

The commiſſioners of the treaſury, and the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, may appoint ſuch officers of the cuſtoms in any city, town, river, port, harbour, or creek, of any of the iſlands, tracts of land, and proprieties, as ſhall ſeem needful; alſo upon any ſuits brought in the plantations, upon any law concerning his majeſty's duties, or ſhips or goods forfeited by reaſon of any unlawful importations or exportations, there ſhall not be any jury, but of ſuch only as are natives of England or Ireland, or born in his majeſty's plantations; and upon all ſuch ſuits the offences may be laid in any province, country, or diviſions, of any of the plantations, at the pleaſure of the informer. *Ditto, ſect.* 11.

In all bonds to be taken in the plantations, by 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. the ſureties ſhall be perſons of known reſidence and ability in the plantations, and the conditions of the bond ſhall be within eighteen months after the date, (the

(the danger of the ſeas excepted) to produce certificates of having landed the goods in one of his majeſty's plantations, or in England, Wales, or Berwick, otherwiſe ſuch bond, or copies thereof, atteſted under the hand and ſeal of the governor to whom ſuch bonds were given, ſhall be in force, and allowed of in any court in England, Ireland, or the plantations, as if the original were produced. *Ditto, ſ.* 13.

It ſhall not be lawful to put on ſhore in Ireland any goods of the produce of his majeſty's plantations, unleſs the ſame have been firſt landed in England, Wales, or Berwick, and paid the duties, under penalty of forfeiture of the ſhip and goods. *Ditto, ſect.* 14.

Provided, that if any ſhip ſhall, by ſtreſs of weather, be ſtranded, or by reaſon of leakineſs, or other diſability, ſhall be driven into any port in Ireland, and not able to proceed on her voyage, the ſaid goods may be put on ſhore, but ſhall be delivered into the cuſtody of the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, until the ſaid goods ſhall, at the charge of the owner thereof, be put on board ſome other ſhip, to be carried to ſome port in England, Wales, or Berwick, the officer taking ſecurity for the delivery of the ſame, according to this act. *Ditto, ſect.* 15.

No ſhip ſhall paſs as a ſhip of the built of England, Ireland, Wales, Berwick, Guernſey, Jerſey, or any of his majeſty's plantations in America, ſo as to trade to the plantations, until the perſons claiming property in ſuch ſhip, ſhall regiſter the ſame, viz. if the ſhip belong to any port in England, Ireland, Wales, or Berwick, proof ſhall be made upon oath of one of the owners, before the collector and comptroller of his majeſty's cuſtoms in ſuch port, or if the ſhip belong to any of his majeſty's plantations in America, or to the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey, then the like proof to be made before the governor, with the principal officer of revenue reſiding on ſuch plantation or iſland, in the tenor following, viz.

Jurat A. B. that the ſhip of whereof is at preſent maſter, being a of tons, was built at in the year and that of and of &c. are at preſent owners thereof, and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, or part, or intereſt therein.

Which oath being atteſted by the governor, or cuſtom-officer, ſhall, after having been regiſtered by them, be delivered to the maſter of the ſhip, a duplicate of which regiſter ſhall be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of cuſtoms in London, to be entered in a general regiſter there; with penalty upon any ſhip trading to any of his majeſty's plantations in America, and not having made proof as here directed, that ſhe ſhall be liable to ſuch forfeiture as any foreign ſhip, except prizes condemned in the admiralty. *Ditto, ſ.* 17.

Provided that ſhips taken at ſea by letters of mart, or reprizal, and condemnation thereof made in the admiralty of England, ſhall be ſpecially regiſtered with proof, that the entire property is Engliſh. *Ditto, ſ.* 18.

Nothing in this act ſhall require the regiſtering any fiſher-boats, hoys, lighters, barges, or any open boats, whoſe navigation is confined to the rivers or coaſts of the plantation where they trade, but only of ſuch as croſs the ſeas. *Ditto, ſect.* 19.

No ſhip's name ſhall be changed, without regiſtering ſuch ſhip *de novo*, which is to be done upon any transfer of property to another port, and delivering up the former certificate, under the ſame penalties as before; and, in caſe of any alteration of property in the ſame port, by ſale of ſhares after regiſtering, ſuch ſale ſhall be acknowledged by indorſement on the certificate before two witneſſes. *Ditto, ſect.* 20.

Rice and melaſſes, produced in the plantations, ſhall be reſtrained to be imported into this kingdom, Wales and Berwick, as by the acts 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. and 25 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 5. *ſ.* 12.

Every perſon ſhall import directly from any of her majeſty's plantations in America, in any ſhip that may lawfully trade thither, manned as by law is required, any of the naval ſtores hereafter-mentioned, viz. hemp (for the reſt of the act is expired) ſhall have as a premium for ſuch importation as follows, viz.

For hemp, water-rotted, bright and clean, *per* tun ſix pounds. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 10. *ſ.* 1.

Which premiums ſhall be paid by the commiſſioners, or principal officers of her majeſty's navy, who are to make out bills for the ſame, upon certificate of the chief officers of the cuſtoms in any port of this kingdom, where ſuch ſtores ſhall be imported, ſuch bills to be given within twenty days after the diſcharge of the ſhip, upon a certificate produced to the chief officers of the cuſtoms, under the hand and ſeal of the governor, lieutenant governor, collector of cuſtoms, and naval officer, or two of them, reſiding in the plantations, that the perſon loading the ſame had made oath before them, that the ſtores were of the growth of her majeſty's ſaid plantations, as likewiſe upon oath to be made in England, by the maſters of ſuch ſhips, that the ſame were laden on board within ſome of her majeſty's plantations in America, and that they believe the ſaid ſtores were the produce of the ſaid plantations. *Ditto, ſect.* 2.

Upon importing ſuch ſtores from her majeſty's plantations, the pre-emption of ſuch ſtores ſhall be offered to the commiſſioners of her majeſty's navy; and if, within twenty days after ſuch tender, the commiſſioners ſhall not contract for the ſame, it ſhall be lawful for the importer to diſpoſe of the ſame. *Ditto, ſect.* 5.

Provided that the importation of ſuch ſtores be ſubject to the ſame regulations, in reference to the ſhipping thereof, and ſuch ſecurity given for importing the ſame into England, as the importation of ſugar, tobacco, cotton wool, indico, ginger, fuſtick, and other dyeing wood, from her majeſty's plantations in America, are ſubject to. *Ditto, ſect.* 8.

This act ſhall commence from the firſt of January, 1705, and ſhall continue nine years.

Farther continued by 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 9. for eleven years, and to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament, and farther continued as to hemp, by 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. for ſixteen years, and to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament.

Plantation bonds, given for bringing the enumerated commodities to Great Britain, in caſe there be no proſecution for breach of the conditions, within three years after the dates; or, if judgment be not obtained for her majeſty within two years after the proſecution commenced, ſuch plantation bonds ſhall be void, and delivered up by the officers, on pain of anſwering all demands with treble coſts. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 23.

All prize-goods of the produce of foreign plantations, which ſhall be imported into Great Britain from the plantations in America, upon producing a certificate of the collector, comptroller, or other chief officer, at the port where ſuch goods were embarked in America, ſhall pay ſuch duties only in Great Britain, as in caſe they had been of the produce of the plantations belonging to the crown of Great Britain, any act to the contrary notwithſtanding. 10 *Ann. c.* 22. *ſ.* 2.

Prize cocoa of the produce of foreign plantations, imported into Great Britain, having proper certificates to prove the ſame being prize, ſhall not be liable to any other duties, than what ſuch prize cocoa was liable to pay by her majeſty's declaration made in favour of the captors of prizes, the act 10 *Ann. c.* 12. notwithſtanding. 10 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 113.

All beaver ſkins, and other furs of the product of the Britiſh plantations in America, Aſia, or Africa, ſhall be imported from thence directly into Great Britain, and laid on ſhore there, and not elſewhere, under the penalties, &c. in 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. in relation to ſugars, tobacco, and other enumerated goods. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 24.

It ſhall be lawful for any of his majeſty's ſubjects to carry ſalt from any part of Europe to Penſilvania, in Britiſh ſhips, navigated according to the act 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. of navigation. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 5.

It ſhall be lawful for any of his majeſty's ſubjects to carry ſalt from any part of Europe to New-York, in Britiſh ſhips, navigated according to 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. in the ſame manner as ſalt may be imported from Europe, into New England and Newfoundland, by 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12.

The act 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 5. ſo far as it extends to the making rice of the growth of his majeſty's plantations in America, an enumerated commodity, ſhall be confirmed; except as to ſuch rice as by this act ſhall be permitted, to

be exported from Carolina, to ſuch places, and under ſuch reſtrictions, as are herein after appointed. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 1.

It ſhall be lawful for any of his majeſty's ſubjects, in any ſhip built in Great Britain, or belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects reſiding there, and navigated according to law, that ſhall clear outwards in Great Britain for Carolina, to ſhip rice in the ſaid province, and to carry the ſame to any part of Europe, ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, without carrying it to any other of his majeſty's plantations, or to Great Britain; the maſter, before ſhe clears outwards from Great Britain, taking a licence of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, for the loading and carrying it from Carolina, to ſome parts of Europe, ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, on a certificate from the collector and comptroller of the port, where ſuch licence ſhall be deſired, certifying that bond has been given with ſecurity in one thouſand pounds, if the ſhip be of leſs burden than one hundred tons, and of two thouſand pounds, if of a greater burden; that no tobacco, ſugars, cotton wool, indico, ginger, fuſtick, or other dying wood, molaſſes, tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, maſts, yards, bowſprits, copper ore, beaver-ſkins, or other furs, of the production of any Britiſh plantation in America, ſhall be loaden on board ſuch ſhip at Carolina, or any other of his majeſty's plantations, unleſs for the neceſſary proviſions of the ſhip in her voyage, and that ſuch ſhip ſhall proceed directly with all the rice loaded on board by virtue of ſuch licence, to ſome port of Europe, ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, and there land the rice, and proceed for Great Britain, before ſhe returns to any of the plantations; and if the maſter ſhall not, within four months after his arrival at ſuch port, produce a certificate of having landed the ſaid rice, which certificate is to be under the hand and ſeal of the Britiſh conſul; or, where there is no conſul, of two known Britiſh merchants, reſiding in the port where the rice ſhall be landed; the bond ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſued in any court of record in Great Britain. *Ditto, ſect.* 2.

Before any rice be put on board any ſhip at Carolina, by virtue of the ſaid licence, the maſter ſhall deliver to the collector of the port, where the ſhip is to take in her lading, the ſaid licence, and a certificate of ſuch bond having been given in Great Britain; and ſhall deliver in writing upon oath before the collectors, whether he intends to load any rice purſuant to ſuch licence, and to what place. *Ditto, ſect.* 3.

Before the rice ſhall be ſhipped, the perſon exporting it ſhall make an entry thereof with the collector of the cuſtoms, and the naval officer, and alſo with the comptroller, where there is ſuch an officer, and ſhall take out a cocket of ſuch entry, and ſhall, before the rice be put on board, indorſe on the cocket the quantity intended to be ſhipped, mentioning the marks, numbers and contents of each caſk, and ſhall deliver the cocket to the ſearcher, or other officer appointed for the examining and ſhipping thereof; and, if the quantity ſhall appear to be greater than is indorſed, or if any rice ſhall be put on board any ſhip, or any hoy or veſſel, in order to be put on board, before ſuch entry, and taking out ſuch cocket, and indorſing and delivering of the ſame as aforeſaid, ſuch rice ſhall be forfeited, as alſo the hoy, &c. and the owner of ſuch rice, or other perſon employed in ſhipping it, ſhall alſo forfeit treble the value thereof, &c. And, before ſuch ſhip ſhall depart from Carolina, the maſter ſhall receive the licence from the collector, and naval officer, and comptroller, who ſhall indorſe thereon the marks, number, and contents of each caſk of rice ſhipped; and the collector, and other officers, ſhall make two copies of ſuch licence and indorſement; and the maſter ſhall, before he receives the licence, atteſt the copies which are to be left with the collector and other officers; and the maſter ſhall alſo, on return of the ſhip to Great Britain, deliver the licence to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the collector or comptroller of the port where bond was given; as alſo a certificate ſealed by the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants, at the port where the rice was landed, certifying the caſk ſo landed, and that they verily believe, that no ſugar, tobacco, or other enumerated goods, except rice, have been landed out of ſuch ſhip. *Ditto, ſect.* 5.

The collector and other officers in Carolina ſhall tranſmit one of the copies of the indorſement to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, and thereupon there ſhall be payable to his majeſty ſo much as the half ſubſidy of the rice ſo ſhipped in Carolina ſhall amount to, which would have remained if the rice had been firſt imported into Great Britain, and afterwards re-exported; and, if it be not paid within thirty days after demand, the bond ſhall be forfeited, and the perſons bound therein ſhall pay treble coſts. *Ditto, ſect.* 5.

This act ſhall continue five years, &c. *Ditto, ſect.* 6.

Continued by 8 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 19, until the 29th of September, 1742, and to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament, and to extend that liberty to his majeſty's province of Georgia in America. Farther continued by the 14 and 16 *Geo.* II. till the firſt of June, 1747, and to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament; and farther continued by the 20 *Geo.* II. until the firſt of June, 1754, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

It ſhall be lawful to import into Ireland, from his majeſty's plantations in America, all goods of the growth or manufacture of his majeſty's plantations (except ſugars, tobacco, cotton wool, indico, ginger, ſpecklewood, or Jamaica wood, fuſtick, or other dying wood, rice, molaſſes, beaver-ſkins, and other furs, copper ore, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, and bowſprits) the act 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *cap.* 22. notwithſtanding. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſect.* 1.

Provided that the goods be imported in Britiſh ſhipping, whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Britiſh. *Ditto, ſect.* 2.

The act 9 *Ann. cap.* 12. and 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *cap.* 12. which prohibit the importation of hops into Ireland from Flanders, or other parts (other than from Great Britain) ſhall be in force, as if the act 4 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 15. had never been made. 5 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 9.

No ſugars, paneles, ſyrups, or molaſſes of the growth of America, nor any rum, or ſpirits of America, except of the growth of his majeſty's ſugar colonies, ſhall be imported into Ireland, but ſuch only as ſhall be ſhipped in Great Britain, in ſhips navigated according to law, under the penalty of forfeiting all ſuch ſugar, paneles, ſyrups, or molaſſes, rum, or ſpirits, or the value thereof, together with the ſhip, in which the ſame ſhall be imported, &c. 6 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 13. *ſect.* 4.

If any perſon ſhall aſſiſt in landing ſuch ſugar, &c. in Ireland, or any of his majeſty's plantations in America, or ſhall receive into his houſe or cuſtody any ſuch commodities, knowing the ſame to be imported contrary to this act, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit treble the value of ſuch goods. *Ditto, ſect.* 5.

If any perſon ſhall hinder any Cuſtom-houſe or other officer in the execution of their duty in ſeizing the commodities afore-mentioned, he ſhall forfeit fifty pounds, and be impriſoned three months. And if any officer in Ireland, or the plantations, ſhall connive at the importation of the commodities afore mentioned, he ſhall forfeit fifty pounds, and be incapable of holding office under his majeſty. *Ditto, ſect.* 6.

If any maſter of any ſhip ſhall take in any ſugar, &c. to be imported into Ireland, or any of his majeſty's plantations contrary to this act, ſuch maſter ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds. *Ditto, ſect.* 7.

Upon all ſuits for importation of the commodities aforementioned, the *onus probandi* ſhall lie on the claimer. *Ditto, ſect.* 8.

Nothing herein ſhall reſtrain the importation of ſugars, or the produce of the dominions of Spain or Portugal, from any place, from whence ſugars might lawfully have been imported before the making of this act. *Ditto, ſect.* 13.

This act ſhall continue five years from the 24th of June, 1733, and to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament. *Ditto, ſect.* 14.

Continued ſeven years, and to the end of next ſeſſion by 11 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 18. and further continued for the term of ſeven years, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament by 19 *Geo.* II.

No perſon ſhall caſt out of any ſhip or veſſel, within any haven, road, channel, or river, flowing to any port or town within the king's dominions, any ballaſt, rubbiſh, gravel,

gravel, or other wreck or filth, but only upon the land above the full ſea-mark, upon pain to forfeit five pounds. 34 and 35 *Hen.* VIII. *cap.* 9. *ſect.* 6.

Every ſhip which ſhall be built in Great Britain, and every ſhip built in his majeſty's plantations in America, ſhall, upon her firſt ſetting out, have one complete ſet of ſails, made of cloth manufactured in Great Britain, and in caſe ſuch ſhip ſhall not be fitted aforeſaid, the maſter ſhall forfeit fifty pounds. 9 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 37. *ſect.* 4.

No perſon ſhall make into ſails or tarpawlins any foreign ſail-cloth imported after the 24th of June, 1731, not ſtamped; and, in caſe any perſon ſhall make up foreign ſail-cloth, other than as aforeſaid, ſuch ſails and tarpawlins ſhall be forfeited, and ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit twenty pounds. *Ditto, ſect.* 5.

This act ſhall continue five years from the 24th of June, 1736, and to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament. *Ditto, ſect.* 10.

Continued till the firſt of June, 1747, and until the ſaid next ſeſſion of parliament, by 15 and 16 *Geo.* II.

Confirmed by 19 *Geo.* II. p. 457. And it is there alſo enacted, that from the 24th of June, 1746, every maſter of a veſſel belonging to a ſubject, navigated with, or having any foreign made ſails aboard, ſhall at the time of making his entry at the Cuſtom-houſe of ſuch veſſel, alſo make entry and report upon oath of all foreign made ſails uſed in, or being aboard ſuch veſſel, and before the veſſel ſhall be cleared by the officers of the cuſtoms inwards, where ſhe ſhall diſcharge any of her lading, he ſhall pay the like duties payable by an act of 12 *Ann.*

Every ſuch ſail ſhall be ſtamped at the place where the veſſel ſhall make her entry, in manner herein afore-mentioned; and if the maſter ſhall not make ſuch entry, and pay the duty before the veſſel ſhall be cleared by the officers of the cuſtoms inwards, all ſuch ſails ſhall be forfeited, and the maſter for every ſuch offence ſhall alſo forfeit fifty pounds.

If the maſter after his report on entry made, and before the veſſel is cleared by the officers of the cuſtoms, ſhall declare his intention of not chuſing to pay the duty, and ſhall deliver ſuch ſails to the officer of the port where he makes his entry, in ſuch caſe the ſails are to be forfeited, and the maſter ſhall not be liable to pay the duty or penalty of fifty pounds.

Nothing herein contained ſhall make captains or maſters of veſſels coming from the Eaſt-Indies liable to the duties or forfeitures aforeſaid, for ſuch veſſels being navigated with, or having foreign made ſails on board, which ſhall *bona fide* be brought by them from thence.

The commiſſioners of the cuſtoms of Great Britain, by the 24th of June, 1746, ſhall provide a ſufficient number of ſtamps of eight inches diameter for the ſtamping of foreign made ſails, &c.

And as doubts have ariſen about the meaning of a clauſe in the ſaid act of 9 *Geo.* II. by which veſſels are obliged at their firſt ſetting out, or being firſt navigated at ſea, to be furniſhed with one full and complete ſet of ſails, made of ſail-cloth manufactured in Great Britain: to obviate ſuch doubts for the future, it is enacted, that from the 24th of June, 1746, every veſſel which ſhall be built in his majeſty's plantations in America, upon her being firſt navigated, ſhall be furniſhed with one complete ſet of ſails (*bona fide* belonging to ſuch veſſel, &c.) made of ſail-cloth manufactured in Great Britain, under penalty for every ſuch default of fifty pounds, to be forfeited by the maſter.

This act ſhall continue and be in force for ſeven years, from the 24th of June, 1746, and from thence to the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

If any ſubject of this realm ſhall ſhip any ſalt or rock ſalt, that hath paid the duty, to convey it by ſea to any part of England, and the veſſel periſh at ſea, or be taken by enemies with ſuch ſalt on board, ſuch perſon ſhall, upon proof made at the quarter ſeſſions for the county, &c. wherein he doth inhabit, of the loſs of ſuch ſalt, receive from the ſeſſions a certificate, and upon producing the certificate to any officers of the duty, they are to let ſuch perſons buy the like quantity of ſalt without paying any duty. 5 and 6 *Will.* and *Mar. cap.* 7. *ſect.* 21.

Where any ſhip laden with ſalt ſhall be found hovering on the coaſts, not proceeding on her voyage, it ſhall be lawful for the officers of the cuſtoms, or the duty on ſalt, to go on board ſuch veſſels, and compel them to come into port, and to continue on board until the ſalt be unladen; or the ſhip ſhall depart from the port; and if the perſons on board any ſhip importing ſalt, ſhall neglect to enter or unlade ſuch ſalt twenty days after the ſame is come into port, or within that time to depart and proceed on their voyage, unleſs permitted by the chief officer of the cuſtoms to make a longer ſtay, all the ſalt on board ſuch ſhip ſhall be forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the maſter. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *cap.* 21. *ſect.* 7.

No foreign ſalt ſhall be imported in any ſhip of leſs burden than twenty tons, and in bulk only (except for the proviſions of the ſhips) upon pain of forfeiting the ſalt, and double the value to be recovered of the perſon importing. *Ditto, ſect.* 8.

If any ſhip laden with ſalt, to be carried beyond the ſeas, ſhall come into any place in England, it ſhall be lawful for the officer of ſalt to enter ſuch ſhip, and there continue till the ſhip unlade her cargo, or return to ſea under the penalty of twenty pounds, to be recovered of the maſter, who ſhall refuſe ſuch officer to come on board; and if any perſon ſhall unlade any of the ſalt before entry or re-payment of the duty, the whole cargo of ſalt ſhall be forfeited. *Ditto, ſect.* 12.

Where any ſalt ſhall be laid on board any ſhip, either to be tranſported beyond the ſeas, or carried coaſtwiſe, the officer of the cuſtoms ſhall in the cockets, (which ſhall be alſo ſigned by the officer for the duty on ſalt, and given without fee) expreſs the quantity of ſalt; and in caſe ſuch ſhip ſhall come into any port in England, it ſhall be lawful for the officers of the cuſtoms, or officers for the ſaid duties, to go on board ſuch ſhip, and demand a ſight of ſuch cocket, and in caſe he have cauſe to ſuſpect that there is not ſo much ſalt on board as the quantity expreſſed in ſuch cocket (and ſhall make affidavit thereof before the collector, or cuſtomer of the port) to weigh all the ſalt remaining on board; and in caſe there ſhall appear not to be ſo much as the quantity expreſſed in ſuch cocket, (making allowance for the waſte, and for ſalt delivered at another port, and indorſed in the permit) the ſalt remaining ſhall be forfeited. *Ditto, ſect.* 13.

No ſalt of the produce or manufacture of England, Wales, Berwick, Scotland, or Ireland, nor any other ſalt coming from Ireland, Scotland, or the Iſle of Man, ſhall after June 1, 1704, be imported into England, Wales, or Berwick, upon pain that all the ſalt ſo imported, &c. ſhall be forfeited, and that the ſhip ſhall alſo be forfeited; and every perſon that ſhall take any ſalt out of ſuch ſhip, or carry the ſame on ſhore, or convey the ſame from the ſhore, or be aſſiſting therein, ſhall forfeit twenty pounds, or ſuffer ſix months impriſonment. 1 and 3 *Ann. cap.* 14. *ſect.* 1.

It ſhall be lawful for any of the officers for the duties upon ſalt, within two months after the landing any ſuch ſalt, to ſeize the ſalt, and alſo the ſhip; and in caſe the owner of ſuch ſalt or ſhip ſhall not within twenty days claim the ſalt and ſhip, and give ſecurity to anſwer the value, the ſalt and ſhip ſhall be ſold. *Ditto, ſect.* 2.

Nothing in this act ſhall extend to any ſalt ſhipped to be carried coaſtwiſe, by certificate, from one port to another, according to former acts. *Ditto, ſect.* 3.

In caſe where ſalt ſhall have been ſhipped to be exported, and the ſhip ſhall by ſtreſs of weather, enemies, or other neceſſities, be forced into any port in England, it ſhall be lawful for the owner of ſuch ſalt, or maſter of ſuch ſhip, within twenty days, to reland the ſalt, ſo as due entry may be made, and the duties again paid down for the whole quantity that was entered to be exported before any part thereof be relanded. *Ditto, ſect.* 4.

Where any ſhip ſhall come into any port of England from Ireland, or other foreign part, having on board any ſalt which was taken in only for the proviſion of the ſhip, or for curing of fiſh, it ſhall be lawful to land the ſalt, ſo as entry be made thereof within ten days after coming into port, and the duties paid down or ſecured before any part thereof be landed. *Ditto, ſect.* 6.

Where any ſalt (the duties whereof ſhall have been paid or ſecured) ſhall be ſhipped, and periſh by the ſinking of

ſhip, before going out of port, and before the exporter ſhall be intitled to a drawback; the exporter or proprietor of the ſalt ſhall, upon proof made before the juſtices at next quarter ſeſſions, receive a certificate of ſuch proof, and upon producing it to any collector of the duties, he ſhall let the proprietor buy the like quantity of ſalt without paying duty. *Ditto, ſect.* 10.

Or if any ſalt is loſt at ſea by ſtormy weather, or by being thrown overboard for the ſhip's preſervation, the owner thereof ſhall upon proof by the oaths of two (whereof the maſter or mate of the veſſel to be one) receive a certificate as above, and be allowed to buy the like quantity of ſalt without duty. *Ditto, ſect.* 18.

If any maſter of ſhip who ſhall import into Great Britain any ſalt taken in for the proviſions of the ſhip, or for curing of fiſh, ſhall not enter and pay, or ſecure the duty for the ſame, within ten days after coming into any port, and before the ſame be landed, the ſalt ſo imported ſhall be forfeited, and the maſter or owner ſhall likewiſe forfeit double the value. 5 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 18. *ſect.* 18.

Every maſter of any veſſel, who ſhall tranſport any foreign ſalt from Scotland, or any of the iſlands thereto belonging to England, or from one port to another in Great Britain, ſhall, before landing or delivering ſuch ſalt, deliver to the officers for collecting the duties on ſalt, a particular of the quantity, ſigned by the officers of ſalt and cuſtoms for the port whence come, and the maſter, his mate, or boatſwain, ſhall make oath before the commiſſioners for the ſalt duties, or their officers, that to his knowledge there hath not been taken into the veſſel any ſalt ſince he came from ſuch port: and if ſuch veſſel be to deliver part of her ſalt at one port, and part at another, the officers of the ſalt duties, and of the cuſtoms, where ſuch ſalt ſhall be delivered, ſhall certify on the back of the cocket or tranſire, or elſe by certificate, what quantity of the ſalt hath been delivered, on penalty of double the value of the ſalt otherwiſe delivered, and ten ſhillings *per* buſhel. *Ditto, ſect.* 20.

It ſhall be lawful for the ſalt officers at any unlading port to go on board ſuch veſſel, before the delivery, and demand a ſight of the cocket, and to weigh the ſalt upon the unlading; and if the ſalt be found to be more in weight than what is contained in the cocket, the ſurpluſage ſhall be forfeited, and if the maſter refuſes to ſhew the cocket, the officer may ſeize the ſalt, and detain it till the cocket be produced; and if it be not produced in four days, the ſalt ſhall be forfeited. *Ditto, ſect.* 21.

The officers of the cuſtoms, or of the duties on ſalt, may go on board any veſſel to ſearch if there be any ſalt on board, and may ſeize the ſame, if it be found on board any other veſſel than that in which ſuch ſalt was imported, unleſs it hath been duly entered, or the duties paid, or ſecured; and all ſuch ſalt ſhall be forfeited, or the value thereof to be recovered of the maſter or owner of ſuch veſſel, who ſhall likewiſe be liable to all other penalties, as if the ſame had been landed, without entry or payment of the duties; and every perſon who ſhall hinder any officer in going on board any veſſel and ſearching, ſhall forfeit forty pounds. *Ditto, ſect.* 22.

If any foreign ſalt ſhall be put on ſhore before entry or the duty paid, or without a warrant, the perſon landing the ſame, or conveying it from the ſhore, or aſſiſting therein, ſhall, over and above the penalties already given, forfeit one hundred pounds. *Ditto, ſect.* 24.

On reſhipping any ſalt, Britiſh or foreign, from any boat into any ſhip, and before any diſpatches for the ſalt ſo reſhipped be granted, the maſter, &c. that comes along with the ſalt to be ſhipped on board another veſſel, ſhall make oath before the ſalt officer, that all the ſalt he took in is truly reſhipped, and that there was no ſalt added to it, or taken from it, to the beſt of his knowledge, on penalty of forfeiting double the value of the ſalt, that ſhall be otherwiſe reſhipped, and alſo ten ſhillings *per* buſhel. *Ditto, ſect.* 25.

The throwing of ſilk is not a manufacture within the intention of the act of navigation, 12 *Car.* II. *cap.* 18. and no thrown ſilk of the growth or production of Turkey, Perſia, Eaſt-India, or China, or of any other country or place (except only ſuch thrown ſilk as ſhall be of the growth, or production of Italy, Sicily, or of the kingdom of Naples, and which ſhall be imported in ſuch ſhips, and navigated in ſuch manner as in the act directed, and brought from ſome of the ports of thoſe countries, whereof the ſame is of the growth or production, and which ſhall come directly by ſea, and not otherwiſe) ſhall be imported into England, &c. upon the forfeiture of all thrown ſilk imported contrary to this act. 2 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *cap.* 9. *ſect.* 2.

The treaſurer, comptroller, ſurveyor, clerk of the acts, and commiſſioners of the navy, or one of them, on oath of one witneſs, that his majeſty's ſtores, &c. are conveyed into any ſhip, being at anchor, and not ready to ſail that tide, within any of the roads, harbours, &c. in his majeſty's dominions, may authoriſe any perſons by their warrant, (in which the quantity and quality of ſuch goods ſhall be ſpecified) in the day-time to go on board ſuch ſhip, &c. and in caſe of reſiſtance to break open the hatches, &c. and ſearch for ſuch goods, &c. and ſeize the ſame for his majeſty's uſe, unleſs the ſaid officers and commiſſioners ſhall find, upon hearing of the matter, that they were unjuſtly ſeized, and thereupon reſtore them to the party. 1 *Geo.* I. *cap.* 25. *ſect.* 5.

In caſe the maſter of any ſhip ſhall bring into this realm from Ireland, the Iſle of Man, Jerſey, Guernſey, or Scilly, or any of the foreign plantations, any rogue vagabond, or beggar, or any perſon likely to live by begging, being a native of any of the ſaid iſlands or plantations, and the perſon ſo brought over ſhall be apprehended wandering and begging, or otherwiſe miſordering himſelf as aforeſaid, ſuch maſter, &c. ſhall forfeit five pounds for every rogue, &c. over and above ſuch money as ſhall be neceſſary to defray the charges that any conſtable ſhall be put to, by means of apprehending and re-conveying the perſon; and the conſtable or other officer of any pariſh where any perſon ſo brought over ſhall be found wandering and begging, or miſordering himſelf, may cauſe him to be apprehended, and openly whipped, and after put on board any ſhip, to be ſet on ſhore in the place from whence he was brought, paying for the paſſage back of ſuch perſon ſuch rate as the juſtices at their quarter-ſeſſions ſhall appoint; and in caſe ſuch conſtable, &c. ſhall upon oath make appear before any juſtice of what expence he hath been put to upon ſuch occaſion, it ſhall be lawful for ſuch juſtice by order to direct the payment of the money ſo expended, as alſo of the penalty of five pounds; and in caſe ſuch maſter, &c. of the ſhip ſhall neglect to pay the monies upon demand, it ſhall be lawful for ſuch juſtice by warrant to levy the ſame by diſtreſs, and ſale of the ſhip, or any goods within the ſame, while remaining within the juriſdiction of ſuch juſtice; and if the maſter or the ſhip ſhall be gone out of the juriſdiction, &c. the ſaid order of the juſtice may be removed by *certiorari* into the queen's bench, and being filed, the judges are required to direct proceſs for arreſting the ſhip, and detaining the ſame, until the monies mentioned in ſuch order, together with the charges of ſuch proceſs be ſatisfied, or otherwiſe to award proceſs for levying the money by *capias*, *fieri facias*, or *elegit*, againſt the maſter or owners of the ſhip, as the court ſhall think proper. 12 *Ann. cap.* 23. *ſtat.* 2. *ſect.* 24.

Provided that in caſe ſuch maſter or owners ſhall in the ſaid court ſhew any probable ground of grievance by the ſaid order, they may be admitted to traverſe the ſame, giving ſecurity in the penalty of fifty pounds, to anſwer the coſts of ſuch traverſe, in caſe it be determined againſt them. *Ditto, ſect* 25.

All maſters of ſhips bound for Ireland, the iſles of Man, Jerſey, Guernſey, or Scilly, ſhall upon warrant to them directed of a juſtice of peace of the county, &c. where ſuch ſhip ſhall lie, take on board ſuch vagrants as ſhall be named in the warrant, and convey them to ſuch place in Ireland, the Iſle of Man, Jerſey, Guernſey, or Scilly, as ſuch ſhall be bound to, or arrive at; and for the charges thereof, the conſtable, or the perſon who ſerves him with the warrant ſhall pay him ſuch rate as the quarter-ſeſſions ſhall appoint, and ſuch maſter ſhall on the back of the warrant ſign a receipt for the money, and alſo for the vagrants; which warrant ſhall be produced to the juſtice who ſigned the ſame, and upon his allowance thereof under his hand, the money ſhall be repaid by the county; and every maſter of ſuch ſhip, neglecting

neglecting to receive or tranſport ſuch vagrants, or to endorſe ſuch receipt, ſhall forfeit five pounds, to be levied by diſtreſs, or ſale of the ſhip, or any goods within the ſame, by warrant of any juſtice of peace for the ſame county, &c. *Ditto*, *f.* 26.

Confirmed by 13 *Geo.* II. *pag.* 478, and 479.

Maſters of ſhips knowingly importing foreign cut whalefins, or whale-bone, ſhall forfeit fifty pounds, &c. 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 12. *f.* 6.

No perſon ſhall export out of England, Wales, or Berwick, or from the iſles of Jerſey, or Guernſey, with Sark and Alderney, (being under the government of Guernſey) or out of Ireland, into any parts out of the dominions aforeſaid, any ſheep, or wool, of the breed or growth of England, or Ireland, or dominion aforeſaid, or any woolfels, mortlings, or ſhorlings, or any yarn of wool, or any wool-flocks, fuller's earth, or fulling clay; nor ſhall pack or load upon any horſe, cart or carriage, or lay on board any ſhip or veſſel any ſuch ſheep, wool, &c. to the intent to export the ſame. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *f.* 2.

No wool, woolfels, mortlings, ſhorlings, yarn of wool, wool-flocks, fullers earth, or fulling clay, ſhall be exported out of England, Wales, or Ireland, unto the iſles of Jerſey, or Guernſey, Sark, or Alderney, except as in this act ſhall be appointed. *Ditto*, *f.* 3.

All offences aforeſaid ſhall be ſubject to the penalties following, viz. the ſheep, wools, &c. ſhall be forfeited, and every offender ſhall forfeit twenty ſhillings for every ſheep, and three ſhillings for every pound of wool, woolfels, mortlings, ſhorlings, yarn of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, or fulling clay, and the owners of the veſſel knowing ſuch offence ſhall forfeit all their intereſt in the ſhips, and the maſter and mariners knowing ſuch offence, and willingly aſſiſting thereunto, ſhall forfeit all their goods, and have impriſonment three months. *Ditto*, *f.* 4.

If any perſon ſhall tranſport any ſheep, wool, &c. contrary to this act, and be thereof convicted, he ſhall be diſabled to require any debt or account of any factor or others, for any debt or eſtate, belonging to ſuch offender. *Ditto*, *ſect.* 5.

Provided that every offence contrary to this act may be inquired of, heard and determined in the country, where ſuch ſheep, wool, &c. ſhall be packed or laid on board, or in the county where ſuch offenders ſhall be apprehended for ſuch offence. *Ditto*, *f.* 6.

No perſon ſhall be impeached for any offence aforeſaid, unleſs ſuch perſon be proſecuted, within one year next enſuing ſuch offence. *Ditto*, *f.* 7.

It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to ſeize to his own uſe, and to the uſe of the king, all ſuch ſheep, wool, &c. as he ſhall diſcover to be laid on board, in any ſhip or boat, or to be laid on ſhore near the ſea or any navigable river, to the intent to be exported; and ſuch perſon as ſhall ſeize any ſuch ſheep, wool, &c. ſhall have the moiety thereof. *Ditto*, *f.* 8.

Such perſon as ſhall make any ſuch ſeizure, ſhall not be admitted to give evidence upon his oath, againſt any perſon indicted by virtue of this act. *Ditto*, *f.* 9.

Every ſhip or boat, whereof any alien born, or any natural born ſubject, not inhabiting within the realm, ſhall be owner or part-owner, and wherein any ſheep, wool, &c. ſhall be ſhipped contrary to this act, ſhall be forfeited to the king. *Ditto*, *f.* 10.

This act ſhall not extend to any lamb-ſkin ready dreſſed fit for linings. *Ditto*, *f.* 11.

This act ſhall not extend to the tranſporting of any ſuch woolfels, or pelts with wool upon them, or to any beds ſtuffed with flocks, which ſhall be employed in any ſhip for neceſſary uſe, about the ordnance, or other thing, or for the uſe of the perſons in ſuch ſhip, and which ſhall not be ſold in foreign parts; nor to the exporting of any wether ſheep, or of the wool growing upon any ſuch, for the food of the company or paſſengers. *Ditto*, *f.* 12.

This act ſhall not extend to any ſuch wool to be exported from the port of Southampton, unto the iſles of Jerſey and Guernſey, for the uſe of the inhabitants of thoſe iſles, ſo as ſuch perſons as ſhall ſhip ſuch wool do, before the ſhipping, deliver unto the cuſtomer, comptroller, ſurveyor, or ſearcher, of the port of Southampton, a writing under the ſeal of the governor of the ſame iſles, which ſhall expreſs that the party is authorized to export ſo much wool, expreſſing the number of the tods to the ſame iſles, to be uſed in one of the ſame iſles, or in ſome of the members of the ſame, and that ſuch party hath entered into bond to his majeſty's uſe, for the lading the wool in that iſle. And the quantity of wool to be exported into the ſaid iſles in one year, to begin from the firſt of January, may not exceed the quantity here-under ſpecified, viz. to Jerſey two thouſand tods of unkembed wool, and to Guernſey one thouſand tods of unkembed wool, and to Alderney two hundred tods, and to Sark one hundred tods, every Tod not exceeding thirty-two pounds. *Ditto*, *f.* 13.

Confirmed by 13 *Car.* II. *c.* 14. And granted that one thouſand tods for Guernſey, two thouſand for Jerſey, two hundred for Alderney, and one hundred for Sark, may be exported more than by this act, by that of 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 32. *f.* 14.

No wool ſhall be ſhipped from Ireland, but from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kingſale, Cork, and Drogheda. *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat. c.* 32. *f.* 6.

If any owner of any ſhip, or any maſter or mariner, knowing of the exportation of any ſheeps-wool, woolfels, mortlings, ſhorlings, yarn of wool, wool-flocks, fullers-earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, contrary to the acts, ſhall within three months after the knowledge thereof, or after his return into England, Ireland, Berwick, or Wales, give the firſt information before any of the barons of the exchequer in England or Ireland, or before the head-officer of any port where he ſhall firſt arrive, upon oath, of the number and quantity of ſuch ſheeps-wool, woolfels, &c. ſo exported, and by whom, where, and in what ſhip, and ſhall be ready, upon warning by proceſs, to juſtify the ſame; ſuch owners, maſter, or mariners, ſhall not be liable to any of the penalties. *Ditto*, *f.* 8.

Continued indefinitely by 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. which is continued indefinitely, by 9 *Will.* III. *cap.* 40.

The act 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 32. ſhall continue.

It ſhall be lawful for any perſon from the places in the ſaid act limited, to import into England from Ireland, any quantities of wool, to the ports hereafter mentioned, viz. Whitehaven, Liverpool, Cheſter, Briſtol, Bridgewater, Minehead, Barnſtable, and Biddeford, and to no other. *Ditto*, *f.* 5.

All certificates given for the landing of wool from Ireland, or from one port to another in England, ſhall be written upon paper, not parchment, and the quantities ſhall not be obliterated or interlined. *Ditto*, *ſect.* 7.

No ſhip ſhall export any wool, or any other of the commodities aforeſaid, under forfeiture of the commodities and veſſel, and treble the value, with treble coſts; and the inhabitants of the hundred, port or place exempt, next adjoining to the ſea coaſts, out of, or through which, any wool, or other of the commodities aforeſaid, ſhall be ſo exported, ſhall forfeit twenty pounds, if the wool be under the value of ten pounds, but if it be of greater value, then treble the value thereof ſo exported, as alſo treble coſts. *Ditto*, *ſect.* 8.

All perſons who ſhall be aſſiſting in carrying or exporting any of the ſaid commodities out of this realm (being convicted) ſhall ſuffer three years impriſonment, and the owner of the wool, &c. and every perſon aſſiſting in carrying or exporting of them, ſhall anſwer treble the value of ſuch penalties, which ſuch inhabitants ſhall be ſo charged with, as alſo treble coſts. *Ditto*, *ſect.* 10.

For preventing the exportation of wool, &c. the commiſſioners for executing the office of lord high admiral, ſhall appoint one ſhip of the fifth rate, and two ſhips of the ſixth rate, and four armed ſloops, conſtantly to cruize off the North Foreland to the Iſle of Wight, with orders for ſeizing all veſſels which ſhall export wool, &c. *Ditto*, *ſect.* 14.

Continued indefinitely by 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 40.

No perſon ſhall export from Ireland into any places, other than the parts within England or Wales, any wool, woolfels, ſhorlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay, or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth ſerges, ſhalloons, or any other drapery ſtuffs or woollen manufactures, made up or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks, or ſhall load upon any horſe or carriage,

riage, or lay on board any ſhip in any place of Ireland, any ſuch wool, &c. to the intent to export the ſame, except as aforeſaid. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſect.* 1.

All offenders aforeſaid ſhall be ſubject to the penalties following, viz. the wool, &c. ſhall be forfeited, and the offenders ſhall forfeit five hundred pounds; and every ſhip or bottom, wherein any of the ſaid commodities ſhall be ſhipped, or laid on board, ſhall be forfeited; and the maſter and mariners, or any porters, or other perſons, knowing ſuch offence and aſſiſting therein, ſhall forfeit forty pounds. *Ditto, ſect.* 2.

It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to ſeize and convey to his majeſty's next warehouſe, all ſuch wool, &c. as he ſhall diſcover to be laid on board any ſhips; and it ſhall be lawful for any perſon to ſeize every ſuch ſhip, wherein any of the ſaid commodities ſhall be ſhipped contrary to this act. *Ditto, ſect.* 4.

For every ſhip which ſhall ſail from Ireland, in order to export any of the commodities aforeſaid to this kingdom, bond ſhall be given by two known inhabitants of or near the place, to the chief officers of the cuſtoms belonging to the port in Ireland, in double the value of the goods, before the ſhip ſhall be permitted to lade any of the commodities aforeſaid, with condition, that if the ſhip ſhall take on board any of the ſaid goods in Ireland, all the ſaid goods ſhall be brought by the ſame ſhip to ſome port in England or Wales, and ſhall there unlade the ſame, and pay the duties thereof (the danger of the ſeas excepted) and every ſhip which ſhall lade any of the ſaid goods, until ſuch bond be given, ſhall be forfeited as aforeſaid. *Ditto, ſect.* 5.

All ſuch goods, exported from Ireland into this kingdom or Wales, ſhall be ſhipped off at the ports of Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kingſale, Cork, and Drogheda, and from no other port; nor ſhall be imported into any parts of England or Wales, other than Biddeford, Barnſtable, Minehead, Bridgwater, Briſtol, Milford-Haven, Cheſter, and Liverpoole. *Ditto, ſ.* 10.

See 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 6. and 7. and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 5.

It ſhall be lawful to import from any of the aforeſaid ports in Ireland, any wool, &c. into ſuch ports of this kingdom as aforeſaid, ſo as notice be firſt given to the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms in this kingdom, or to the cuſtomer or collector, in the ports to which the ſame is to be brought, of the quantity, quality, and package, with the marks and numbers thereof, the name of the ſhip and maſter, and the port to which they are to be imported, and ſo as bond be firſt entered into, to the uſe of his majeſty, with one or more ſureties, in treble the value of the goods, that the ſame ſhall (dangers of the ſeas excepted) be landed accordingly, and ſo as a licence be firſt taken, under the hands of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or from the cuſtomer or collector, where ſuch bond is given for the landing thereof, which licence they are to grant without fee. *Ditto, ſ.* 14.

All wool, ſhips, or boats, ſo ſeized, ſhall be forfeited, and ſuch wool ſhall be lodged in the king's warehouſe, in ſuch port where it ſhall be ſeized, or into which it ſhall be brought, and, being condemned, ſhall be expoſed publickly to ſale after twenty-one days notice being given in writing at the cuſtomhouſe of the port, and on the Royal-Exchange of London, by inch of candle to the beſt bidder; and all ſhips that ſhall be condemned as aforeſaid, ſhall be expoſed to ſale in like manner, &c. *Ditto, ſ.* 17.

No wool, &c. of the product or manufacture of any of the Engliſh plantations in America, ſhall be laden on board any ſhip, in any of the Engliſh plantations; as likewiſe no ſuch wool, &c. being of the product or manufacture of the Engliſh plantations in America, ſhall be loaden upon any horſe or carriage, to the intent to be exported, or conveyed out of the ſaid plantations to any other of the ſaid plantations, or to any other place, upon the like penalties upon every offender, as are provided by this act for the like offences in Ireland, &c. *Ditto, ſ.* 19.

Perſons who ſhall be guilty of any offence, contrary to any act of parliament made for preventing the exportation of wool, may be proſecuted in any of his majeſty's courts at Weſtminſter, and a capias ſhall iſſue the firſt proceſs, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty, and ſuch perſons ſhall give good bail, by natural born ſubjects or denizens, to appear in the court at the return of ſuch writ, and ſhall likewiſe give bail by ſuch perſons as aforeſaid, in court, to anſwer the penalties in caſe they be convict, or to yield their bodies to priſon. *Ditto, ſ.* 20.

All actions and informations which ſhall be proſecuted, by virtue of any act, for preventing the exportation of wool, or woollen manufactures from Ireland, ſhall be tried in any of the four courts at Dublin, by a jury of freeholders, to be ſummoned out of any other county, than that wherein the fact was committed; and the firſt three who have been aſſiſting in exporting of wool or woollen commodities, who ſhall inform any juſtice of peace thereof, whereby the puniſhment may be inflicted, ſuch diſcoverer (not being the owner or part-owner thereof) ſhall not ſuffer any of the puniſhment. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 5.

If any perſon ſhall be in priſon for want of bail, for unlawful exportation of wool or woolfels, and ſhall refuſe to appear, or plead to a declaration or information delivered to ſuch perſon, or to the goaler, or turnkey, by the ſpace of one term, judgment ſhall be entered againſt him by default; and, in caſe judgment be obtained againſt any ſuch perſon, and he ſhall not pay the ſum recovered within three months after entering up of ſuch judgment, the court ſhall, by order, cauſe ſuch offender to be tranſported in the ſame manner as felons, for ſeven years; and, if ſuch offender ſhall return into Great Britain or Ireland, before the expiration of the ſeven years, he ſhall ſuffer as a felon without benefit of the clergy. 4 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 6.

The like proviſion made for preventing the exportation of wool, in 1 *Will.* and *Mar. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 32. is directed to extend to woolfels, mortlings, ſhorlings, yarn of wool, wool flocks, fuller's earth, fulling clay, and tobacco pipe clay, carried coaſtwiſe. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 14.

All ſuch wool, and other the commodities mentioned in 10 and 11 *Will.* 3. *c.* 10. which ſhall be carried or laid on ſhore near the ſea, or any navigable river, to the intent to be exported out of Ireland, contrary to that act, ſhall be forfeited, and the offender ſhall be liable to the penalties, as perſons by that act are ſubject to for exporting of wool, &c. *Ditto, ſ.* 21.

The commiſſioners for exccuting the office of lord high admiral of Great Britain, ſhall appoint three ſhips of the ſixth rate, and eight, or more, armed ſloops, conſtantly to cruize on the coaſt of Great Britain and Ireland, with orders for ſeizing all veſſels in which any worſted, bay or woollen yarn, or any drapery ſtuffs, or woollen manufactures, made up or mixed with wool or wool-flocks, ſhall be exported or laden from Ireland into foreign parts, &c. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1.

See 10 and 11 *Wm.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 16.

It ſhall be lawful for the commander of every ſuch ſhip and ſloop, within the limits of the ſtation aſſigned to ſuch ſhip or ſloop, to enter and ſearch any veſſel; and, if any of the ſaid prohibited commodities be found therein, and the maſter of ſuch veſſel ſhall not immediately produce a cocket or warrant, licenſing the exportation thereof, to ſeize ſuch veſſel, and to carry the ſame with the crew and cargo into any port in Great Britain or Ireland. *Ditto, ſect.* 2.

Every ſuch veſſel, and all the ſaid prohibited commodities found therein, ſhall be forfeited, and the ſaid prohibited commodities ſhall be lodged in the king's warehouſe, in ſuch port into which ſuch veſſel ſhall be carried, until it be condemned; and, being condemned, ſhall be expoſed to ſale after twenty-one days notice in writing, affixed upon the cuſtomhouſe of the port, by inch of candle, to the beſt bidder; and every ſuch veſſel ſhall, after condemnation, be expoſed to ſale in like manner, &c. *Ditto, ſ.* 3.

This act ſhall not make void any other penalties inflicted by any former law upon the exportation of wool and woollen manufactures. *Ditto, ſ.* 7.

All wool, and woolen or bay yarn, woolfels, ſhorlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, yarn, cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth ſerges, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, and other draperies and woollen manufactures, or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks, which ſhall be exported from Ireland after the firſt of May 1740, into the ports of this kingdom hereafter mentioned, ſhall be ſhipped off, and entered at the ports of Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kingſale,

Kingſale, Cork, Drogheda, New Roſs, Newry, Wexford, Wicklow, Sligoe, Limeric, Galway, and Dundalk, in the ſaid kingdom of Ireland, and from no other port or place; nor ſhall the ſame be imported into any parts of this kingdom, other than the ports of Biddeford, Barnſtaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Milford-Haven, Cheſter, and Liverpoole, in the ſame manner as if the ſaid ports of Newry, Wexford, Wicklow, Sligoe, Limeric, Galway, and Dundalk, had been particularly named for exportation of the ſaid goods, in the act 10 and 11 *Will.* III. intitled, An Act to prevent the Exportation of Wool out of the kingdom of Ireland and England, and for other purpoſes therein mentioned. 12 *Geo.* II. *p.* 438.

See the ſaid act, *ſect.* 10.

By this act wool, &c. under the reſtriction of the above act, may be exported from any port of Ireland into any port of England.

By 26 *Geo.* II. after the twenty-fifth of December, 1739, no wool, or any of the ſaid goods, ſhall be loaden on board any ſhip or boat in Ireland, or imported from thence into this kingdom, but in ſuch veſſels or boats as ſhall be of the built of Great Britain or Ireland, and wholly owned and manned by the ſubjects of this kingdom or Ireland, and duly regiſtered in the manner hereafter mentioned, under the penalty of the forfeiture of the ſaid goods, or the value thereof, and of the veſſel or boat in which the ſame ſhall be laden, together with all her ammunition and furniture.

After the twenty-fifth of December, 1739, no ſhip or veſſel ſhall paſs as a ſhip of the built of Great Britain or Ireland, ſo as to be qualified to take on board in any of the ports of Ireland, appointed for that purpoſe, any wool, or other the ſpecies before-mentioned, in order to import the ſame into the ports of Great Britain, in this act appointed for that purpoſe, until the perſons claiming property in the ſaid ſhip ſhall regiſter the ſame as followeth, viz. proof ſhall be made upon the oath (or affirmation, in caſe the perſon be a Quaker) of one or more of the owners, before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, in ſuch port of Great Britain or Ireland reſpectively, to which ſuch veſſel ſhall belong; which oath or affirmation the ſaid officers are authorized to adminiſter in the tenor following:

I A. B. do make oath (or being a Quaker, do ſolemnly affirm) that the ſhip of whereof is at preſent maſter being built of tons, was built at in the year and that of and of are at preſent owners thereof; and that no foreigner directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, part, or intereſt therein.

A certificate of which oath or affirmation, atteſted by the collector or comptroller of the cuſtoms, who adminiſtered the ſame, under their hands and ſeals, ſhall, after having been regiſtered by them, be delivered to the maſter of the ſhip for the ſecurity of her navigation, a duplicate of which regiſter ſhall be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in the port of London, to be entered in the general regiſter, to be there kept by them for this purpoſe.

No ſhip's name regiſtered ſhall be afterwards changed, without regiſtering ſuch ſhip again (which is likewiſe to be done upon any transfer of property to another port) and delivering up the former certificate to be cancelled, under the ſame penalties, and in the like method as is before directed: and in caſe of any alteration of property, in the ſame port, by the ſale of one or more ſhares in any ſhip, after regiſtering thereof, ſuch ſale ſhall always be acknowledged by indorſement on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes, to prove that the entire property of ſuch ſhip remains to ſome of the ſubjects of Great Britain or Ireland, if any diſpute ariſes concerning the ſame.

After the ſaid twenty-fifth of December, 1739, no coverlids, waddings, or other manufactures, or pretended manufactures, made of wool, ſlightly ſtitched or put together, ſo as the ſame may be reduced to, and made uſe of as wool again, or mattreſſes, or beds ſtuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing, ſhall be exported from Great Britain or Ireland, to parts beyond the ſeas, under the like penalties, which are by law inflicted on perſons concerned in the exportation of wool.

No wool, woolfels, mortlings, ſhorlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay, or woollen yarn, ſhall be packed up in Great Britain or Ireland, in any box, cheſt, or other package, but in packs, or truſſes of leather or canvas, commonly called packcloth; and all ſuch packs or truſſes ſhall be marked on the outſide, with the reſpective words WOOL, or YARN, in large letters, not leſs than three inches in length, under the forfeiture of all ſuch wool, or other the goods aforeſaid, with the package, and three ſhillings for every pound weight thereof, to be paid by the owner or packer.

No wool, woolfels, &c. crewel, or wool ſlightly manufactured as aforeſaid, ſhall, after the ſaid twenty-fifth of December, 1739, be put on board any ſhip or boat, bound to parts beyond the ſeas, or ſhall be laden in order to be carried coaſtwiſe, or from one port of Great Britain or Ireland to another, unleſs notice be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or the collector and comptroller of the port, from which the ſame is intended to be exported, of the quantity, quality, and package, together with the marks and numbers thereof, with the name of the ſhip and maſter, on which the ſaid goods are to be laden, as likewiſe the names of the owners of the ſaid goods, and the places of their abode, and the port into which the ſame are intended to be imported, and to whom conſigned; and, unleſs bond be firſt entered into, to the uſe of his majeſty, with one or more ſufficient ſecurities, in treble the value of the goods intended to be carried coaſtwiſe, that the ſame ſhall (the danger of the ſeas excepted) be landed accordingly, notice whereof ſhall be forthwith tranſmitted by the collector and comptroller of the port, from whence the ſame ſhall be exported, to the collector and comptroller of the port, to which the ſame is intended to be imported, and entry made in the manner required by this or any other act; and, unleſs a licence be firſt taken under the hands of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, or from the collector and comptroller where ſuch bond is given, as aforeſaid, which licence they are to grant without any charge to the perſon demanding the ſame; and all ſuch bonds, ſo entered into as aforeſaid, ſhall not be diſcharged, but by producing a certificate under the hand and ſeal of the collector and comptroller of the port in Great Britain or Ireland, where ſuch goods were landed, ſetting forth the quantity, quality, and package, together with the marks and numbers thereof, with the name of the ſhip and maſter out of which ſuch goods were landed; and all ſuch bonds as ſhall remain undiſcharged after ſix months, ſhall be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, or the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, who are to put them in ſuit immediately: and if any wool, woolfels, &c. crewels, or wool ſlightly manufactured, ſhall be laden on board any veſſel or boat to be carried coaſtwiſe, or from one port to another, before ſuch bond entered into, and licence taken out, as aforeſaid, and before all the directions of this and every other act, made to prevent the tranſportation of any of the goods aforeſaid, ſhall be fully complied with, ſo far as the ſame relate to the exporter or proprietor of ſuch goods; or if any of the ſaid goods ſhall be laden on board any veſſel or boat, bound to parts beyond the ſeas, then all ſuch goods, or the value, ſhall be forfeited, together with the veſſel or boat, and all her ammunition and furniture.

Nothing herein contained ſhall extend to alter or leſſen any other ſecurity now required by law for goods carried coaſtwiſe, or to repeal any law now in force, made to prevent the exportation of wool, or any the commodities aforeſaid.

After the twenty-fifth of December, 1739, if the maſter of any veſſel employed in the clandeſtine exporting from Great Britain or Ireland to parts beyond the ſeas, any wool or other goods before-mentioned, or in the clandeſtine importing from Ireland, any woollen cloth, ſerges, bays, or any other drapery ſtuffs or woollen manufactures, made and manufactured in Ireland; or if the mate, or any of the mariners ſhall give an account in ſix months after ſhipping or exporting any of the goods before-mentioned, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England or Scotland, or the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, reſpectively, of the name of the ſhip, and the ſpecies, and quantities of ſuch goods, ſo clandeſtinely exported or ſhipped for exportation, together with the names of the owners, or perſons who act in their aid and aſſiſtance,

ance, ſo as they may be proſecuted and convicted for ſuch offence; ſuch maſter, mate, or mariner, ſhall not only be indemnified for ſo doing, but ſhall be acquitted and diſcharged from any penalties they are by law ſubject to for ſuch offence, and ſhall alſo receive three-fourth parts of the forfeitures, clear of charges, &c.

If any officer, or other perſon that ſhall act in aid of any officer, in putting this act in execution, ſhall be obſtructed, wounded, or beaten, in ſeizing any wool, &c. either in the day or night time, by land or water, the perſons who ſhall ſo obſtruct, &c. or any perſon who, being armed with offenſive weapons, or wearing any maſk or other diſguiſe, ſhall reſcue, or attempt to reſcue, any of the goods aforeſaid, which ſhall be ſeized by any officer, and ſhall be convicted of any of the ſaid offences, ſhall be tranſported to ſome of the plantations in America, for ſuch term as the court, before whom ſuch offenders ſhall be convicted, ſhall think fit, not exceeding ſeven years, in the ſame manner as by the act 4 *Geo.* I. For the further preventing Robbery, Burglary, and other Felonies, &c. and by another act 1 *Geo.* I. for the preventing Robbery and other Felonies, and for the more effectual Tranſportation of Felons, the offenders therein mentioned are to be tranſported to the ſaid plantations; and, if any ſuch offenders ſhall return to Great Britain or Ireland, before the expiration of the time for which they ſhall be tranſported, they ſhall ſuffer as felons, without the benefit of clergy.

By 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24. *ſ.* 3. no coffee ſhall be put on board any ſhip in any of his majeſty's plantations in America, until the planter or his known agent ſhall make oath, or affirmation, before two juſtices of peace, that the ſame is of the growth of ſuch planter's plantation, which oath, &c. ſhall be produced to the collector, comptroller, and naval officer, by the perſon who ſhall enter ſuch coffee; and ſuch perſons ſhall likewiſe make oath, or affirmation, before the ſaid officers, that the coffee then to be ſhipped is the ſame that is mentioned in ſuch oath, &c. of the planter; and the collector, and comptroller, and naval officer, are required to deliver a certificate of ſuch affidavit to the commander of ſuch ſhip, on board which the ſaid coffee is to be ſhipped, and the maſter of ſuch ſhip ſhall, before clearing his ſhip, alſo make oath, that he has received ſuch coffee on board, and that he has no other coffee on board than ſuch, for which proofs ſhall be made as aforeſaid, and that he will not take any more coffee on board before his arrival in Great Britain, and making a report of his lading there; for which affidavit and certificate, the collector, and comptroller, or naval officer, ſhall receive five ſhillings; and all certificates of ſuch affidavit ſhall, by the commander of ſuch ſhip, be produced to the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, at the port where ſuch ſhip ſhall unlade, and the maſter ſhall deliver to ſuch collector and comptroller, a certificate of the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer of the place, where ſuch coffee ſhall have been ſhipped, or any two of them, teſtifying the particular quantities of ſuch coffee, and of which ſuch proofs ſhall be made, ſpecifying the package, with the marks, numbers, and weights of each package; and the maſter ſhall likewiſe make oath, or affirm, that the coffee in the certificate was taken on board as in the certificate, and that after his departure he did not take on board any coffee, and that all the coffee on board his ſhip is mentinned in the ſaid certificate; and upon entry of ſuch coffee at the Cuſtom-houſe, and paying or ſecuring the duties, a mark ſhall be ſet on every parcel; and thereupon ſuch coffee ſhall be lodged in a warehouſe, and the importer ſhall deliver to the collector the certificate of the affidavit of the growth of the coffee, together with the oath, and the oath, or a copy thereof, made by the planter; as alſo the certificate of the package, marks, and numbers of the coffee.

No commander of any ſhip ſhall take in at America or at ſea, or ſhall land in any of the ſaid plantations, any coffee of the growth of any foreign country, except ſuch as ſhall be exported from Great Britain, on pain of forfeiting ſuch coffee and two hundred pounds, and likewiſe twelve months impriſonment.

If any perſon ſhall falſely make oath or affirmation, by this act directed, and thereof be convicted, &c. ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit two hundred pounds, and be impriſoned twelve months; and if any perſon ſhall forge a certificate of the ſaid oath or affirmation, or ſhall publiſh ſuch certificate, knowing the ſame to be forged, and he convicted in any of his majeſty's courts, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit two hundred pounds.

This act ſhall continue to the 25th of March, 1739, and to the end of next ſeſſion of parliament.

Farther continued for ſeven years, and to the end of next ſeſſion of parliament by 11 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. farther continued for ſeven years, and to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament by 19 *Geo.* II. *p.* 412. farther continued by 25 *Geo.* II. to 25 March, 1758; and farther by 32 *Geo.* II. till 24 June, 1766, and to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

By 12 *Geo.* II. enacted, that the acts 12, 15, and 25 *Car.* II. ſo far as the ſame extend to ſugar of the growth and produce of his majeſty's plantations in America, being one of the commodities enumerated in the ſaid acts, ſhall be ratified and confirmed in all reſpects whatſoever, except only ſuch as to ſugars as by this act ſhall be permitted to be exported from the ſaid ſugar colonies, by ſuch perſons, in ſuch ſhips, to ſuch foreign countries, and under ſuch regulations as are herein deſcribed and appointed for that purpoſe.

After the twenty-ninth of September, 1739, any of his majeſty's ſubjects, in any veſſel built in Great Britain, and navigated according to law, and belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, of which the major part ſhall be reſiding in Great Britain, and the reſidue reſiding either in Great Britain or ſome of the ſaid ſugar colonies, and not elſewhere, that ſhall clear outwards in any port of Great Britain for any of the ſaid colonies, may load in the ſaid colonies any ſugars of the growth and manufacture of the ſaid colonies, and may carry the ſame to any foreign part of Europe, provided a licence be firſt taken out for that purpoſe, under the hands of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London or Edinburgh, ſubject to the regulations, and on the conditions hereafter-mentioned, viz. that notice be firſt given by the maſter in writing, or one of the owners of ſuch veſſel, to the collector and comptroller of the port where ſuch veſſel happens to be, of the intention of ſuch maſter or owner, that ſuch ſhip ſhall proceed to ſome of the ſaid ſugar colonies to lade ſugars to be carried to ſome other part of Europe than Great Britain; and that ſuch maſter or owner ſhall enter into bond, to the uſe of his majeſty, with one or more ſufficient ſecurities, in the ſum of one thouſand pounds, if the ſhip be of leſs burthen than one hundred tons; and in the ſum of two thouſand pounds, if ſhe be of that, or greater burthen, with condition, that in caſe a licence be granted to carry ſugars from the ſaid ſugar colonies to foreign parts, ſuch ſhip ſhall proceed from Great Britain to the ſaid colonies, and ſhall deliver the licence to the naval officer there, in caſe he intends to make uſe of the liberty granted by ſuch licence, which he ſhall declare in writing to the naval officer before he takes any goods on board; and that in ſuch caſe no tobacco, melaſſes, ginger, cotton wool, indigo, fuſtick, or other dying wood, tar, pitch, turpentine, hemp, maſts, yards, bowſprits, copper ore, beaver ſkins, or other furs, of the growth and manufacture of any Britiſh plantation in America, ſhall be taken on board ſuch ſhip, unleſs for the neceſſary proviſions in her voyage; and that ſuch ſhip before ſhe proceeds to any foreign port ſhall touch at ſome port in Great Britain, and that the maſter or commander ſhall deliver to the collector and comptroller of ſuch port a new manifeſt, atteſted upon oath (or if a quaker by affirmation) of the lading, mentioning the marks, numbers, package and contents of all the goods on bnard; and ſhall alſo bring back the ſaid licence, with a certificate endorſed or affixed thereto, containing an account of the marks, numbers, package, contents, and ſorts of ſugars on board ſuch ſhip, in the manner hereafter directed; and that when ſuch ſhip hath diſcharged her lading (the danger of the ſeas and enemies excepted) ſhe ſhall return to Great Britain within eight months after ſhe has delivered her lading in any foreign part, and before ſhe returns to any of the plantations in America; and that in caſe ſuch veſſel ſhould take on board any merchandizes before her return to Great Britain, all ſuch merchandizes that ſhall remain on board the ſaid ſhip on her arrival in Great Britain ſhall be entered and landed, in like manner as other ſhips importing

porting goods into this kingdom are obliged to do by the laws of the cuſtoms, or otherwiſe ſuch bond ſhall be forfeited.

Upon ſuch bond being entered into, and the other requiſites being duly complied with, a licence ſhall be granted accordingly, giving liberty, for that voyage only, to carry ſugars of the growth of the ſaid ſugar colonies to any foreign part, in the manner and according to the intention of this act; but no ſhip ſhall have licence to carry ſugars to foreign parts, unleſs it firſt appear by oath (or affirmation) of the maſter, that the property thereof is in his majeſty's ſubjects, of which the major part are reſiding in Great Britain, and the reſidue either in Great Britain or in ſome of the ſaid ſugar colonies, and not elſewhere; ſuch oath or affirmation to be in the form hereafter mentioned, viz.

A. B. maketh oath (or ſolemnly declares and affirms) that the (ſhip or veſſel) called the (name) whereof he (this deponent or affirmant) is maſter, and hath the charge and command for this preſent voyage to (place bound to) being (deſcribe the built) (ſhip or veſſel) of the burthen of (number) tons, was built at (place) in the year (time when) and that the ſaid (ſhip or veſſel) is wholly owned by the (perſon or perſons) whoſe (name or names) and uſual (place or places) of abode (is or are) undermentioned and deſcribed by this deponent or affirmant; that ſuch (owner or owners) (is or are) his majeſty's Britiſh (ſubject or ſubjects) and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, part or intereſt in the ſaid (ſhip or veſſel) to the beſt of this (deponent's or affirmant's) knowledge or belief; and that he, this (deponent or affirmant) and three-fourths of the mariners navigating the ſaid (ſhip or veſſel) are his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects.

If any veſſel licenſed by virtue of this act ſhall take on board in any of the ſugar iſlands, or in her voyage from thence, any ſugars or other goods, being the property of any other perſon, than ſome of his majeſty's ſubjects, and ſuch as ſhall be laden on their proper riſk and account to be carried to foreign parts, the ſame ſhall be forfeited.

Before any ſugar be put on board any veſſel at the ſaid colonies, to be carried to any foreign port in Europe, the maſter ſhall deliver to the collector of the port where ſuch ſhip is to take in her lading, the ſaid licence, ſigned by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and a certificate of ſuch bond having been given in Great Britain as aforeſaid, and ſhall declare in writing to the collector, whether he intends to load any ſugar purſuant to ſuch licence, which ſhall be done before any goods are laden on board ſuch veſſel, otherwiſe ſuch licence ſhall be of no force; but if it be declared that ſugars are intended to be laden, and carried to foreign parts, then, in order to aſcertain the quantity, &c. of the ſugars to be exported from the ſaid colonies, and to prevent the exportation of any goods before enumerated, the perſon intending to export ſugars or other goods not enumerated, in ſuch veſſel, ſhall, before the ſame are put on board, make an entry of ſuch ſugars, or other goods, with the comptroller of the cuſtoms and the naval officer, expreſſing the name of the ſhip and maſter, and where ſhe lies; and alſo the keys and wharfs where they are to be laden, or firſt water-borne, in order to be laden; which ſhall be ſuch only where an officer is or ſhall be appointed to attend the ſhipping thereof, or at ſuch places as ſhall be mentioned in a warrant to be taken out from the comptroller for that purpoſe; and ſhall thereupon take out a warrant, whereon ſhall be endorſed by the exporter the marks, numbers, contents, ſorts, or proper denomination of ſuch ſugars, and ſhall deliver the warrant ſo endorſed to the ſearcher, and ſhall lade ſuch ſugars in the preſence of ſuch officer, or at the places mentioned in the ſaid warrant, that the proper officers may attend the ſhipping thereof; and ſuch officers are impowered to examine the ſame, before they are put on board; and if, upon examining the ſaid ſugars, or any goods ſhipped or brought to be ſhipped as ſuch, either before or after the ſhipping thereof, the number of caſks ſhall appear to be greater than endorſed on ſuch warrant, or if there be found any other ſugar but ſuch as ſhall be ſo endorſed, taken out, and delivered as aforeſaid, or any of the goods before enumerated, which by law are to be carried from thence only to Great Britain, or ſome of his majeſty's other plantations; or if it be diſcovered that any enumerated goods, other than ſugar, have been put on board any veſſel, having liberty to trade by virtue of this act, or ſhall be brought to be ſhipped on board ſuch veſſel, or ſhall be put into any boat, &c. in order to be put on board ſuch veſſel, before ſuch entry, or taking out, endorſing; and delivering of ſuch warrants, contrary to the directions of this act, all ſuch ſugar and other goods ſhall be forfeited, and the veſſel or carriage employed in ſhipping or attempting to ſhip any enumerated goods, other than ſugars, together with the veſſel on which ſuch other goods ſhall be laden, and the owner of ſuch ſugar or other goods ſhall forfeit double the value thereof. And before ſuch veſſel ſhall depart with the ſugar, the maſter ſhall receive the ſaid licence from the comptroller and naval officer, with a certificate under their ſeals of office, containing an account of the marks, &c. of each caſk of ſugar ſo ſhipped; and the other officers aforeſaid are to make two copies of ſuch licence and certificates; for all which entries, &c. or copies, no more ſhall be taken than the accuſtomed fees; and the maſter, before he receives the ſaid licence, ſhall atteſt the ſaid copies under his hand, which are to be left with the collector, and comptroller, and naval officer; and the ſaid collector and comptroller are required, as ſoon as conveniently they can, to tranſmit one of the ſaid copies to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, by whom the licence was granted when the ſhip ſailed from Great Britain; and the maſter ſhall proceed from the ſaid colonies directly to Great Britain, without putting into any other port, unleſs forced by ſtreſs of weather; proof whereof ſhall be made on oath to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners; and on the return of ſuch ſhip to Great Britain, the maſter ſhall produce the ſaid licence to the commiſſioners, or to the collector of the port at which he ſhall arrive, with the endorſement or certificate annexed as before directed, and ſhall alſo deliver a true manifeſt, expreſſing the marks and numbers, with the tale and ſorts of caſks of all his lading, atteſted upon oath (or, if a quaker, by affirmation) before the collector and comptroller of ſuch port, who are impowered to adminiſter the ſame; and ſhall alſo make an entry of the quantities and ſorts of all the ſugars laden on board the ſaid ſhip at any of the ſaid colonies, and then remaining on board, and bound to foreign parts (which entry the ſaid collector and comptroller are to paſs, without demanding any duties for ſuch ſugar; mentioning in their account, that ſuch entries were paſſed by virtue of this act) and ſhall alſo declare upon oath or affirmation to what foreign ports he is bound with ſuch lading, then ſuch maſter ſhall be at liberty to proceed with all the goods on board mentioned in the ſaid manifeſt, being none of the goods before enumerated, to any foreign port, without being obliged to land, or pay duty for the ſame, as aforeſaid, taking with him the ſaid licence, and a certificate under the ſeals of office from the ſaid collector and comptroller, teſtifying that the ſaid ſhip had touched at ſuch port, and had in all reſpects complied with the directions of this act; but if any ſuch veſſel ſhall proceed to any foreign part without having firſt touched at ſome port in Great Britain, and having complied with the directions of this act, and having the ſame certified as aforeſaid; or if any of the goods before enumerated, beſides ſugars, ſhall be found on board, or carried by any ſuch veſſel to any foreign parts, then the liberty granted by ſuch licence ſhall become void, and ſuch veſſel, and alſo the maſter, and all others concerned, ſhall be liable to the ſame penalties as they would have been liable to if this act had not been made.

If the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, or the collector and comptroller of the port where the veſſel ſhall touch, ſhall, upon information on oath, have cauſe to ſuſpect that ſome enumerated goods, other than ſugars, are on board ſuch veſſel, and ſhall thereupon judge it neceſſary to unlade the goods from ſuch ſhip, or any part thereof; in ſuch caſe, the officers of the cuſtoms, or any perſons employed by them, may enter, and remain on board ſuch ſhip, and unlade the ſame or any part thereof, as they ſhall judge neceſſary, to enable them to examine any part of ſuch ſhip and all the goods on board, and detain her ſo long as ſhall be neceſſary for that purpoſe, and alſo may open and examine any cabins, &c. or any concealments, or other places in the ſides of ſuch

ſhip or any part thereof, or any trunk, caſk, &c. to diſcover whether any more, or other goods are on board, than ſuch as are mentioned in the manifeſt delivered by the maſter, and may ſeize all goods not mentioned therein, which ſhall be forfeited; but in caſe no goods be found on board but what are mentioned in the ſaid manifeſt, then the officers who ſhall unload or unpack any goods ſhall reload and re-pack the ſame, and repair ſuch damage as ſhall be done by unloading or unpacking thereof, without being liable to any other coſts for demurrage, or on any other account whatſoever; but if any other goods are found on board beſides ſuch as are mentioned in the maſter's manifeſt (except the neceſſary proviſions of the ſhip) then the maſter ſhall be at the charge of re-loading and repacking all the goods unladen or opened, and of repairing all other damages occaſioned thereby; and the officers concerned ſhall not be at any expence, or be liable to any coſts whatſoever.

If any ſhip ſhall have on board any ſugar, for which licence ſhall have been granted as aforeſaid, or any other goods not enumerated in the act before-mentioned, and the owners, or their agent, on the arrival of ſuch ſhip in Great Britain, ſhall be deſirous to enter and pay the duty, and land the goods, or any part thereof, they ſhall have liberty ſo to do, the maſter firſt making a report of his whole lading with the proper officers of the cuſtoms, in like manner as he was required to do before the making of this act.

If the maſter, or perſon taking charge of ſuch veſſel, for which a licence has been granted, ſhall, on his arrival in any of the ſaid ſugar colonies have delivered to the collector, comptroller, or naval officer, the ſaid licence, with a certificate of bond being given in Great Britain, as aforeſaid; and before he lades any goods ſhall declare in writing, upon oath, or affirmation, before any two of them, that the ſugars he intends to load are to be carried to ſome place to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre; then the ſaid maſter may, in caſe he has in all reſpects complied with the directions of this act, proceed thither directly with ſuch veſſel, taking with him ſuch licence and oath, or affirmation, endorſed thereon by the collector, &c. together with an account of the marks, &c. of ſugars laden by virtue of ſuch licence, likewiſe endorſed thereon, or contained in a certificate annexed, in the manner before directed, and may there land the ſame, without firſt touching at any port in Great Britain; but in ſuch caſe the maſter ſhall within eight months after landing the ſaid ſugars, and before ſuch veſſel ſhall go again to any of the plantations in America, return to ſome port of Great Britain, and there deliver his ſaid licence to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or the collector and comptroller of ſuch port, with ſuch oath or affirmation endorſed thereon, and certificate annexed thereto as aforeſaid, together with a certificate from the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants of good credit, reſiding at the places where ſuch ſugars were landed, teſtifying the landing thereof as aforeſaid; and the maſter ſhall likewiſe make oath, or affirmation, before the collector to the truth of ſuch certificate; and that none of the goods before enumerated, except ſugar, were taken on board at any of the ſaid colonies, or landed at the place mentioned in the certificate; and ſhall likewiſe make an entry with ſuch collector of the quantity and ſorts of all the ſugars laden on board the ſaid ſhip at any of the ſaid colonies, and landed at any port to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, which entry the collector or comptroller are to paſs, without demanding any duties for the ſame, mentioning in their accounts that ſuch entries were paſſed, by virtue of this act; and in caſe the maſter ſhall neglect or refuſe to make ſuch entry on his return to Great Britain, he ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds.

Upon the return to Great Britain of any ſhip or veſſel which ſhall carry ſugars from the ſugar colonies to any foreign parts, the maſter ſhall, in either caſe before-mentioned, bring back, and deliver to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the collector of the port where ſuch veſſel ſhall arrive, the ſaid licence, together with the certificate, ſigned and ſealed by the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants of good credit, at the port where ſuch ſugar was landed, certifying the landing thereof, with the number of caſks landed, and the mark, number, and contents of each caſk, with the name of the ſhip and maſter, and that they verily believe that no tobacco, or other goods before enumerated, except ſugar, have been there landed out of ſuch veſſel; and upon ſuch licence being returned, with the oath or affirmation of the maſter, and an account of the lading endorſed thereon, or annexed thereto as aforeſaid; and the ſeveral other things required by this act being duly complied with, the bond given before granting ſuch licence ſhall be diſcharged and delivered up; otherwiſe ſuch bond ſhall be forfeited, and may be proſecuted in the manner directed by this act.

In caſe any ſhip or veſſel ſhall, after unloading ſuch ſugars, or any part thereof, take on board any goods before her return to Great Britain, all ſuch of the ſaid goods as remain on board at her arrival in Great Britain ſhall be entered and landed on the return of ſuch veſſel to Great Britain, and before her departure from thence, and ſhall be ſubject to ſuch regulations as the like goods imported in any other ſhip are ſubject to by the laws of the cuſtoms.

This act not to excuſe any veſſel trading to or from the ſaid ſugar colonies, being regiſtered purſuant to the act 7 and 8 *Will.* III. on proof of the property made by one or more of the owners, in the manner, and under the penalties inflicted by the ſaid act.

No maſter or owner of any veſſel carrying ſugars, as aforeſaid, ſhall advance to any mariner during the time he ſhall be in parts beyond the ſeas any money or effects, upon account of wages, exceeding one moiety of the whole wages due from the time of his departure from Great Britain till ſuch veſſel ſhall return to Great Britain, and if any maſter or owner ſhall advance any wages to any ſeamen above the ſaid moiety, ſuch maſter or owner ſhall forfeit double the money he ſhall ſo advance.

If any perſon ſhall grant any falſe certificate, or counterfeit, eraſe, or alter any licence, oath, or certificate, made purſuant to this act, or ſhall knowingly publiſh or make uſe thereof, ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit five hundred pounds; to be recovered, and diſpoſed of in the manner directed by this act, and ſuch licence, &c. ſhall be void.

Nothing in this act ſhall be conſtrued to give liberty to carry ſugars from any of the ſaid ſugar colonies to Ireland.

This act ſhall continue in force five years, from the twenty-ninth of September, 1739, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

Further continued till the twenty-fourth of June, 1751, and to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, by 17 *Geo.* II. *p.* 753. By 24 *Geo.* II. until 1 Sept. 1757. By 29 *Geo.* II. for three years. And by 31 *Geo.* II. until 29 Sept. 1761.

By an act paſſed 7 and 8 *Will.* III. for preventing frauds, and regulating abuſes in the plantation trade; and by another act of 5 *Ann.* for an Union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, no ſhip or veſſel ſhall paſs as a ſhip of the built and property of Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or any of his majeſty's plantations in America, or a prize-ſhip made free, ſo as to be qualified to trade to, from, or in any of the ſaid plantations, till the perſons claiming property therein ſhall make oath, and regiſter the ſame in manner therein directed; and if any ſhip's name ſo regiſtered ſhall be altered, or any transfer of property to another port, ſuch ſhip is thereby directed to be regiſtered *de novo*, on delivering up the former certificate to be cancelled; and if the property be altered in the ſame port by the ſale of ſhares in any ſhip, after regiſtering, ſuch ſale is to be acknowledged, by endorſing on the regiſter before two witneſſes; notwithſtanding which the certificates of the regiſter of ſeveral ſhips have been frequently ſold to foreigners and delivered to the purchaſers; and the ſhips of foreigners under colour thereof have been admitted to trade to, and from the plantations (though of foreign extraction) contrary to law, to the prejudice of the navigation of Great Britain and the plantations; for preventing which, it is enacted, by 15 and 16 *Geo.* II. that after the twenty-fifth of December, 1742, no ſhip or veſſel required by the ſaid acts to be regiſtered, and carrying merchandizes to and from any of his majeſty's plantations in America, or to and from one plantation to another, ſhall be deemed qualified to trade within the intent of the ſaid acts, till the maſter, or perſon having charge of the ſhip, ſhall upon oath or affirmation before the governor or collector of the cuſtoms, of

every

every the ſaid plantations where they ſhall arrive, give a juſt and true account of the name and burthen thereof, and of the place from whence ſhe came, and of all particulars, in the following form, viz.

A. B. maketh oath (or if a quaker, ſolemnly affirms) that the ſhip or veſſel, called the whereof he, this deponent or affirmant is maſter, or hath the charge and command, during this preſent voyage, being of the burthen of tons, came laſt from and that ſhe is, as he verily believes, the ſame ſhip or veſſel deſcribed, meant, and intended in, and by the certificate now produced by him; and that the ſame does now, as he believes, belong wholly to his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects, and that no foreigner has, directly or indirectly, any ſhare, property, or intereſt therein, to his knowledge or belief.

If any ſhip or veſſel ſhall load or unload any goods, &c. in any of the plantations in America, before ſuch proof be made, the ſame ſhall be forfeited, and may be proſecuted, recovered, and divided, in like manner as if ſhe had not been regiſtered, as directed in the act 7 and 8 *Will.* III.

After the twenty-fifth of December, 1742, if any ſhip or veſſel duly qualified to trade to, from, and in his majeſty's plantations, ſhall happen to be in any of the ſaid plantations, and the certificate of the regiſter ſhall be loſt or miſlaid, the maſter, or other perſon having charge of the ſaid ſhip or veſſel may make oath, or affirmation, before the governor or collector of the cuſtoms, in the port where the ſhip or veſſel ſhall happen to be, in the following form.

A. B. being maſter, or having the charge of the ſhip or veſſel, called the does ſwear (or ſolemnly affirm) that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel has been, as he verily believes, regiſtered according to law, to qualify her to trade to, from, and in his majeſty's plantations in America, and that he had a certificate thereof, granted at the port of but that the ſame is loſt or miſlaid, and that he cannot find the ſame, and does not know where the ſame is, or what is become thereof, and that the ſame hath not been, nor ſhall be, with his privity or knowledge ſold or diſpoſed of to any perſon or perſons whatſoever; and that he, this deponent or affirmant, and three-fourths of the mariners navigating the ſaid ſhip or veſſel are his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects, and the ſaid ſhip or veſſel does now, as he believes, belong wholly to his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects, and that no foreigner has, to his knowledge or belief, any ſhare, property, or intereſt therein.

The ſaid maſter, or other perſon navigating the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, ſhall give five hundred pounds ſecurity, if the ſhip be of one hundred tons burthen or under, and ſo in proportion for any greater burthen, to the collector of the port where the ſhip ſhall be, in his majeſty's name and to his uſe, with condition that the ſhip was duly regiſtered according to law, for qualifying the ſame to trade to, from, or in his majeſty's plantations in America; and that the certificate of the ſaid regiſter, if found, ſhall be delivered up to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, to be cancelled, and no illegal uſe has been, or ſhall be made thereof; that the ſame has not been, or ſhall be fraudulently diſpoſed of; that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel wholly belongs to Britiſh ſubjects; and that no foreigner has any ſhare, property, or intereſt therein; and on making ſuch oath, or affirmation, and giving ſuch bond, the governor and collector of the cuſtoms ſhall freely give the maſter, &c. of ſuch ſhip or veſſel a freſh certificate, which ſhall enable him to trade for that voyage only; and the officers taking the ſaid oath and bond, ſhall tranſmit an account thereof to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.

If the certificate of the regiſter of any ſhip be loſt, and the maſter, or perſon having charge of the ſhip, and one or more of the owners, ſhall make proof to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, in caſe the owners, or any of them ſhall reſide in Great Britain or Ireland, Guernſey or Jerſey; or of the governor, or collector of the cuſtoms, reſiding in any of his majeſty's plantations in America, if ſhe was regiſtered in ſuch plantation; and none of the owners ſhall reſide in Great Britain or Ireland, Guernſey or Jerſey, upon oath or affirmation of the loſs of ſuch certificate, alſo of the name, burthen, built, property, and other particulars required in the act 7 and 8 *Will.* III. in the ſame manner, and before the ſame perſons as are required on original regiſters, and ſhall give five hundred pounds ſecurity, if the ſhip be of one hundred tons, and ſo in proportion for any greater burthen, to the collector of the port where the ſhip ſhall belong, and that the original certificate hath not been, nor ſhall be fraudulently diſpoſed of, or uſed contrary to law; and that if the ſame be found, it ſhall be delivered up to the commiſſioners to be cancelled; in ſuch caſe the ſaid commiſſioners, and the governor, and collector of the cuſtoms, reſiding at the plantations reſpectively, are required to permit ſuch ſhip or veſſel to be regiſtered *de novo*, and the proper officers ſhall deliver a certificate thereof to the owners as directed by the act 7 and 8 *Will.* III. and therein mention the name by which the ſhip was formerly regiſtered, and that ſuch a certificate of a new regiſter is granted in purſuance of this act, inſtead of a former certificate, which appears by ſuch proof, as this act requires, to be loſt; and that ſuch new regiſter and certificate ſhall have the ſame effect with the original, and a duplicate ſhall be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners.

After the twenty-ninth of September, 1742, all plantation bonds taken in Great Britain, purſuant to any former act of parliament, whereby the goods therein enumerated are to be brought to Great Britain, ſhall be with condition, that within eighteen months from the date thereof (the danger of the ſeas excepted) a certificate ſhall be produced from the collector and comptroller of the port where ſuch goods ſhall be delivered, that they have been there landed and diſcharged; otherwiſe ſuch bonds ſhall be forfeited, and the penalty ſued for in the court of Exchequer in England, Scotland, or Ireland, reſpectively.

This act ſhall not extend to bonds given for ſhips which lade rice at Carolina or Georgia, by licence from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, to be carried to ſome part of Europe, to the ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, purſuant to an act paſſed 3 *Geo.* II. or for ſhips lading ſugars, in any of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, by licence from the commiſſioners, to be carried directly to any foreign part of Europe, except Ireland, purſuant to an act paſſed 12 *Geo.* II.

By two clauſes in the act 12 *Car.* II. it is (among other things) enacted, that no goods or commodities whatſoever, of the growth, production, or manufacture of Africa, Aſia, or America, ſhall be imported into England, Ireland, or Wales, iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, from any other places or countries, but only from thoſe of the ſaid growth, production or manufacture, or from thoſe ports where the ſaid goods and commodities can only be, or uſually have been, firſt ſhipped for tranſportation, under the penalty of the forfeiture of all ſuch goods as ſhall be imported from any other place or country, contrary to the true intent and meaning thereof; as alſo of the ſhip in which they were imported, with all her guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle and apparel; (*ſee* ACT *of* NAVIGATION) and there is a proviſo in the ſaid act, that it ſhall be lawful for any of the people of England, Ireland, Wales, iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, in veſſels or ſhips to them belonging, and whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners, at leaſt, are Engliſh, to load, and bring in from any of the ports of Spain, or Portugal, or Weſtern Iſlands, commonly called Azores, or Madeira, or Canary Iſlands, all ſorts of commodities of the growth, production, or manufacture of the plantations or dominions of either of them reſpectively; and diſputes have aroſe on the conſtruction of the ſaid proviſo, whether goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of the plantations of Spain or Portugal, may be imported for account of aliens, from the places, and in the manner expreſſed in the ſaid proviſo, and whether ſuch goods belonging to aliens, ſo imported, are not liable to be forfeited, together with the ſhip, which tends to the prejudice of the Britiſh navigation, as likewiſe detrimental to the public revenue; it is therefore enacted, by 17 *Geo.* II. that it ſhall be lawful for any perſons to import

import the goods mentioned in the ſaid proviſo, and in ſuch ſhips ſo navigated, as is therein expreſſed, although ſuch goods are the property of aliens.

During ſix months, &c. it ſhall be lawful to import cochineal in any ſhips belonging to Great Britain, or to any ſtate in amity, from any place whatſoever. 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25.

It ſhall be lawful to import in any ſhip belonging to Great Britain, or any ſtate in amity, from any place, indigo of all ſorts. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2.

The ſaid act 13 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. and this act ſhall continue ſeven years from the twenty-fourth of June, 1734, &c.

Continued till June 1, 1747, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, by 14 *Geo.* II. *p.* 660. and further continued until the firſt of June, 1754, and to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, by 20 *Geo.* II. *p.* 972.

And as ſeveral acts have been made to encourage the growth of this, and ſeveral other commodities in his majeſty's American colonies, we think they may properly be introduced in this place, as affairs in which navigation has a conſiderable concern; threfore, before we conclude the ſubject of ſhipping, we ſhall let our readers ſee what premiums have been given by parliament, on the importation of them here.

It is enacted by 21 *Geo.* II. that from and after the twenty-fifth of March, 1749, all perſons who ſhall import into this kingdom, directly from any of the Britiſh colonies in America, in veſſels that may legally trade there, and manned as by law required, any good and merchantable indigo, free from any falſe mixture, and fit for dyers uſe, being the product of the colony from whence the ſame is imported, ſhall be intitled to ſixpence for every pound thereof, to be paid out of the cuſtoms upon demand, by the collector of the port where the ſame ſhall be imported, and for want of ſufficient money in his hands, he ſhall certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who ſhall cauſe the bounty of the indigo imported into England to be paid by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms in England, and that imported into Scotland by the receiver general there.

Every perſon loading indigo on board any veſſel in any of the Britiſh colonies in America, ſhall, before the clearing out of ſuch ſhip for any port of Great Britain, produce to the governor, lieutenant-governor, collector, and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, a certificate, ſigned and ſworn to before ſome juſtice there, by the planter, his known agent or factor, that a quantity of indigo (expreſſing the weight) had been ſent from his indigo work, or plantation, where the ſame was made, in order to be ſhipped off, or ſold by him to the perſon therein made, and was of the growth and produce of the ſaid plantation, ſituate in the diſtrict or pariſh of within the iſland or colony of which certificate ſhall be atteſted by the ſaid juſtice, to have been ſigned and ſworn to in his preſence, and he is required to do the ſame *gratis*.

The merchant, at the time of producing ſuch certificate, ſhall alſo ſign a certificate before the governor, lieutenant-governor, collector, &c. or any two of them, that the indigo ſhipped by him is the ſame mentioned in the certificate; and they ſhall thereupon deliver to him a certificate under their hands and ſeal of office, of his having received ſuch certificate; and that at the ſame time a certificate from the planter or agent, &c. had been produced and left with them, purſuant to the directions of this act; and no perſon importing indigo ſhall be intitled to the premium, unleſs he ſhall produce ſuch certificate to the chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port in Great Britain where the ſame ſhall be imported.

On the importation of any indigo into Great Britain, a certificate ſhall be given by the maſter or commanding officer, that the ſame was ſhipped on board the ſaid ſhip, within ſuch Britiſh colony in America, as is mentioned in the certificate; and alſo a certificate, ſigned by two officers of the cuſtoms of the port where the ſame is entered and landed, ſpecifying the weight, and that the ſaid indigo is good and merchantable, free from falſe mixtures, and of ſuch quality as to be intitled to the ſaid premiums; which certificate the ſaid officers are to grant within ten days after the landing thereof, unleſs they can aſſign ſufficient cauſe for their refuſal; upon producing which ſeveral certificates to the proper officer as aforeſaid, he ſhall pay the premium to the importer.

If any perſon ſhall make entry of foreign-made indigo under the name of Britiſh plantation-made, or ſhall mix any foreign indigo, or other falſe mixture, with that made in the Britiſh plantations, in order to claim the premium, he ſhall forfeit all ſuch indigo; and, in caſe of ſuch mixture, the quantity ſo mixed, both foreign and Britiſh plantation-made, and double the value thereof ſhall be forfeited by the perſon making ſuch mixture.

No certificate ſhall be granted for the ſaid premium on indigo that is not good and merchantable, and free from any falſe mixture.

The officers of the cuſtoms, before their making out any ſuch certificate, ſhall examine the indigo by opening each package, and ſeeing the whole contents, to diſcover whether the indigo is good and merchantable, and free from any falſe mixture.

No certificate ſhall be granted by the officers of the cuſtoms for any indigo which is not worth three ſhillings, when the French, or other indigo of equal goodneſs with the beſt French, is worth four ſhillings *per* pound; and ſo in proportion, if the beſt French or other indigo of equal goodneſs ſhall be at a higher or lower price.

If any diſpute ſhall ariſe concerning the quality of ſuch indigo as is imported into the port of London, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may call two or more dyers, dry-ſalters, brokers, or others well ſkilled in that commodity, who ſhall declare their opinion upon oath, as to the quality thereof, if required, and determine whether the ſaid indigo is intitled to the premium or not; and in caſe of any diſpute in any of the out-ports in England, ſamples of the indigo ſhall be ſent up to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at London; and in the out-ports in Scotland, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at Edinburgh, in ſuch manner as the reſpective commiſſioners ſhall direct, in order to be inſpected and adjudged there.

No fee ſhall be demanded or taken by any officer of the cuſtoms, for the examining or delivering ſuch indigo, or for ſigning certificates for the premium, under penalty of forfeiting his office, and one hundred pounds, &c.

No certificates or debentures, made in purſuance of this act, ſhall be chargeable with any ſtamp-duties.

If any Britiſh plantation-made indigo from America, ſhall, after the twenty-fifth of March, 1749, be exported from Great Britain, the exporter, before the entry thereof, ſhall pay to the collector or chief officer of the cuſtoms of the port, the whole of the premium, over and above any duty ſuch indigo is ſubject to at exportation by any former act.

If any perſon ſhall be found fraudulently to export ſuch indigo, without paying the premium as aforeſaid, he ſhall forfeit the indigo, and double the value thereof.

If any diſpute ſhall ariſe, whether the ſaid indigo, or any part thereof ſo to be exported, is of the growth and manufacture of the Britiſh plantations in America, or of foreign product, the *onus probandi* ſhall lie on the claimer, and not on the proſecutor.

If any governor, collector, or any other perſons, ſhall, during the continuance of this act, falſely make a certificate of the produce and manufacture of any indigo, not being of the Britiſh plantations in America, or ſhall counterfeit any ſuch certificate, in order to obtain the premium aforeſaid, he ſhall forfeit two hundred pounds, and if the offender be a collector, or any other officer of the cuſtoms, he ſhall alſo loſe his office, and be incapable of ſerving his majeſty, &c.

This act ſhall be in force for ſeven years, to commence from the twenty-fifth of March, 1749, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

Further continued by 28 *Geo.* II. till the twenty-fifth of March, 1763, and to the end of the ſeſſion.

By 23 *Geo.* II. as it will greatly tend to the increaſe and improvement of the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom, to encourage the growth and culture of ſilk in his majeſty's dominions in America, it is enacted, that from and after the twenty-fourth of June, 1750, raw ſilks of the growth and culture of any of his majeſty's colonies or plantations in America may be directly imported from thence into the port of London duty-free, due entry thereof being firſt made at the cuſtom-houſe at the time of importation, in the ſame manner and form (expreſſing the package, marks, and numbers,

bers, together with the qualities of the reſpective goods) as was uſed before the making of this act, and ſo as the ſame be landed in the preſence of, and examined by, the proper officer of the cuſtoms, and be imported in veſſels that may lawfully trade to his majeſty's plantations, manned as the law requires; and, on failure of the conditions herein laſt mentioned, the ſaid ſilks are to be liable to payment of the reſpective duties, as if this act had not been made.

The merchant or other perſon, who ſhall, after the twenty-fourth of June 1750, load any raw ſilk on board any veſſel in any of the Britiſh colonies in America, is, before the clearing out of ſuch veſſel from thence, to make oath before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer of the port, or any two of them, that the ſaid ſilk (expreſſing the quantity thereof) is *bona fide* of the growth and culture of the Britiſh plantations in America, expreſſing the pariſh or place where the ſame was cultivated, and by whom, producing ſuch perſon's oath thereto, made before the governor of the place, or the next juſtice of the peace (which ſeveral oaths are to be adminiſtered gratis) and the maſter or perſon taking charge of ſuch veſſel, is to bring with him a certificate, ſigned and ſealed by the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer of the port, or any two of them (which they are to give gratis) expreſſing the marks, numbers, tale, and weight of the raw ſilk in each bale or package, with the names and places of abode of the exporters thereof, and of the perſon who ſhall have ſworn the ſame to be of the growth and culture of the ſaid Britiſh colonies, and of the perſon to whom the ſame ſhall be conſigned in the port of London; which certificate the maſter, on his arrival at the port of London, is to deliver to the collector or comptroller, or other chief officer of the cuſtoms, at or before the entry of the ſaid ſilk, and to make oath before one of the ſaid officers (which oath is to be adminiſtered gratis) that the ſaid bales and parcels, and goods contained in ſuch certificate, are the ſame which were taken on board in the ſaid Britiſh plantations in America; and, on default made in any of the premiſes, the ſaid ſilks are liable to the payment of the reſpective duties, as if this act had not been made.

If any perſon ſhall, after the twenty-fourth of June, 1750, enter any foreign raw ſilk under the name or deſcription of raw ſilk of the growth or culture of any of the Britiſh colonies of America, or ſhall mix any foreign raw ſilk with raw ſilks of the growth of the ſaid Britiſh colonies, in order to avoid payment of the duties for the ſame, he is to forfeit fifty pounds for every ſuch offence, and all ſuch foreign raw ſilk; and, in caſe of any mixture, the quantity mixed, both of foreign and Britiſh plantation growth, or the value thereof, together with the packages containing the ſame, are to be forfeited, &c.

If any doubt or diſpute ſhall ariſe, whether the ſaid raw ſilk is foreign, or of the growth or culture of the Britiſh American plantations, the *onus probandi* lies on the claimer.

Having treated pretty largely on the article of ſhipping, we ſhall now proceed to deſcribe the obligations the commanders and ſailors are under both by the laws of conſcience and of their country.

A maſter of a ſhip is appointed by the owners under a ſuppoſition of his having a ſufficient capacity and integrity to diſcharge the truſt repoſed in him, by a faithful, prudent, and diſcreet management of the ſhip, and affairs committed to his care.....he hath no property, either general or ſpecial, in his being conſtituted, though the law looks upon him as an officer, who muſt render and give an account for whatſoever is put into his cuſtody and under his direction; and therefore whatever misfortunes happen, or loſſes occur, be they through negligence, wilfulneſs, or ignorance, either in himſelf or mariners, he muſt be reſponſible. *Hob. Rep. fol.* 11. *Bridgman's caſe.*

A maſter of a ſhip, ſo appointed by B, owner, treats with a plaintiff to take the ſhip to freight for eighty tons, to ſail from London to Falmouth, and ſo from thence to Barcelona, without altering the voyage, and there to unlade, at a certain rate *per* ton: and to perform this, the maſter and merchant entered into a charterparty, the former obliging the ſhip and her appurtenances (valued at three hundred pounds,) though the owners of the ſhip were no parties thereunto; the maſter deviates and commits barretry, and the merchant thereby becomes a ſufferer in the loſs of his voyage and goods, for the merchandize (being fiſh) arrived not till Lent was paſt, and they rotten. The factor, to whom the cargo went conſigned, in order to procure ſatisfaction for his employer, ſueth the maſter in the court of admiralty at Barcelona, and, upon an appeal to a higher court in Spain, obtains ſentence againſt the maſter and the ſhip; which, coming to the merchant's hands, the owner brings an action of trover for the ſhip; the maſter ſues in chancery to ſtop the ſuit, and another brought by the owner for freight, claiming deductions out of both, for his damages ſuſtained by the maſter's breach of articles; for if the owner gives authority to the maſter to contract, he ſhall bear the loſs; but in caſe of bottomry after the voyage begun, the maſter cannot oblige the owner beyond the value of the ſhip; but this caſe is on contract. *in Chancery. Jure Mar. p.* 230.

Lord chancellor. The charterparty values the ſhip at a certain rate, and you ſhall not oblige the owners farther, and that only with relation to the freight, not to the value of the ſhip; the maſter is liable to the deviation and barretry, but not the owners; elſe maſters would be owners of all mens ſhips and eſtates. *Mich.* 29. *Car.* II.

But where the maſter of the ſhip took beef, ſails, &c. on credit, and failed, the owners were obliged to pay, and not allowed to defend themſelves, by inſiſting that the maſter was liable only, and that they had given him money to pay the plantiff. He is but their ſervant, and therefore for his purchaſes they are anſwerable, and continue ſo till he has paid the creditor, though they gave him money for that purpoſe. 2 *Vern.* 643.

As ſoon as merchandizes, or other commodities, are put aboard a ſhip, whether ſhe be riding in port, haven, or any other part of the ſeas, he that is *exercitor navis* (maſter of her) is chargeable therewith, and if the ſame be there loſt or purloined, or ſuſtain any damage, whether in the haven or port, before, or upon the ſeas, after ſhe is on her voyage, either by the mariners or by any other thro' their permiſſion, he that is the commander muſt anſwer the damage, for the very lading the goods aboard the ſhip ſubjects him thereto. And with this agrees the common law, where it was adjudged, that goods being ſent aboard a ſhip, and the maſter having ſigned his bills of lading for the ſame, the goods were ſtowed, and under pretence of being preſs-maſters, divers perſons, in the night, entered the ſhip, and robbed her of thoſe goods; the merchant brought an action at common law againſt the maſter; and the queſtion was whether he ſhould anſwer the ſame; for it was alledged on his part, that there was no default or negligence in him, as he had a ſufficient guard, the goods were all locked up under hatches, and the thieves came as preſs-maſters, and by force robbed the ſhip; and that the ſame was *vis major* †, which he could not prevent: and laſtly, that though he was maſter, or *exercitor navis*, yet he had no ſhare in the ſhip, and was but in the nature of a ſervant, acting for a ſalary. But notwithſtanding, it was adjudged to the plaintiff; for the maſter at his peril muſt ſee that all things be forthcoming which are delivered to him, let what accident ſoever happen (the act of God, or an enemy, perils and dangers of the ſeas only excepted) but for fire, thieves, and the like, he muſt anſwer; and is in the nature of a common carrier; and that though he receives a ſalary, yet is a known and public officer, and one that the law looks upon to anſwer; and the plaintiff hath his election to charge either maſter or owners, or both, at his pleaſure, though he can have but one ſatisfaction. *F. Naut. caup. Stab. leg.* 1. *ſ.* 2, 3, 6, 7. 1 *Mod.* 85. *Raym.* 220. 1 *Ven.* 190. 238. 2 *Keb.* 866. 3 *Keb.* 72. 112, 132, 135.

† The which the civil law does ſometimes allow.

If a maſter ſhall receive goods at the wharf, or key, or ſhall ſend his boat for the ſame, and they happen to be loſt, ſhe ſhall likewiſe anſwer, both by the marine and common law.

*Mayor & Com. de* London, againſt Hunt.

Error of Judgment in B. R. in aſſumpſit brought by the mayor and commonalty againſt Hunt, where they declared of a cuſtom that they and their predeceſſors, mayors, &c. had of every maſter of a ſhip eight ſhillings *per* ton, for every ton of cheeſe brought from any place in England to the port of London, *ab oriente de* London-bridge, (to the eaſtward of London-bridge) in the name of weighage;

and that the defendant being master of a ship had brought to the port of London so many tons, which at that rate came to so much, which he had not paid; upon *non assumpsit*, verdict and judgment for the plaintiff. Upon which Hunt the defendant brought a writ of error, and two errors were assigned: 1. That the action did not lie against the master, but that the duty was due from the merchants, owners of the goods; but the judgment was affirmed, for that the master is entrusted with the goods, and hath a recompence from the merchants for bringing the goods, and is responsible for them, and therefore shall be charged for the duty; as it would be infinite to search for the owners of the several goods which are all in the custody of the master who brought them into port, and therefore he shall be charged. 3 *Lev.* 37.

If goods are shipped, and an embargo or restraint is afterwards issued by the prince or state where the master then is, and then he breaks ground or endeavours to sail away, and in consequence thereof any damage ensues, he shall be responsible for the same; the reason is, because his freight is due, and must be paid; nay, although the very goods be seized as *bona contrabanda*. *Digest. lib.* 9. *tit.* 2. *Leg.* 61.

A ship was let out on freight to J. S. in England at three pounds ten shillings *per* ton, to go to Bourdeaux, then an embargo is laid; she afterwards proceeds to Bourdeaux, and the master, without discovering his first contract, agrees with the correspondents there of J. S. to allow him six pounds ten shillings *per* ton; upon this last agreement there covered at law, and equity would not relieve, because the performance of the first agreement was hindered by the embargo. 2 *Vern.* 242.

A master ought not to sail in tempestuous weather, nor put forth to sea, without having first consulted with his company *; nor must he stay in port or harbour without just cause, when a fair wind invites his departure.

* *Lex Oleron.* Judg. 2.

If a vessel proves leaky or disabled, the master ought not for this cause to put any of his merchants goods aboard any enemies ship, without letters of safe-conduct, as by so doing they may be made prize, and he be obliged to answer the damage consequent to the action.

Nor shall he put into any creeks or other places disallowed, except driven in by tempest, but into such ports as are by law appointed. 15 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 8.

Nor ought he to ship any merchandizes, but only at the public ports and keys. 1 *El. c.* 11. *s.* 2.

He must not lade any prohibited or unlawful goods, whereby the whole cargo may be in danger of confiscation, or at least subject to seizure or surreption. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *s.* 14.

He may not set sail without able and sufficient mariners both for quality and number. 1 *Jac. c.* 25. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18.

The ship was libelled against in the admiralty, for that the master being taken by a French privateer, had ransomed the ship for three hundred pounds, and had sued for the payment of it, and was carried prisoner to Dunkirk, and the money was not paid, &c. and sentence was given in the admiralty against the ship; and upon motion for a prohibition, it was denied by Holt, chief justice, then alone in court; because the taking and pledge being upon the high sea, the ship, by the law of the admiralty, shall answer for the redemption of the master by his own contract. *Ex relatione m'ri Place. Ld. Raymond, page* 22. *Wilson verf. Bird.*

Motion was made for a prohibition to the court of admiralty, where a suit was prosecuted against a ship, which the master had hypothecated for necessaries, being upon the sea in stress of weather; and the suggestion was, that the agreement was made, and the money lent upon land, viz. in the port of London, it being a Venetian vessel, which came here by way of trade, and not stress of weather; but *per* Holt, chief justice, the master of the ship has power to hypothecate it, but he cannot sell it; and by the pawning the ship becomes liable to condemnation: this was resolved in solemn debate, in the case of *Costard* v. *Lewstie*, 2 *Will.* and *Mar.* B. R. Then there is no remedy here for the hypothecation, but by way of contract: therefore, since the King's Bench cannot do right to the parties, it will not hinder the admiralty from doing them right; for if the King's Bench allows the hypothecation, and yet denies the remedy, it will be a manifest contradiction.—An action was brought upon the *stat.* 2 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 11. for suing in the admiralty on an hypothecation, and it was held to be out of the statute, in the time of my lord Hale. And as to the objection, that the contract was made upon the land, and the money paid there, it must of necessity be so; for if a man be in distress upon the sea, and compelled to go into port, he must receive the money there, or not at all. And if his ship be impaired by tempest, so that he is forced to borrow money to refit, otherwise she will be lost; and for security of this money, he pledges his ship, since the cause of the pledging arises upon the sea, the suit may well be in the admiralty court: but because there was a precedent, where a prohibition in such case had been granted, the court granted the prohibition, and ordered the plaintiff to declare upon it, for the law seemed clear to them, as before is said. *Lord Raymond, page* 152. *Benzon verf. Jeffries. Costard verf. Lewstie.*

The defendant, as executrix to the master of a ship, libelled in the admiralty court for the wages owing to the testator by the owner; upon which the plaintiff, to have a prohibition, suggested the stat. of 15 *Rich.* II. *cap.* 3. that the admiralty court shall not have cognizance of contracts made upon the land, and shews this contract to have been made upon the land, &c. and this case was moved in several terms, but opposed; and the council for the prohibition argued, that prohibitions are grantable *de jure*, and are not discretionary in the court, *Raym.* 3, 4. That the case in *Winch. Rep.* 8. was the first case where a prohibition was denied, in case of a suit by mariners for their wages, in the Admiralty-court, and the denial was grounded upon compassionate reasons, because they were poor men, and because there they might join in action, but here they must sever; but the said case is contrary to the reason and grounds of the law; for where the contract is made upon the land, though the service was done upon the sea, it is out of the jurisdiction of the admiralty; and so *vice versa*, if the service was done upon the land, and the contract upon the sea, 12 *Co.* 79, 80. *Staunf.* 51. *b. Hob.* 212. A consultation is always denied in case of a suit by mariners, if there is a charter-party; and the sealing of a writing cannot make any difference in reason, *Raym.* 3. a prohibition granted where the master libelled alone; and *e contra*, it was said for the defendant, that the case of mariners was now settled, and ought not to be stirred; but that the great reason why they are permitted to sue there is, the ship is the debtor, and by the law of the admiralty they may attach her, which they cannot do by the common law; and in the Admiralty court they may all join in suit, whereas by the common law they must bring several actions: that the case of the master is not different, for the ship is security to him, and he is but a mariner, and his wages are wages at sea; but however, where the master dies in the voyage, as he did in this case, there can be no reason to exclude his executors from suing in the admiralty, because he had no opportunity of bringing his wages to account with the owners. And in 2 *Vent.* 181. *Allison.* v. *Marsh*, the purser, though an officer of the ship, was allowed to sue for his wages in the admiralty. And in 2 *Keb.* 779. *pl.* 6. *Rex.* v. *Pike*, a prohibition was denied where the master and mariners joined in a suit in the admiralty for their wages, (but Holt said, that a prohibition ought to have been granted *quoad* in the said case) and he cited a case *Hil.* 27 and 28 *Car.* II. C. B. between Cooker and Older, where Atkins and Ellis, justices, were of opinion, that a prohibition ought to be granted to the suit in the admiralty-court, by the master of a ship for his wages, though North, chief justice, and Wynham, justice, held the contrary opinion. But Holt, chief justice, said, that it is an indulgence, that the courts of Westminster permit to sue for their wages in the Admiralty court, because they may all join in suit; and it is grounded upon the principle, *quod communis error facit Jus*; but they will not extend it to the master of the ship, especially if he was master at the beginning of the voyage here in England, and the contract was made with him here. Possibly if the master of a ship died in the voyage, and another man took upon him the charge of the ship upon the sea, such case might be different. As in the case of *Grosvick* v. *Louthsty*, where it was held in this court lately, that if a ship was hypothecated, and money borrowed upon her at Amsterdam, upon the

the voyage, he who lent the money may ſue in the admiralty for it; and this court granted a conſultation in the caſe: but in another caſe, where the money was borrowed upon the ſhip before the voyage, the King's-Bench granted a prohibition, and the parties acquieſced under it. There are many precedents in the court of admiralty of ſuits by the mariners for their wages, but none for the maſter of the ſhip: and the caſes differ; for the mariners contract upon the credit of the ſhip, and the maſter upon the credit of the owners of the ſhip, of whom generally he is one, &c. It was moved that the court would compel the plaintiff to put in bail to the action to be brought for the wages at common law, or otherwiſe deny the prohibition, which it was ſaid had been done often: Holt, chief juſtice, confeſſed that the court had ſometimes interpoſed, and procured bail to be given, but it was by conſent, and in caſe of the proprietor himſelf; but in regard that in this caſe the plantiff was a purchaſer without notice, there was no reaſon, and a prohibition was granted. *S. C.* 1 *Salk.* 33. *Carth.* 518. *Ld. Raymond, page* 576, 577, 578. *Clay verſ. Snelgrave.*

Ballam libelled in the admiralty againſt a ſhip of Norway, for that ſhe being in great diſtreſs for want of an anchor and cable, the maſter contracted with Ballam, who delivered them on board, &c. upon which a motion was made in this court for a prohibition to be directed to the judge of the admiralty, to prohibit him from proceeding in the ſaid ſuit, upon a ſuggeſtion that the ſaid contract was made upon the land, viz. at Ratcliffe, upon the river Thames, the ſaid ſhip being then there; and a rule was made that the defendent ſhould ſhew cauſe why a prohibition ſhould not go: upon which it was ſhewed for cauſe, 1. That of late times the admiralty had been always encouraged, and that they ought to have cognizance of all things incident to the navigation, therefore they ſhall have cognizance of a ſuit for mariners wages. 2. That in this caſe the defendant would be without remedy, if a prohibition ſhould be granted; becauſe the maſter of the ſhip with whom the contract was made, was dead, and the part owners were foreigners. 3. That the contract being upon the land, will not hinder the admiralty to hold plea, as was held in the caſe of *Coſtard* v. *Lewſtie*, where a libel was in the admiralty againſt a ſhip upon a hypothecation made of her at land, and that appeared upon the inſtrument of hypothecation, which mentioned it to have been made at Rotterdam; and yet a prohibition was denied after great conſideration. Now here, though the anchor, &c. were ſold upon the land, yet the ſtreſs of weather which diſabled the ſhip was upon the high ſea, and therefore the original cauſe being within the juriſdiction of the admiralty, will draw the reſidue to it as incident; *ſed non allocatur*. For *per curiam*, this is not like the caſe of *Coſtard* v. *Lewſtie*, 1. Becauſe it does not appear in this caſe, that this ſhip was in her voyage when ſhe became in diſtreſs, for want of an anchor, &c. and at the time of the contract. 2. There was no hypothecation here, as there was in the caſe cited; now where there is an hypothecation, if the admiralty ſhould be prohibited to proceed, &c. the party would be without remedy, for no ſuit can be againſt the ſhip at common law upon it. Now it is true, that by the maritime law every contract with the maſter of a ſhip implies an hypothecation; but it is otherwiſe by the law of England; therefore this being a contract made with the maſter upon the land, it is the common caſe; the admiralty cannot have cognizance of ſuch a ſuit, and therefore a prohibition was granted: but at the importunity of the defendant's council, the court gave order that the plaintiff ſhould declare upon it, &c. *S. C.* 1 *Salk.* 34. *Ld. Raymond, p.* 805, 806. *Mich. term*, 1 *Ann. reg. Juſtin verſ. Ballam.* 2 *Roll. rep.* 111, 9.

Watſon was maſter of a merchant-ſhip, which was taken at ſea by a French privateer; Watſon agreed with the captain of the privateer for the ranſom of the ſhip and goods at one thouſand two hundred pounds, and as a pledge or ſecurity for the payment of the money, Watſon was detained and carried into France; but the ſhip and goods were releaſed, and brought into Briſtol, where the ſhip was unladed, and the goods landed, (after cuſtom paid) and delivered to one Day; but whether in truſt for the benefit of the maſter, or for the uſe of the owners, was not agreed. Watſon commences his ſuit in the court of admiralty againſt the owners, to compel them to pay the one thouſand two hundred pounds, and redeem him; and thereupon a warrant was iſſued out of that court to arreſt the ſhip and goods, *in quadam cauſa ſalvagii*, in order to compel the defendant to appear there, and the ſhip and goods was ſeized thereon: a prohibition was prayed as to the goods, ſuggeſting the ſeizure on land *infra corpus comitatus*, and ſo not within their juriſdiction; it was inſiſted that the maſter had no power to make ſuch an agreement, nor to ſubject the goods to the payment of his ranſom, without the expreſs authority and conſent of his owners. The power of hypothecation in a voyage for neceſſaries is incident to his office, and allowed for the neceſſity of the thing, and the benefit of the owners; but this is not ſo, for this is a redemption, and a new buying of the ſhip; and if this be allowed lawful, it will give a power to the maſter to do an injury to the owners, by obliging them to the performance of an agreement of his making, upon any terms never ſo unreaſonable, and to compel them to pay more than the ſhip and goods are worth, as the agreement in this caſe is: beſides, the power of the maſter is only over the ſhip, and he has no power over the goods and lading to make any diſpoſition thereof; admitting the maſter has ſuch power to ſubject the goods to the payment of his ranſom, yet he ought not to bring the ſuit in his own name, but the ſuit ought to be carried on in the name of the vendee, or purchaſer of the goods. Admitting this ſuit proper, yet the ſeizure is illegal; for the court of admiralty cannot award ſuch proceſs, as their firſt proceſs to compel the party to appear, is in the nature of an execution againſt the goods; and they can no more begin with ſuch proceſs than an inferior court; and as a prohibition ſhall be awarded to an inferior court, in ſuch caſes, ſo ought it in this, though the party have not yet appeared, nor any libel be as yet exhibited; and ſo was it done in the caſe of captain Sands and Sir Joſiah Child. 5 *Will. and Mar. S. C. Salk.* 35. *Ld. Raymond, pag.* 931, 932, 933, 934. *Tranter verſ. Watſon. Trin. term.* 2 *Ann. reginæ.*

On the other ſide it was inſiſted, that no prohibition ought to go in this caſe, for that the maſter has power in this caſe, to ſubject the goods to the payment of his redemption; and it is founded on the ſame reaſon as his power of hypothecation, the neceſſity of the thing, and the benefit of the owners, by parting with ſome part of the goods to ſave the reſt, whereas otherwiſe the whole would have been loſt; ſo is *Molloy* 213, 214, *Hob.* 11, 12. but this being a matter and a cauſe properly within the juriſdiction of the court of admiralty, ſhall be determined there: and in a maritime cauſe, whereof they have cognizance, the proceſs of the court may be executed upon land, *infra corpus comitatus, &c.* As to the objection that the ſuit *in curia admiralitatis*, ought not to be in the maſter's name, it was anſwered, that it is moſt proper in his name, for the captors to whom the ranſom belongs, and who have the maſter in their cuſtody, cannot ſue in their own name, becauſe they are enemies; but if the ſuit be not carried on between proper parties, it is good cauſe for an appeal, and ſhall be determined by the rules of the marine law, but it is no ground for a prohibition. But admitting the merits of the cauſe to be againſt the maſter, yet the owners came too ſoon for a prohibition before they have appeared, and before any libel exhibited, ſo that it cannot appear to this court what the nature of the ſuit is. *Salk.* 31.

The court deſired to hear a civilian before they made any rule in this caſe, and accordingly Dr. Lane attended for the plaintiff, *in curia admiralitatis:* he argued, that ſalvage, or *cauſa ſalvagii*, as is mentioned in the warrant, is of admiral juriſdiction; that the maſter repreſents both the owners of the ſhip and the traders, and has a truſt repoſed in him, which extends to the goods as well as the ſhip; the maſter may detain the goods of the merchant for the freight of the ſhip, or wages of mariners. The maſter in this caſe, by the marine law, hath an hypothecation of the goods to him, to keep till payment be made of the money agreed, and not only a bare poſſeſſion; and therefore though he depart with the poſſeſſion of the goods before payment, that does not diveſt his intereſt. The goods were in the power and poſſeſſion of the enemy, who might have

have kept or deſtroyed them all, if they had not been redeemed by the maſter, which is for the benefit of the owners. Redemption, is a redemption by the maſter, and gives ſecurity for the payment of the money agreed, by ſubjecting his perſon as a pawn or pledge, ſo that he has as it were paid for the goods. This power of redemption is not founded on the Rhodian laws, or the laws of Oleron, but ariſes from the cuſtom and law of nations, and the ſame cuſtom or law gives the maſter in this caſe an intereſt in the ſhip and goods.

It was agreed by the whole court, that no prohibition ſhould be granted in this caſe.

Holt, chief juſtice, ſaid (after other things) that it ſeemed very juſt and reaſonable in this caſe, that the owners of the goods ought to pay the redemption. If a pirate ſhould take the ſhip and goods, and the maſter redeem them, the owners ſhall make him ſatisfaction; and then much more in this caſe, when taken by an enemy. When the maſter makes a compoſition for the benefit of the owners, it is highly reaſonable that he ſhould be indemnified. The whole ſhip and goods would have been prize, if he had not made this compoſition; therefore where there is an inſtant danger of loſing ſhip and goods (as in this caſe, when they were under the capture and power of the enemy) and no hopes of ſaving them then appears (though afterwards it may happen that the ſhip may be reſcued on freſh purſuit) cannot the maſter make ſuch an agreement as this, as well as he may throw part of the goods overboard, in caſe of a tempeſt, to ſave the reſt? The maſter has the cuſtody and care of the ſhip and goods: ſuppoſing then that the maſter has ſuch a power of compounding, the goods then remain to him as a ſecurity, and he may detain them till payment, as he may for freight; but then it is to be conſidered, whether, when he has once delivered them to the owner, or to his uſe, he has not departed with his ſecuriry, and has no way to come at them again, as it is in caſe of freight. Theſe things are conſiderable if we go into the merits of the cauſe, but that not being before us, we give no opinion therein.

A ſhip was outward bound to and being in diſtreſs at ſea in her voyage, put into Boſton in New-England, and there the maſter took up money, which he applied in neceſſaries for the ſhip; and, as a ſecurity for the repayment, by way of hypothecation, made a bill of ſale to the party of part of the ſhip, who now libelled in the court of Admiralty againſt the ſhip and owners, to compel the payment of the money. Serjeant Darnall moved for a prohibition, and a day was given to hear counſel on both ſides. On the day, ſerjeant Darnell inſiſted, that as this caſe is, there ought to go a prohibition, becauſe it appears upon the face of the libel, that this hypothecation was upon land in port, viz. at Boſton, and not upon the ſea, as it ought to be, to give that court a juriſdiction. Beſides, this appears to be a bill of ſale of part of the ſhip, upon which the party may have his remedy at common law, and not a proper hypothecation. Alſo the proceedings are againſt the owners as well as againſt the ſhip; and, if the owners are liable, they are chargeable at common law. S. C. *Salk.* 35. *Ld. Raymond, p.* 982, 983, *and* 984. *Trin. Term.* 2 *Ann. Reg. Johnſon* v. *Shippen.*

Mr. Cheſhyre, againſt the prohibition. It makes no difference whether the hypothecation were upon the ſea or upon land, being done in a voyage; and a prohibition has been denied upon the ſame point as this caſe, in this court, between Caſſart and Lawdſley, *Trin.* 1 *Will.* and *Mar.* where the hypothecation was in port, viz. at Rotterdam. The ſame was adjudged here, *Hil.* 1696, between Benoir and Jeffrys; and, about a year ſince, between Juſtin and Ballam, a prohibition was granted, becauſe it did not appear there was any hypothecation. In this caſe the neceſſity of the thing requires that it be done at land, and it would be prejudicial to navigation, if this ſuit in the Admiralty ſhould not be.

Holt, chief juſtice. The caſe of Coſſart and Lawdſley was the ſame as this; and there, on a demurrer to a declaration in a prohibition, a conſultation was awarded by the whole court. When a hypothecation is made, either for money to buy neceſſaries, or for neceſſaries for the ſhip in a voyage, the court of Admiralty have a juriſdiction, for the party has no other remedy; we cannot give him any remedy againſt the ſhip; and if the ſuit there ſhould not be allowed, the maſter will have no credit to take up neceſſaries for the uſe of the ſhip.

Powel, juſtice, of the ſame opinion.

Holt, chief juſtice. No maſter of a ſhip can have credit abroad, but upon the ſecurity by hypothecation, and ſhall we hinder the court of Admiralty from giving remedy, when we can give none ourſelves? It will be the greateſt prejudice to trade that can be, to grant a prohibition in this caſe. Indeed, if a ſhip be hypothecated here in England before the voyage begin, that is not a matter within the juriſdiction of the court of Admiralty, for it is a contract made here, and the owners can give ſecurity to perform the contract. Which Powel agreed.

Holt, chief juſtice. There is no difference whether the hypothecation be alledged in the libel to be made in port, or appears ſo to be by the ſuggeſtion, as it was in the caſe of Coſſart and Lawdſley; and, as to what you ſay, that this is a bill of ſale, and ſo a remedy at law, that is not ſo, for the maſter has no authority to ſell any part of the ſhip, and his ſale transfers no property; but he may hypothecate. And ſince the proceedings in the court of Admiralty are againſt the owners, as well as againſt the ſhip, let a prohibition go *quoad* the proceedings againſt the owners, and let them go on to condemn the ſhip. To which the reſt of the judges agreed.

The preceeding few caſes may ſerve to ſhew the power lodged in the captain to engage his ſhip for payment of what caſh he may take up for his repairs and uſe; and though the law diſallows of his ſelling her, yet ſhe is obliged for the fulfilling his contracts ſo far as her value, and that of her freight (as has been ſhewn before;) though he on his part muſt give a juſt account to the owners, how the money he has received was expended, and is conſequently anſwerable to them for the ſame, and to act up to the truſt repoſed in him, and the good conduct expected from him.

He muſt not carry any counterfeit cockets, or other fictitious and colourable ſhip-papers, that may occaſionally involve the goods of the innocent with the nocent. 13 *R.* II. *c.* 9.

Nor muſt he refuſe the payment of any juſt and ordinary duties, and port charges, cuſtoms or impoſts, to the hazard of any part of his lading; yet, if he offers that which is due and he ought to pay, then he is excuſed. *Leg. Oleron.* 24.

Every maſter ought carefully to examine his rigging and tackle before proceeding on a voyage, that he may not ſail with any inſufficient and defective; nor ought he to go with fewer or ſmaller cables than is uſual and requiſite for a ſhip of equal burthen with his; for, if any damage happens in delivering the goods, either into a lighter or otherwiſe, by the breaking of a rope or the like, he muſt be anſwerable for it; but, when once out of his cuſtody, he is no farther reſponſible; ſo that if on taking them out of the lighter, at the wharf or key, they are any ways damnified, the wharfinger then (and not the maſter) muſt be accountable for it. But if fine goods, or the like, are put into a cloſe lighter, to be conveyed from the ſhip to the key, it is uſual in this caſe for the maſter to ſend a competent number of his mariners to look to the merchandize, and if then any part thereof be loſt or embezzled, the maſter is reſponſible, [Paſch. 26. *Car.* ruled at Guild-Hall by L C. J. Holt.] and not the wharfinger; but if ſuch goods are to be ſent aboard a ſhip, there the wharfinger, at his peril, muſt take care the ſame be preſerved.

On his arrival at his deſtined port, his firſt care ſhould be to ſee his ſhip well anchored and moored, and, after ſhe is reladen, not to depart till ſhe is cleared; for if any damage happens through his, or his mariners fault or neglect, whereby the cargo is prejudiced, he muſt anſwer the ſame. 18 *Eliz. c.* 9. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11.

And as the law ſubjects him to the aforeſaid things in port, ſo it does to many others in his voyage; as that if he deviates in his courſe without juſt cauſe, or ſteers a dangerous and unuſual one, when he may have a more ſecure paſſage (though to avoid illegal impoſitions he may ſomewhat change it;) nor may he ſail by places infeſted with pirates, enemies, or other places notoriouſly known to be unſafe, nor engage his veſſel among rocks, or remarkable ſands, not being neceſſitated thereto by violence of wind and weather, or deluded by falſe lights. *Digeſt. l. cum in Debito F. de Probat. Lib.* 1 *Cod. de Navibus non excuſ.*

No

No maſter is anſwerable for the contracts of his mariners, but they may be detained for their crimes.

He that will charge a maſter with a fault, in relation to his duty, by the marine law, muſt not think that a general charge is ſufficient, but he ought to aſſign and ſpecify the very fault wherewith he is ſo charged.

So he that will infer, that ſuch or ſuch a ſad diſaſter hath happened, or been occaſioned by reaſon of ſome fault in the mariners, muſt not only prove the fault itſelf, but muſt alſo prove that that fault did diſpoſe to ſuch a ſad event; or that ſuch a misfortune could not have happened, without ſuch a fault precedent.

If an infant, being maſter of a ſhip, contracts to bring goods from any port to England, and there to deliver them, but does not deliver them according to agreement, but waſtes and conſumes them, he may be ſued in the Admiralty court, although he be an infant; for this ſuit is but in nature of a detinue, or a trover and converſion at the common law; and a prohibition denied for that cauſe. 1 *Rolls Abr.* 530. *Furnes* v. *Smith.*

A maſter can let out his veſſel to freight, take in goods and paſſengers, mend and furniſh his ſhip; and to that effect he may (if need be) in a ſtrange country, borrow money upon the ſhip, ſome of the tackle, or ſell ſome of the merchandize; and in this latter caſe, the higheſt price that the remainder is ſold for, muſt be paid to the merchant or owner of them, who in return muſt pay freight as well for what (through neceſſity) was ſo ſold, as for what remained. *Leg. Oleron.* 1. But if the ſhip in the voyage afterwards ſhould happen to be caſt away, then only ſhall be tendered the price that the goods were bought for.

By the common law, the maſter of a ſhip could not impawn the ſhip or goods; for any property, either general or ſpecial, was not in him, nor is ſuch power given unto him by the conſtituting of him a maſter. Yet the common law hath held the law of Oleron reaſonable, that if a ſhip ſprings a leak at ſea, or is in want of victuals, and other neceſſaries, whereby ſhe is either in danger, or the voyage may be defeated, that in ſuch caſe of neceſſity the maſter may impawn for money, or other things, to relieve ſuch extremities, by employing the ſame to that end; and therefore he being the perſon truſted with the ſhip and the voyage, may be reaſonably thought to have the power given to him implicitly, rather than to ſee the whole loſt. *Leg. Oleron. c.* 22. *Hob.* 11, 12. *Latch.* 252. *Noy* 95. *Mo.* 918. *Leg. Oleron, c.* 1, 12. *Salk.* 34. *pl.* 7.

But a maſter, for any debt of his own, cannot legally impawn or hypothecate the ſhip, &c. for the ſame is no ways liable, but in caſe of neceſſity, for the relief and compleating of the voyage.

Nor can he ſell or diſpoſe of the ſame, without any authority or licence from the owners; and when he does impawn or hypothecate the veſſel or furniture, he ought to have the conſent and advice of his mariners. 1 *Siderf.* 453. *vide* 1 *Rolls Abr.* 530, *pl.* 2.

A ſhip being repaired, &c. in the Thames, is not liable, but the owners. *Peer Will.* 367. *L. Raym.* 152. *Judgment.*

Though the maſter cannot on every caſe of neceſſity impawn the veſſel or furniture; for if ſhe be freighted, and he (being an owner) is to join with the reſt in buying proviſions for the voyage, and perhaps he wants money (a great ſign of neceſſity) yet cannot he impawn the veſſel or furniture, otherwiſe, or for more, than his own ſhare in her, the which he may transfer and grant, as a man may do an eighth or fifth part in land or houſes; but ſuch obligation of the veſſel muſt be in foreign parts or places where the calamity or neceſſity is univerſal on the veſſel, that will oblige all the owners. *Oleron cap.* 22.

If the veſſel happens afterwards to be caſt away, and the mariners by their great pains and care recover ſome of the wreck and lading, the maſter in that caſe may pledge the ſame, and diſtribute the product among his diſtreſſed ſailors, in order to the carrying them home to their own country: but if the mariners no way contributed to the ſalvage, then their reward is loſt and ſunk with the veſſel. And if there be any conſiderable part of the cargo ſaved, he ought not to diſmiſs the mariners till advice from the freighters or laders; for otherwiſe, perchance, he may be made liable. *Ditto, c.* 3.

If merchants freight a veſſel at their own charges, and ſet her to ſea, and ſhe happens afterwards to be weather-bound, the maſter may impawn either the ſhip or lading at his pleaſure, or at leaſt ſuch as he could moſt conveniently raiſe money on, rather than ſee the whole voyage overſet or loſt; and if he cannot pawn the lading, he may ſell the ſame, that is, ſo much as is neceſſary; in all which caſes his act obliges; however, orders and inſtructions from his owners are as carefully to be regarded and followed as the magnet. *Leg. Oleron. c.* 22.

When a maſter ſhall arrive with his ſhip at Graveſend, he ſhall not be above three days coming from thence to the place of diſcharge; nor is he to touch at any key or wharf till he comes to Cheſter key, unleſs hindered by contrary winds or draught of water, or other juſt impediment, to be allowed by the officers: and likewiſe he or his purſer are there to make oath of the burthen, contents, and lading of his ſhip, and of the marks, number, contents, and qualities of every parcel of goods therein laden, to the beſt of his knowledge; alſo where, and in what port ſhe took in her lading, and what country built, and how manned, who the maſter during the voyage, and who the owners; and in out-ports muſt come up to the place of unlading, as the condition of the port requires, and make entries, on pain of one hundred pounds.....Nor is ſuch a maſter to lade aboard any goods outwards to any place whatſoever, without entering the ſhip at the cuſtom-houſe; her captain, maſter, burthen, guns, ammunition, and to what place ſhe intends, and before departure to bring in a note under his hand, of every merchant that ſhall have laid aboard any goods, together with the marks and numbers of ſuch goods, and be ſworn as to the ſame, on pain of one hundred pounds. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18.

Note, There is a liſt of all foreign-built ſhips in the Exchequer.

The mate of a ſhip, as well as a ſingle mariner (or a number of them) may ſue in the Admiralty for their wages, as the mate only differs from the ſailors in title, being a ſervant to the maſter, with whom he contracts as the mariners do. *Ld. Raymond. p.* 398, 632.

Upon a motion for a new trial in an action for a ſeaman's wages, Holt, chief juſtice, ſaid, that if the ſhip be loſt before the firſt port of delivery, then the ſeamen loſe all their wages; but if, after ſhe has been at the firſt port of delivery, then they loſe only thoſe from the laſt port of delivery; but, if they run away, although they have been at a port of delivery, yet they loſe all their wages. *Ex relatione m'ri Jacob. Ditto, p.* 639.

In an action brought for mariners wages, for a voyage from Carolina to London, it appeared that the plaintiff ſerved three or four months, and before the ſhip came to London, which was the delivering port, he was impreſſed into the queen's ſervice, and afterwards the ſhip arrived at the delivering port; and ruled by Holt, on evidence at Guild-hall, that the plaintiff ſhould recover *pro tanto* as he ſerved, the ſhip coming ſafe to the delivering port. Afterwards in another cauſe in ſuch an action, it appeared, that the plaintiff was hired by the defendant at Carolina, to ſerve on board the Jane ſloop, whereof the defendant was maſter, from Carolina to England, at three pounds *per* month; that he ſerved two months, then the ſhip was taken by a French privateer, and ranſomed, and, juſt as ſhe came off Plymouth, the plaintiff was impreſſed, &c. and then the ſhip came ſafe into the river of Thames, where ſhe diſpoſed of her cargo; and, by Holt, the plaintiff can have no wages, the ſhip having been taken by the enemy and ranſomed. Mr. Raymond inſiſted, that in that caſe he ſhould recover *pro rata*, and that the uſage among merchants was ſo; which Holt ſaid, if he could prove, it would do; but wanting proof of it, the plaintiff was nonſuited. *Ld. Raymond. p.* 1211, 1212. *Mich. Term.* 4 *Ann. Reg. Wiggins* v. *Ingleton. Chandler* v. *Meade.*

The ſuit here was for ſeamen's wages, upon the arrival of the ſhip at Guinea. Powell, juſtice, ſaid, he remembered a caſe of the like nature, where a ſuit was commenced in the court of Admiralty, by ſailors for their wages, upon the arrival of the ſhip at Newfoundland; and though the merchants all held it no port of delivery, yet the court of Admiralty held the contrary, and ſo did the court of common-pleas, upon a motion for a prohibition. *Ld. Raymond. p.* 1248. *Brown.* v. *Benn* & alios. *Eaſt. Term.* 5 *Ann. Reg.*

Every ſeaman that ſhall ſerve in any of his majeſty's ſhips, or in any ſhip belonging to any ſubjects of his ma-

jesty's dominions, shall allow out of the wages for such service, six-pence *per menſem*, for support of Greenwich hospital, &c. which monthly allowance shall be collected as shall be appointed by the commissioners for executing the office of lord high admiral. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 10.

Licences shall be given by order of his majesty, or the commissioners of the admiralty, to any landman desirous to apply themselves to the sea-service, to serve in merchant ships, or other trading vessels, which shall be a protection against being impressed, for two years following the date of such licence; provided that such landmen bring to the register two inhabitants, or known in the place where they so enter themselves, who shall assert their knowledge of such landmen for two years past, and in what business they have known them employed; and if any person shall vouch any one for a landman, who shall be proved to be a seaman, he shall forfeit twenty pounds; and any seaman taking another's name, or any person counterfeiting any licence, shall forfeit twenty pounds, and be liable to such further punishment, as by law may be inflicted for such misdemeanour. *Ditto, ſ.* 15.

For the better collecting the duties of six-pence *per menſem*, granted by 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 21. it shall be lawful for the commissioners for registering seamen, or their deputies, by warrant, to cause all masters of ships, not in his majesty's service, to appear before them, and such masters upon oath to examine, as to the number, wages, and time of service, of every person belonging to such ships; and if such masters shall refuse to appear, or shall obstinately refuse to give a discovery of the matters aforesaid, upon their oaths, such offenders shall forfeit ten pounds to the uses mentioned in the said act, to be recovered by action, &c.

Repealed, as to the registering of seamen, by 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 64. 8 and 9 *Will.* III. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 6.

The commissioners, &c. shall take the solemn affirmation of quakers, instead of their oath. *Ditto, ſ.* 7.

Forasmuch as diverse persons have personated seamen, who have served, or are supposed to have served on board his majesty's ships, and thereby have received money at the pay-office, or elsewhere, and have also forged letters of attorney, or bills of sale, assignments, or last wills, in the names of persons who have served, or were supposed to have served, on board his majesty's ships, and do also procure men and women to personate, and divers wicked persons do of their own accord personate, the wives, relations, or creditors of such seamen, and thereby have falsely taken out letters of administration to such seamen, or have forged letters of attorney, bills of sale, or other authorities, in the names of the executors or administrators of such seamen, for the receipt of such wages; every such person, their aiders or abetters, that shall be convicted of the said crimes, shall, over and above the penalties inflicted by any laws in force, forfeit two hundred pounds, with costs, &c. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 3.

No will of any seaman contained in the same instrument, paper, or parchment, with a letter of attorney, shall be good in law. *Ditto, ſ.* 6.

No person shall take more than one shilling for the seal, writing, or suing forth letters of administration, granted to the wife or children of any seaman, dying in the pay of his majesty's navy, unless the goods of such seamen amount to twenty pounds; and if any officer take more, he shall forfeit to the party grieved ten pounds. *Ditto, ſ.* 7.

It shall be lawful for two justices of peace, as also for mayors, aldermen, bailiffs, and other chief officers and magistrates of any city, or town corporate; and likewise for the church-wardens, and overseers of the poor of the several parishes, with the approbation of such justices of peace, mayors, &c. to bind out any boys of the age of ten years or upwards, or who shall be chargeable, or whose parents are chargeable to the parish, or who shall beg for alms, to be apprentices to the sea-service, to any of her majesty's subjects, masters, or owners of any ship belonging to any port within England, Wales, or Berwick, until such boys shall attain the age of twenty-one years; and the age of every such boy shall be mentioned in his indentures, taken from a copy of the register book, wherein the time of his being baptized is entered (where the same can be had) which copy shall be given and attested by the minister or curate of such parish, without fee, and may be wrote without stamp: and where no such entry can be found, such justices, mayors, &c. shall inform themselves of such boy's age, and insert the same in the indentures; and the age so inserted, shall be taken to be his true age. 2 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 1.

The church-wardens and overseers of the parish, from whence such boy shall be bound apprentice, shall pay to such master, at the time of his binding, fifty shillings, to provide clothing and bedding. *Ditto, ſ.* 2.

The overseers of the poor of every townſhip or village may execute the powers hereby directed. *Ditto, ſ.* 3.

No such apprentice shall be impressed, or suffered to enter into her majesty's service, till he arrive to the age of eighteen years. *Ditto, ſ.* 4.

The church-wardens and overseers shall send the indentures to the collector of customs, residing at any port whereunto such masters of such ships belong, who shall enter all indentures so sent, and make an endorsement of the registry thereof, without fee; and such collector, neglecting to enter such indentures, and endorse the same, or making false entries, shall forfeit five pounds, for the use of the poor of the parish, from whence such boy was bound; and such collector shall transmit certificates to the Admiralty, containing the names and ages of every such apprentice, and to what ship he belongs; and, upon receipt of such certificates, protections shall be given for such apprentices, till they attain their ages of eighteen years, without fee; which certificates are not required to be wrote on stamped paper, *&c. Ditto, ſ.* 5.

Every person to whom any poor parish boy shall be put apprentice, according to 43 *Eliz. c.* 2. may, with the approbation of two justices of peace of the county, dwelling in, or near, the parish where such poor boy was bound, or with the approbation of any mayor, alderman, bailiff, or other chief officer or magistrate of any city, borough, or town coporate, where such poor boy was bound by indenture, turn over such poor boy apprentice to any master of such ship, for the remaining time of his apprenticeship; all which indentures of assignment are to be registered, and certificates thereof transmitted, by such collector at the ports where such parish apprentices shall be so assigned over, in manner aforesaid; and protections shall be given for such apprentices, till they attain their age of eighteen years. *Ditto, ſ.* 6.

All such poor boys, till they attain their ages of eighteen years, shall be exempted from payment of six-pence *per* month to Greenwich hospital. *Ditto, ſ.* 7.

All masters or owners of ships of thirty to fifty tons, shall be obliged to take one such apprentice, and one more for the next fifty tons, and one more for every hundred tons such ship shall exceed the burthen of one hundred tons; and such master or owner refusing to take such apprentice, shall forfeit ten pounds for the use of the poor of the parish, from whence such boy was bound. *Ditto, ſ.* 8.

Every master or owner of such ship, after his arrival into port, and before he clears out, shall give an account under his hand to the collector of such port to which he belongs, containing the names of such apprentices as are then in his service. *Ditto, ſ.* 9.

Every such apprentices shall be sent to the port to which his master shall belong, by the church-wardens and overseers of the parish from whence such apprentice is bound, the charges to be provided, as the charges for sending of vagrants. *Ditto, ſ.* 10.

The counterpart of such indentures shall be attested by the collector at the port, (where such apprentice shall be bound or assigned over) and the constable, or other officer, who shall bring such apprentices, which constable, &c. shall transmit the counterparts of such indentures, to the church-wardens and overseers of the parishes, from whence such apprentice shall be bound. *Ditto, ſ.* 11.

Two justices of peace, dwelling in or near the ports, and all mayors, aldermen, bailiffs, and other chief officers and magistrates of any city, borough, or town corporate, in, or near adjoining to such port to which such ship shall arrive, shall have power to enquire into, and examine, hear, and determine all complaints of ill usage from the masters to such apprentices, and also of all such as shall voluntarily put themselves apprentices to the sea service,

as

as aforesaid, as in other cases between masters and apprentices. *Ditto, f.* 12.

Every such collector shall keep a register, containing as well the number and burthen of such ships, together with the masters or owners names, as also the names of such apprentices in each ship, belonging to their ports, and from what parishes such apprentices were sent, and shall transmit copies of such register to the quarter-sessions, or to such cities, boroughs, towns corporate, parishes, or places, when required, for which copies no fee shall be taken, &c. *Ditto, f.* 13.

Every custom-house officer, at each of the ports, shall insert at the bottom of their cockets, the number of men and boys on board the ships, at their going out of every such port, describing the apprentices by their names, ages, and dates of their indentures, for which no fee shall be taken. *Ditto, f.* 14.

Every person, who shall voluntarily bind himself apprentice to any master or owner of a ship, shall not be impress into her majesty's sea service, during three years from the date of the indentures, which indentures are to be registered, and certificates thereof transmitted by such collector, at the port where such apprentices shall bind themselves, as aforesaid; upon receipt of which, protections shall be given for the said first three years of their apprenticeship, without fee. *Ditto, f.* 15.

When parish children of the age of eighteen years, and other voluntary apprentices, shall be impressed, or enter into her majesty's service, the masters of such apprentices shall be entitled to able seamen's wages, for such of their apprentices as shall upon examination be found qualified. *Ditto, f.* 17.

No master shall be obliged to take any apprentice under the age of thirteen years, or who shall not appear to be fitly qualified, both as to health and strength of body, for that service; and any widow of the master of such ship, or the executor, or administrator of such master, who shall have been obliged to take such parish boys apprentice, shall have the same power of assigning over such apprentices, to any other masters of ships who have not their complement, as it is given by the act, 2 *Ann. cap.* 6. to such persons as have taken apprentices in pursuance of 43 *Eliz. cap.* 2. 4 *and* 5 *Ann. c.* 19. *f.* 16.

No persons of the age of eighteen years shall have any protection from her majesty's sea service, who shall have been in any sea service before the time they bound themselves apprentices. *Ditto, f.* 17.

To the intent that the six-pence *per mensem* may be effectually collected, every person that shall serve her majesty, or any other, in any of her majesty's ships, or in any ships belonging to the subjects of Great-Britain or Ireland, or dominions thereunto belonging, and every master working in his own ship, whether employed upon the high sea or coasts, or in any port, bay, or creek, (other than such apprentices under the age of eighteen years, as are exempted from payment of six-pence *per mensem*, by 2 *Ann. cap.* 6. and persons employed in any boat upon the coasts, in taking of fish, which are brought fresh on shore into Great Britain and Ireland, and persons employed in boats that trade only from place to place, within any river, or in open boats upon the coasts) shall pay the said six-pence *per mensem*, for the support of Greenwich-Hospital. 10 *Ann. c.* 17. *f.* 1.

The master of every ship, not in her majesty's service, is required to deduct out of the wages accruing to such seamen, sixpence *per mensem*, and pay the same to such officers as shall be appointed by the commissioners for executing the office of lord-high-admiral. *Ditto, f.* 2.

It shall be lawful for the commissioners executing the office of lord-high-admiral, to appoint receivers of the said duty, and to authorize such receivers to depute the collectors, or other officers of the customs, of the outports, and of the ports of Ireland, or such other as they shall think fit, to collect the same; and it shall be lawful for the commissioners executing the office of lord-high-admiral, to make such allowance to them out of the said duties, as they shall judge reasonable. *Ditto, f.* 3.

It shall be lawful for the said receivers, or their deputies, by warrant, to summon all masters, or (in their absence) the owners of ships, not in her majesty's service, to appear at the office of the said receivers, &c. (so as the person summoned be not obliged to travel above ten miles) which receivers, or their deputies, are impowered to examine every such master or owner, as to the number and times of service of all persons belonging to such ships, who are chargeable with the said six-pence *per mensem*; and, if such masters or owners shall refuse, when summoned (not having a reasonable excuse) to appear, or if they shall obstinately refuse to make discovery of the matters aforesaid upon their oaths, or shall neglect to pay the monies due to the hospital within fourteen days after they shall be cleared inwards, such offenders shall forfeit twenty pounds, &c. And if any such master shall attempt to go to sea with his ship, before he hath paid the said duties for the voyage preceding, such receivers, or their deputies, are impowered to stop such ship; and, upon the death or removal of any master, the owners shall deliver to the succeeding master a true account of the said duty due to the hospital, and money sufficient for the payment of the same, and, in default thereof, such receivers, or their deputies, may stop such ship from proceeding to sea. *Ditto, f.* 4.

In all cases where by this act an oath is required to be taken, the solemn affirmation of quakers shall be accepted instead of such oath; and, in case any quaker shall, upon such affirmation, declare any matter which shall be false, or if any other person shall, pursuant to this act, wilfully make a false oath, he (being lawfully convicted) shall suffer like punishment, as persons convicted of wilful perjury. *Ditto, f.* 5.

No private contracts made by any seamen shall obstruct or delay the payment of the duties appropriated to the said hospital. *Ditto, f.* 6.

This act shall be a publick act, &c. *Ditto, f.* 7.

Nothing in this act shall oblige the payment of the six-pence *per mensem*, by any masters or servants of the hoys or vessels belonging to the port of London, and employed within the North Foreland, in bringing corn, fish, or other provisions for London. *Ditto, f.* 8.

The commissioners of the admiralty shall consider as qualified for an admission into the said hospital, any seaman who shall offer himself to be admitted, and shall produce a certificate of his having been wounded or hurt in defending any ship belonging to the subjects of her majesty against enemies, or in taking any ship from the enemy, and thereby disabled from sea service. *This sect. confirmed by* 8 *Geo.* II. *cap.* 29. *f.* 10. *Ditto, f.* 20.

The governors, ministers, and consuls, appointed by his majesty in foreign parts, or, where none such are resident, any two British merchants there residing, are required to send and provide for all seafaring men and boys, subjects of Great Britain, that shall, by shipwreck, capture, or other unavoidable accident, be driven, or cast away to such foreign parts; and the said governors, &c. are required to subsist such seafaring men and boys after the rate of six-pence *per diem* each, and to send bills of their disbursements, with proper vouchers, to the commissioners of the navy, who are to cause immediate payment to be made of such bills; and the said governors, &c. shall put the said men and boys on board the first ship belonging to his majesty that shall arrive at any parts within a convenient distance; and if no ship of war shall be within a convenient distance, they shall send the said men and boys on board such merchant ships as are bound for Great-Britain, and are in want of men to make up their complement; but if neither case happen, they shall provide a passage homeward for such men and boys in the first merchant ship bound for Great-Britain; and every master of a merchant ship homeward bound from thence, shall take on board so many of such seafaring men and boys as the said governors, &c. shall direct, not exceeding four for each hundred tons of his ship. 1 *Geo.* II. *stat.* 2. *c.* 14. *f.* 12.

Every master of a vessel who shall produce a certificate under the hands of the said governors, &c. certifying the numbers and names of the men and boys taken on board by their direction, and the time of taking them, and shall make an affidavit at his return, setting forth the time during which he subsisted them, and that he did not, during that time, want of his own complement of men, or how many he did want, and for what time, shall receive from the commissioners of the navy six-pence *per diem* for the passage,

paſſage, and proviſions of each man and boy, from the day of their embarkation homewards, to the day of their arrival, or being put into ſome ſhip of war; ſix-pence *per diem* only being deducted for ſuch time as he wanted of his complement. *Ditto, f.* 13.

The ſeveral acts concerning the duty of ſix-pence *per* month, payable by all ſeamen, for ſupport of Greenwich-hoſpital, ſhall extend to all ſhips belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects within the iſlands of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, Sark and Man, and within all his majeſty's dominions in America, as well as to thoſe within Great Britain and Ireland. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *f.* 1.

For the better collecting the ſaid duty, it ſhall be lawful for the receivers thereof to depute any officer of the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the ſaid iſlands and colonies, or ſuch other perſons as they ſhall think fit, to collect the ſame; and the commiſſioners of the Admiralty may make ſuch allowance to them out of the ſaid duty as they ſhall judge reaſonable. *Ditto, f.* 2.

The collectors of the duties in the ports of the ſaid iſlands and colonies ſhall ſummon and examine upon oath all maſters and owners of ſhips belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, as by 10 *Ann. c.* 17. And if any ſuch maſter ſhall neglect to appear and make ſuch diſcovery, ſuch maſter, &c. ſhall forfeit twenty pounds, money of Great Britain. *Ditto, f.* 3.

All maſters, &c. of ſhips belonging to the king's ſubjects within the ſaid iſlands or colonies, ſhall pay ſuch part of the ſaid duty as ſhall be due at their arrival, and during their continuance in Great Britain or Ireland, within the ſaid kingdoms; and ſuch part as ſhall be due at the time of their return to, and during their continuance in the ſaid iſlands or colonies, within the ſaid iſlands and colonies; and all maſters, &c. of ſhips belonging to any ſubjects of his majeſty within Great Britain or Ireland, who ſhall trade from thence to any of the ſaid iſlands or colonies, ſhall pay the ſaid duty of ſix-pence *per* month, only in Great-Britain or Ireland. *Ditto, f.* 4.

It ſhall be lawful for the receivers of the duty, and their deputies, by warrant, to ſummon and examine upon oath all maſters, &c. of ſhips employed by the navy, victualling, ordnance, cuſtoms, poſt-office, or any other public offices of the crown, in the ſervice of his majeſty; and if ſuch maſter, &c. refuſe to appear, or to make diſcovery, or ſhall neglect to pay the ſaid duty, they ſhall forfeit twenty pounds. *Ditto, f.* 5.

The ſecretaries or chief clerks of the navy, &c. uſually employing ſhipping for the ſervice of his majeſty, ſhall, on the firſt January in each year, or within twenty days following, deliver into the office of the receiver of the duty in the port of London, a liſt of the ſhips that, in the year preceding, ſhall have been employed by ſuch offices, and of all ſhips which remain in the ſervice of ſuch office, and of ſuch as ſhall be diſcharged, and of the names of the maſters, &c. and the number of ſeamen employed in every ſuch ſhip; and no treaſurer, or other officer belonging to ſuch office, ſhall make out or pay any bill for the freight of any ſhip ſo employed, or pay any wages to any maſter, &c. till ſuch maſter, &c. ſhall produce to ſuch treaſurer, &c. an acquittance ſigned by the receiver or his deputy, whereby it ſhall appear that ſuch maſter, &c. hath paid the ſaid duty of ſix-pence *per* month, and that he is not more than thirty days in arrear to the hoſpital; and if any default ſhall be made by any ſecretary, &c. he ſhall forfeit fifty pounds.

All maſters of merchant ſhips or other private veſſels, liable to the duty of ſix-pence *per* month, ſhall pay the ſaid duty before any ſuch ſhips ſhall be cleared inwards, in any ports of Great Britain or Ireland, or the iſlands of Guernſey, Jerſey, &c. or of the colonies in America; and no officer of the cuſtoms ſhall clear inwards any merchant ſhip liable to the ſaid duty, or grant any warrant, or give or make out any cocket, tranſires, returns or diſcharges to ſuch ſhips, nor ſuffer them to go out of any port till the maſter, &c. produce to the officer an acquittance ſigned by the receiver, whereby it ſhall appear, that ſuch maſter, &c. hath paid the ſaid duty, and that he is not more than thirty days in arrear: and every maſter of ſuch ſhip, who ſhall neglect to pay the ſix-pence *per* month, and alſo every officer of the cuſtoms who ſhall make default in the premiſes ſhall forfeit twenty pounds. *Ditto, f.* 6.

It ſhall not be lawful for any maſter of a ſhip, bound beyond the ſeas, to carry any mariner, except his apprentices, from the port where he was ſhipped to proceed on any voyage beyond the ſeas, without firſt coming to an agreement with ſuch mariners for their wages, which agreement ſhall be made in writing, declaring what wages each ſeaman is to have for ſo long time as they ſhall ſhip themſelves for, and alſo expreſs in the agreement the voyage for which ſuch ſeaman was ſhipped; and if any ſuch maſter ſhall carry out any mariner, except his apprentice, upon any voyage beyond the ſeas, without firſt entering into ſuch agreement, and he and they ſigning the ſame, he ſhall forfeit five pounds for every ſuch mariner to the uſe of Greenwich Hoſpital, to be recovered on information on the oath of one witneſs, &c. and in caſe he refuſes to pay the forfeiture, it ſhall be levied by diſtreſs, &c. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *f.* 1.

If any ſeaman ſhip himſelf on board any merchant veſſel, on an intended voyage for parts beyond the ſeas, he ſhall be obliged to ſign ſuch agreement within three days after he ſhall have entered himſelf, which agreement ſhall be concluſive to all parties for the time contracted for. *Ditto, f.* 2.

If any ſeaman ſhall deſert, or refuſe to proceed on the voyage, or ſhall deſert in parts beyond the ſeas, after he ſhall have ſigned ſuch contract, he ſhall forfeit to the owners of ſuch ſhip, the wages due to him at the time of deſerting, or refuſing to proceed on the voyage. *Ditto, f.* 3.

If any ſuch ſeaman ſhall deſert, or abſent himſelf from ſuch ſhip, after he hath ſigned ſuch contract, upon application made to any juſtice of peace by the maſter, or other perſon having charge of the ſhip, it ſhall be lawful for ſuch juſtice to iſſue his warrant to apprehend ſuch ſeaman; and if he ſhall refuſe to proceed on the voyage, and ſhall not give a ſufficient reaſon for ſuch refuſal, to the ſatisfaction of the juſtice, to commit him to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour, not exceeding thirty days, nor leſs than fourteen. *Ditto, f.* 4.

If any ſeaman ſhall abſent himſelf from the veſſel to which he belongs without leave of the maſter, or other chief officer having charge of ſuch ſhip, he ſhall for every day's abſence forfeit two day's pay to the uſe of Greenwich Hoſpital. *Ditto, f.* 5.

If any ſeaman, not entering into the ſervice of his majeſty, ſhall leave the veſſel to which he belongs, before he ſhall have a diſcharge in writing from the maſter, or other perſon having the charge of ſuch veſſel, he ſhall forfeit one month's pay. *Ditto, f.* 6.

On the arrival of any veſſel into Great Britain, from parts beyond the ſeas, the maſters ſhall pay the ſeamen their wages, if demanded, in thirty days after the veſſel's being entered at the cuſtom-houſe (except where a covenant ſhall be entered into the contrary) or at the time the ſaid ſeamen ſhall be diſcharged, which ſhall firſt happen, deducting out of the wages the penalties by this act impoſed, under penalty of paying to ſuch ſeamen that ſhall be unpaid twenty ſhillings over and above the wages to be recovered as the wages may be recovered; and ſuch payment of wages ſhall be good in law, notwithſtanding any action, bill of ſale, attachment, or incumbrance whatſoever. *Ditto, f.* 7.

No ſeaman, by ſigning ſuch contract, ſhall be deprived of uſing any means for the recovery of wages, which he may now lawfully uſe; and where it ſhall be neceſſary that the contract in writing ſhould be produced in court, no obligation ſhall lie on any ſeaman to produce the ſame, but the maſter or owner of the ſhip; and no ſeaman ſhall fail in any action or proceſs for recovery of wages, for want of ſuch contract being produced. *Ditto, f.* 8.

The maſters or owners of ſhips ſhall have power to deduct out of the wages of any ſeamen all penalties incurred by this act, and to enter them in a book, and to make oath, if required, to the truth thereof; which book ſhall be ſigned by the maſter and two principal officers belonging to ſuch ſhip, ſetting forth, that the penalties contained in ſuch book are the whole penalties ſtopt from any ſeamen during the voyage; which penalties (except the forfeiture of wages to the owners, on the deſertion of any ſeaman, or on refuſing to proceed on the voyage) ſhall go to the uſe of Greenwich Hoſpital, to be paid and accounted for

for by the masters of ships coming from beyond the seas to the same officer at any port, who collects the six-pence *per* month, which officer shall have power to administer an oath to every master touching the truth of such penalties. *Ditto, s.* 9.

If any masters or owners of ships shall deduct out of the wages of any seamen any of the penalties by this act directed, to the use of Greenwich Hospital, and shall not pay the money to some officer who collects the six-pence *per* month, in the port where the deduction shall be made, within three months after such deduction, they shall forfeit treble the value to the use of the hospital; which, together with the money deducted, shall be recovered by the same means, as the penalties for not duly paying the six-pence *per* month. *Ditto, s.* 10.

This act shall be a publick act. *s.* 11.

This act shall continue five years, &c. *s.* 12.

Nothing in this act shall debar any seaman from entering into the service of his majesty; nor shall such seaman for such entry forfeit the wages due to him during his service in such merchant ship; nor shall such entry be deemed a desertion. *s.* 13.

Continued by 8 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. to the twenty-fifth of March, 1749, &c. Farther continued by 23 *Geo.* II. *p.* 487. to the twenty-fifth of March, 1764; and from thence to the end of the then next sessions of parliament.

Where any goods shall be laden on board any English ship of the burden of two hundred tons or upwards, and mounted with sixteen guns or more, if the commander shall yield up the goods to any Turkish ships, or to any pirates or sea rovers, without fighting, he shall, upon proof thereof made in the court of Admiralty, be incapable of taking charge of any English ship as commander; and if he shall hereafter take upon him to command any English ship, he shall suffer imprisonment by warrant from the said court during six months for every offence; and in case the persons taking the said goods shall release the ship, or pay unto the master any money or goods for freight, or other reward, the said goods or money or the value thereof, as also the master's part of such ship so releafed, shall be liable to repair the persons whose goods were taken, by action in the court of Admiralty; and in case the commander's part of the ship, together with such money and goods, shall not be sufficient to repair all the damages sustained, the reparations recovered on the master's part of the ship shall be divided *pro rata*, amongst the persons prosecuting and proving their damages, and the persons damaged shall have their action against the master for the remainder. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *s.* 2. 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *s.* 35.

No master of any such English ship, being at sea, and having discovered any ship to be a Turkish ship, pirate, or sea rover, shall depart out of his ship. *Ditto, sect.* 3.

If the master of any English ship, though not of the burthen of two hundred tons, or mounted with sixteen guns, shall yield his ship unto any Turkish ship, pirate, or sea rover, (not having at least his double number of guns) without fighting, such master shall be liable to all the penalties in this act. *Ditto, sect.* 4.

Upon process out of the court of Admiralty, it shall be lawful for all commanders of his majesty's ships, or the commanders of any other English ships, to seize such ships or masters so offending, according to the process, and the same to send in custody into any ports of his majesty's dominions, to be proceeded against according to this act. *Ditto. s.* 5.

Provided that none be hereby encouraged to violate the rights of the port of any foreign prince or state in amity. *Ditto, s.* 6.

If the mariners or inferior officers of any English ship laden with goods shall decline or refuse to fight, and defend the ship, when they shall be thereunto commanded by the master, or shall utter any words to discourage the other mariners from defending the ship, every mariner who shall be found guilty of declining, or refusing, as aforesaid, shall lose all his wages due to him, together with such goods as he hath in his ship, and suffer imprisonment, not exceeding six months, and shall during such time be kept to hard labour for his maintenance. *Ditto, s.* 7.

Provided, that if any ship shall have been yielded, contrary to the will of the commander, by the disobedience of the mariners, testified by their having laid violent hands on him, the master shall not be liable to the sentence of incapacity, nor to any action for the losses sustained by the merchants, unless he shall have received back from the takers his ship, or some reward. *Ditto, s.* 8.

Every mariner who shall have laid violent hands on his commander, to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship and goods, shall suffer death, as a felon. *Ditto, s.* 9.

When any English ship shall have been defended by fight, and brought to her port, in which fight any of the officers or seamen shall have been wounded, it shall be lawful for the judge of admiralty, or his furrogate, or the judge of the vice-admiralty, within which the ship shall arrive, upon petition of the master or seamen, to call unto him such as he shall be informed to be adventurers, or owners of the ship and goods, and by advice with them to raise upon the owners and adventurers by process of the court such sums of money, as himself, with the major part of the adventurers or owners present, shall judge reasonable, not exceeding two *per cent.* of the ship and goods, according to the first cost of the goods by the invoice (which the owner or his factor is to produce) or by the oath of the owner, or his correspondent, which money shall be paid to the register of the court, who shall receive three-pence in each pound, thence to be distributed amongst the captain, master, officers, and seamen of the said ship, or widows and children of the slain, according to the direction of the judge, with the approbation of three or more of the owners or adventurers, who shall proportion the same unto the ship's company, having special regard unto the widows and children of such as shall have been slain, and to such as shall have been wounded or maimed. *Ditto, s.* 10.

In case the company belonging unto any English merchant ship shall take any ship which shall first have assaulted them, the officers and mariners shall, after condemnation of such ship and goods, have such part thereof as is practised in private men of war. *Ditto, s.* 11.

If any captain, master, mariner, and other officer belonging to any ship shall wilfully cast away, burn, or destroy the ship, or procure the same to be done, he shall suffer death as a felon. *Ditto, s.* 12.

This last *sect.* is the same *per* 1 *Ann. stat.* 2. *c.* 9. and is something enlarged by 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 29. *s.* 5.

No commander of any ship outward bound shall receive on board any gunpowder, either as merchandize or store for the voyage, (except for his majesty's service) before such ship shall be over-against Blackwall, upon pain of forfeiting, for every fifty pounds weight of gunpowder five pounds, and in proportion for a lesser quantity. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *s.* 2.

The commander of every ship coming into the Thames shall put on shore all powder, either before the arrival of such ship at Blackwall, or within twenty-four hours after a ship shall come to an anchor there, or at the place of her unloading, upon pain of forfeiting five pounds for every fifty pounds weight of gunpowder found on board, and in the like proportion for a less quantity; and if any gunpowder shall be found on board such ship above Blackwall, after the time limited for unloading the same, the commander of every such ship shall for every fifty pounds weight of gunpowder forfeit five pounds, and in proportion for a lesser quantity. *Ditto, s.* 3.

If any commander or other officer of any ship, (except his majesty's ships) shall, while such ship shall be in the river of Thames, between London-Bridge and Blackwall, keep any gun shotted, or shall fire, or permit to be fired, any gun on board such ship, before sun-rising, or after sun-setting, such commander, or officer, shall, for every such gun so kept shotted, forfeit five shillings and for every gun so fired ten shillings. And if any commander, or other officer of any ship, or any other person on board, shall, while such ship shall be in the river, between London-bridge and Blackwall, permit to be heated, or melted on board such ship, any pitch, tar, rosin, or other combustible matter, every person so offending shall forfeit five pounds. *Ditto, s.* 4.

It shall be lawful for the master, wardens, and assistants of the Trinity-house, by instrument under their common seal, to authorize an elder brother to go in a boat between sun-rising and sun-setting to any ship, and to go on board the same (his majesty's ships always excepted) in order to search for powder, guns shotted, and the heating and melt-

ing combuſtible matters, within the limits wherein ſuch offences are prohibited; and if the commander or other officer in ſuch ſhip ſhall, upon demand, refuſe to permit any perſon ſo authorized to come on board ſuch ſhip, and make due ſearch, every ſuch commander, or officer, ſhall forfeit five pounds. *Ditto, ſ.* 5.

In caſe any ſhip ſhall be laid up or moored in St. Saviour's Dock (except ſuch ſhips as ſhall be loading, or delivering their cargoes; and except ſuch ſhips, not exceeding two at one time, as ſhall lie at Ship-Wright-Yard, at the north-weſt corner of the dock, during the time ſuch ſhip ſhall be repairing) the maſter of every ſuch ſhip ſhall forfeit for every day ſuch ſhip ſhall ſo continue to be laid up and moored twenty ſhillings. *Ditto, ſ.* 10.

Every perſon herein-mentioned ſhall be exempted from being impreſſed into his majeſty's ſervice, that is to ſay, every perſon being of the age of fifty-five years, or under eighteen years, and every foreigner whether ſeaman or landman, who ſhall ſerve in any merchant ſhip or privateer belonging to the ſubjects of Great-Britain. 13 *Geo.* II. *p.* 395.

Every perſon of what age ſoever, who ſhall uſe the ſea, ſhall be exempted from being impreſſed for the ſpace of two years, to be computed from his firſt going to ſea; and every perſon who having uſed the ſea ſhall bind himſelf apprentice to ſerve at ſea, ſhall be exempted for the ſpace of three years, to be computed from the time of binding. *Ditto, p.* 396.

The preamble to the following act of 20 *Geo.* II. obſerves, that by one made the 7 and 8 *Will.* III. certain encouragements were given for ſeamen to regiſter themſelves for his majeſty's ſervice; and if any ſuch ſhould by age or other accidents be diſabled for future ſervice, and ſhould not be able to maintain themſelves comfortably, and the children of ſuch diſabled ſeamen, and the widows and children of ſuch of them as ſhould be killed or drowned in ſea ſervice, were to be provided for in the royal hoſpital at Greenwich, ſo far as the ſaid hoſpital ſhould be capable to receive them, and the revenue thereof would extend; and for the better ſupport of the ſaid hoſpital, ſix-pence *per* month is by the ſaid act to be allowed out of the wages of every ſeaman in the merchant's ſervice, as well as in the navy, and that ſo much of the ſaid act as relates to the regiſtering of ſeamen was repealed by an act of 9 *Ann.* whereby every ſeaman in the navy (though not regiſtered) is intitled to the benefits of the ſaid hoſpital; and that by an act of 10 *Ann.* any ſeaman is to be conſidered as fully qualified for an admiſſion into the ſaid hoſpital, who ſhall produce a certificate of his having been hurt and diſabled for ſea ſervice, in defending any ſhips of the ſubjects of this kingdom againſt an enemy, or in taking any ſhip from an enemy. And that by an act of 8 *Geo.* I. every ſeaman on board a merchant ſhip, who ſhall be maimed in fight againſt any pirate, is to be admitted into the ſaid hoſpital, preferable to any other ſeaman, diſabled merely by age: and that by an act of 8 *Geo.* II. ſeamen on board any merchant ſhip, who ſhall be maimed in fight againſt an enemy, ſhould be admitted into the ſaid hoſpital, in like manner as any other ſeamen, wounded or diſabled in his majeſty's ſervice: and whereas the ſaid hoſpital is not capable to receive, nor the income thereof ſufficient to provide for the ſeamen in the ſervice of the navy, intitled to the benefits thereof, ſo that the ſeaman in the merchant's ſervice, maimed and diſabled in fight, and proper objects of charity, have ſeldom or never been admitted into the ſaid hoſpital; and as there is no proviſion made by either of the ſaid acts for ſuch ſeamen in the merchant's ſervice as are diſabled by accidental misfortunes, or for thoſe worn out by age, or for the widows or children of ſuch as ſhall be killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice, and as the ſeamen in the ſaid ſervice are willing to allow ſix-pence *per* month out of their wages, to be applied for the relief of ſuch as ſhall be diſabled or worn out by age, and of the widows and children of thoſe killed in the ſaid ſervice; and as they have, during the courſe of this war manifeſted their courage, and deſerve all due encouragement; and the eſtabliſhing the ſaid charity will tend to the honour and good of the public, it is enacted, that Alexander Hume, John Briſtow, John Bance, Eſqrs. &c. and their ſucceſſors, to be elected in the manner hereafter appointed, ſhall be one body corporate and politick, by the name of The Preſident and Governors for the Relief and Support of ſick, maimed, and diſabled Seamen, and of the Widows and Children of ſuch as ſhall be killed, ſlain, or drowned in the Merchants Service, and that by the ſame name of The Preſident and Governors, they ſhall have perpetual ſucceſſion, and a common ſeal, with power to alter the ſame as often as they ſhall judge expedient; and by the ſame name may ſue and be ſued, plead and be impleaded, &c. in all courts of record and places of judicature within this kingdom; and that they and their ſucceſſors may receive and enjoy in truſt for the purpoſes of this act all ſuch ſums of money as are granted, and ſhall be raiſed by virtue of this act, or ſhall be contributed or bequeathed by well-diſpoſed perſons; and may at any time hereafter, without licence in mortmain, purchaſe or receive any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, or any eſtate or intereſt therein, ſo that the ſame be only for the ſcite of, or to be converted into an hoſpital, with offices, and appurtenances neceſſary for the ſaid purpoſes.

The preſident and governors ſhall provide in the ſaid hoſpital for the reception of ſeamen rendered incapable of ſervice, or ſhall allow them certain penſions, or otherwiſe as they ſhall think moſt for the advantage of the ſaid charity; and ſhall alſo relieve the widows and children of ſuch ſeamen as ſhall be killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice, provided ſuch children are not of the age of fourteen; or if of that age or upwards, they are incapable of getting a livelihood, by reaſon of lameneſs, blindneſs, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity; and ſhall make reaſonable allowances to thoſe who ſhall loſe an eye, or limb, or be otherwiſe hurt in fighting, defending, or working the ſhips in which they ſerve, or in loading or unloading the cargoes, or otherwiſe howſoever in doing their duty, in proportion to the damage they ſhall receive, ſo far as the revenues will extend for the ſaid purpoſes, according to ſuch rules, orders, and regulations as ſhall be eſtabliſhed in purſuance of this act.

No ſeaman in the ſaid ſervice ſhall be entitled to any of the benefits of this act, unleſs he ſhall produce a certificate of the hurt, &c. received, to the preſident, aſſiſtants, and committees, herein after named, from the maſter, mate, boatſwain, and ſurgeon, or ſo many of them as were in the veſſel to which he belonged at the time of receiving ſuch hurt; or of the maſter, and two of the ſeamen, if there is no other officer; or in caſe of the death of the maſter, then of the perſon who ſhall take upon him the care of the veſſel, and two of the ſeamen on board, under their hands and ſeals, ſignifying how and in what manner he received ſuch hurt, where and when he entered, and how long he had ſerved on board; and the parties giving ſuch certificates ſhall make oath of the truth of the contents before ſome juſtice, if given in any of his majeſty's dominions, or the chief officer of the cuſtoms of the place where there is no juſtice, or before the Britiſh conſul, or reſident in any foreign country where ſuch certificate is executed (who are to adminiſter the ſame without fee;) and in caſe of ſickneſs, whereby ſuch ſeamen ſhall be rendered incapable of ſervice, a certificate in like manner, ſignifying that he was healthy when he entered on board, and that the ſame was contracted in doing his duty in the ſervice of the ſhip, and not otherwiſe; and no widow or children of any ſeaman, killed or drowned in the ſaid ſervice, ſhall be intitled to any allowance by virtue of this act, unleſs they ſhall produce a certificate, authenticated in like manner, ſignifying how ſuch ſeaman loſt his life in the ſervice of the ſaid ſhip, the time and place he entered on board, and how long he had ſerved therein; and alſo another certificate under the hands and ſeals of the miniſter, and church-wardens, and overſeers of the poor of the pariſh or townſhip, or any two of them, or of the miniſter and overſeers of the poor where there are no church-wardens (and if ſuch widows or children are quakers, then under the hands of two reputable perſons of that perſuaſion) of the place where ſuch widow or children have a legal ſettlement, or reſide, to be atteſted by two or more credible witneſſes, that ſhe was the lawful wife, and they the children of ſuch ſeaman, and under the age of fourteen; or if of that age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood, by reaſon of lameneſs, blindneſs, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity; and no ſeaman ſhall be provided for by a penſion, or otherwiſe, as decrepid or worn out, unleſs he ſhall have ſerved five years in

in the merchants ſervice, and paid ſix-pence *per* month out of his wages for that time, for the purpoſes of this act.

If any perſon ſhall forge, counterfeit, alter, or unfairly obtain any ſuch certificate, the ſame, upon diſcovery thereof, ſhall be null and void, and the perſon applying for relief ſhall be for ever incapable of receiving any benefit from this act, and ſhall be puniſhed as an incorrigible rogue.

For the more conſtant and ordinary management of the monies to be raiſed for the purpoſes aforeſaid, there ſhall be for ever hereafter, from time to time, a preſident, and twenty-one aſſiſtants, and committees of the ſaid corporation; and Henry Norris, ſenior, Eſq; ſhall be the firſt preſident, and Alexander Hume, Eſq; Sir Peter Thompſon, Knt. Robert Nettleton, Robert Thornton, John Smith, Peter Du Cane, Joſias Wordſworth, Joſeph Fawthorp, Eſqrs. Joſiah Chitty, Henry Norris, jun. William Black, John Hanbury, John Weyland, Robert Dingly, Thomas Hyam, James Brogden, Stephen Theodore Janſſen, John Thomlinſon, merchants; maſter Thomas Bennet, maſter John Canham, maſter Adam Spencer, the twenty-one aſſiſtants or committees.

The ſaid preſidents and aſſiſtants before named, ſhall continue ſo to be till the twenty-fourth of June, 1748, on which day yearly, or within five days before or after (ten days notice being firſt given in the London Gazette of the day fixed by the general court of the ſaid preſident and governors) a new election of a preſident and twenty-one aſſiſtants ſhall be made for the year following, and taken by the ſaid preſident and governors then preſent.

At all general courts of the preſident and governors, and at the ſeveral full courts of aſſiſtants, the preſident ſhall have a vote, and act as a member; and in caſe of an equality of votes, ſhall have the caſting voice.

There ſhall be four general courts at leaſt held every year, viz. on the twenty-fourth of June, the twenty-ninth of September, the twenty-fifth of December, the twenty-fifth of March, or within five days before or after either of the ſaid days, of which ten days notice ſhall be given in the London Gazette; and the preſident and aſſiſtants may call a general court at any other time, as the affairs of the corporation ſhall require, or at the requeſt of thirteen members, ſignifying the ſame by writing under their hands; provided notice be given as aforeſaid of the time and place of meeting.

The preſident, with five or more of the aſſiſtants, ſhall make a full court of aſſiſtants, or committees; and ſhall meet upon Wedneſdays weekly, in or near London, or at ſuch other time and place as they ſhall appoint; and ſuch court when aſſembled ſhall have power to apply the monies ariſing by this act for the relief of ſuch ſeamen, and their widows and children, as are before deſcribed; and to lay out the ſurplus thereof, and any monies contributed by well-diſpoſed perſons in parliamentary ſecurities, or in the purchaſe of ſuch lands, &c. as are before allowed; and under their common ſeal to enter into any contracts for the purpoſes aforeſaid, for the better carrying on the ſaid charity; and to appoint and remove at pleaſure any officers and ſervants, or other perſons employed (except ſuch officers and perſons as are directed to be choſen at a general court of the corporation) and appoint ſuch ſalaries, perquiſites, or other rewards for their ſervice, as they ſhall think proper; and to tranſact and determine all ſuch matters as ſhall appear to be neceſſary for effecting the purpoſes hereby intended.

The management and accounts of the preſident and aſſiſtants ſhall be liable to ſuch audit and inſpection, allowance, diſallowance, and controul of all or ſuch of the members, as by any by-laws of the corporation ſhall be appointed.

There ſhall be a receiver of the corporation, who ſhall be choſen by a majority of the preſident and governors in a general court as aforeſaid, who ſhall be allowed ſuch ſalary as they ſhall think proper, and be removed at pleaſure, and another perſon choſe in his room.

If any vacancy ſhall happen by death, or removal of any perſon choſen at a general court, it ſhall be filled up at a general court, of the preſident and governors, after ten days notice given of ſuch election in the London Gazette.

For keeping up a competent number of members, and for perpetuating the ſucceſſion thereof, and for filling up the places of preſident and aſſiſtants, the preſident and thirteen governors preſent at a general court to be held as aforeſaid, ſhall elect other fit perſons to be members in the room of ſuch of the perſons above named, or to be from time to time elected members, who ſhall die, or refuſe to accept of, or continue to be members.

The preſident and thirteen governors, aſſembled in a general court, may make and conſtitute ſuch by-laws, &c. as ſhall ſeem neceſſary for the eſtabliſhing the ſaid corporation, and the officers, ſervants, and perſons employed by them; and for the applying the money, and providing for the perſons intitled to the benefit of this act; and for the auditing the accounts, and the controlling, allowing, or diſallowing the tranſactions of the ſaid preſident and aſſiſtants, and of the officers, ſervants, and perſons; and for putting the ſaid laws in execution, and for revoking and altering the ſame at pleaſure; which by-laws, &c. ſhall be duly obſerved, ſo as they be reaſonable, and not repugnant to the ſtatutes, cuſtoms, or laws of this kingdom, or any of the expreſs regulations of this act.

If the preſident ſhall at any time not attend, the court of aſſiſtants, or governors at a general court, ſhall depute any other member to preſide and act as preſident in his abſence, and do all other acts and things at the ſaid courts as the preſident is impowered and required to do.

For the encouragement of benefactors to ſo good a deſign, it is enacted, that if any perſon ſhall at one or more payments contribute fifty pounds for the purpoſes of this act, he ſhall be declared a governor of the ſaid corporation.

Every ſeaman, or perſon employed in any veſſel belonging to a ſubject of England, and every maſter or owner navigating the ſame (other than ſuch apprentices under the age of eighteen, as are exempted from payment of ſix-pence *per* month to the hoſpital at Greenwich, by an act of 2 *Ann.* and perſons employed on the coaſts of England in taking of fiſh brought freſh on ſhore; and perſons employed in boats or veſſels that trade only from place to place within any river in England, or in open boats upon the coaſts thereof) and pilots employed on board veſſels ſhall, after the twenty-ninth of September, 1747, pay ſix-pence *per* month, and proportionably for a leſſer time, during their employment, for the purpoſes aforeſaid.

The maſter, owner, or commander of every veſſel, is to deduct out of the wages, &c. of every ſuch ſeaman, &c. (except as before excepted) the ſaid duty of ſix-pence *per* month, and ſhall pay the ſame to ſuch receivers as the preſident and governors, or the truſtees of the out-ports, ſhall appoint, if ſuch ſeamen, &c. ſhall have, or be intitled to any wages, ſhares, or profits.

The preſident and governors, at a full court of aſſiſtants, ſhall appoint one or more receivers of the ſaid duty at the port of London; and alſo depute the collectors or other officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, in the ſeveral out-ports of England, or other perſons, to receive the ſame there (except in ſuch out-ports where ſeparate truſtees ſhall be appointed by virtue of this act) and the ſaid ſeveral receivers are required to collect and pay over the ſaid duty, according to the inſtructions in writing, which ſhall, from time to time, be ſent them by the preſident and governors; for which allowances ſhall be made them out of the ſaid duties, as the preſident and governors ſhall think fit.

Every maſter, or other perſon navigating, or having the care of any merchant veſſel, ſhall keep a book by way of muſter-roll, in which ſhall be entered his own, and the names of the perſons employed on board, with the uſual place of their abode when on ſhore; and over-againſt each name the time and place of entering into ſuch ſervice, and in what ſhip he performed his laſt voyage; a duplicate whereof ſhall be ſigned by the ſaid maſter, or other perſon having the care of ſuch veſſel, and ſhall be delivered, before her departure, to the collector of the ſaid duties, at the port to which ſhe belongs; and the ſaid maſter, &c. ſhall keep ſuch a muſter-roll during the voyage, and ſhall enter when and where any perſon ſhall be diſcharged from, or ſhall leave or deſert ſuch veſſel, and others ſhipped on board, deſcribing them as before directed; and when and where any of them received any hurt or damage, or were killed or drowned; a duplicate whereof ſhall be ſigned and delivered as aforeſaid, at the ſhip's return to the port to which ſhe belongs; true copies whereof ſhall be made, and filed by the collectors, and the original duplicates tranſmitted by them to the preſident and governors, to be filed

and

and kept by ſuch officer as they ſhall appoint: and the ſaid maſters and receivers, &c. in default of any of the premiſſes, ſhall ſeverally forfeit twenty pounds ſterling for every ſuch offence.

For the better diſcovery of what ſhall be due from perſons ſerving on board merchant ſhips, &c. the collectors ſhall ſummon, by warrant under their hands, all ſuch maſters, &c. or (in their abſence) the owners of ſuch veſſels, to appear at their office (ſo as they be not obliged to travel above ten miles for the making ſuch appearance) and to examine them upon oath (which oath the ſaid collectors are to adminiſter) to the truth of the copy of ſuch muſter roll, and the number and times of ſervice of each perſon chargeable with the ſaid duty; and upon their refuſal to appear, or make oath as aforeſaid, they ſhall be fined twenty pounds ſterling.

For the more eaſy and effectual collecting the ſaid duty from the maſters, &c. of merchant veſſels employed in the ſervice of his majeſty, the ſecretaries or chief clerks of the public officers of the crown, uſually hiring, &c. veſſels for that ſervice, ſhall deliver a duplicate of the liſt of the numbers and names of ſuch ſhips, and of the maſters and owners thereof reſpectively, and of the ſeamen, &c. to the collectors of the ſaid duty at the port of London, or out-ports to which they ſeverally belong, as is by an act of 2 *Geo.* II. to be delivered to the collector of the port of London, of the duty of ſix-pence *per* month given to the royal hoſpital at Greenwich; and the ſaid ſecretaries and other officers belonging to the ſaid offices, and the maſters, &c. of ſuch veſſels, ſhall do every other act for the due payment of the duty, as is required to be done by the ſaid act of 2 *Geo.* II. for the payment of the duty of ſix-pence *per* month to the ſaid royal hoſpital, and ſhall be liable to the like penalties and forfeitures for any default herein.

Every maſter, &c. liable to the payment of the ſaid duty, ſhall pay all ſuch monies as ſhall, from time to time, be due to the collectors appointed, at the port only to which ſuch veſſel does belong, and before ſuch veſſel ſhall be cleared inwards, by the officers of the cuſtoms in any of the ports of England; and no officer of the cuſtoms ſhall clear inwards any merchant ſhip liable to the ſaid duty, or grant any warrant, cocket, tranſire, return, or diſcharge, or ſuffer ſuch veſſel to go out of port, until the maſter, &c. ſhall produce a certificate from the receiver of the ſaid duty being fully paid, and that he is not more than three months inarrear for the ſame, or that he is exempted from the payment of the ſaid duty by virtue of the exceptions herein contained; and the perſons making default in any of the premiſſes, or acting contrary to the directions before-mentioned, ſhall forfeit twenty pounds ſterling for every ſuch offence.

If the maſter, &c. ſhall not produce ſuch certificate to the tide-ſurveyor, when he ſhall come on board to clear ſuch veſſel, the tide-waiter ſhall be continued on board at the expence of ſuch maſter, owner, or commander, until ſuch certificate is produced.

In all caſes where an oath is required to be taken, the ſolem affirmation of quakers ſhall be accepted inſtead thereof; and if any quaker ſhall refuſe to make ſuch affirmation, he ſhall be ſubject to the like forfeitures and penalties, as any other perſon refuſing to take an oath is liable to by this act; and any perſon convicted of falſe affirming or ſwearing, before any collector, &c. hereby authorized to adminiſter oaths, he ſhall ſuffer penalties, &c. as perſons convicted of wilful and corrupt perjury, are by the laws of England liable to.

The charges and expences of obtaining this act ſhall be paid out of the firſt monies to be raiſed and contributed by virtue hereof at the port of London.

From and after the twenty-fourth of June, 1747, the owners and maſters of veſſels belonging to perſons reſiding at any of the out-ports of this kingdom, may meet within the limits of the ſaid ports at any proper time and place, appointed by five or more of them, by giving ten days previous notice, to be fixed at the cuſtom houſe wharf, key, or publick place, at ſuch out-port; and may from time to time appoint by an inſtrument in writing under their hands and ſeals fifteen perſons to be truſtees for ſuch out-port, for receiving and applying the ſaid duty of ſix-pence *per* month, at ſuch out-port for the relief of the ſeamen employed on board the veſſels belonging to ſuch perſons reſpectively; and ſuch of their widows and children as ſhall be entitled thereto by this act; and the ſaid truſtees ſhall continue to the twenty-ſixth of December next after ſuch election, and until new truſtees are nominated and confirmed; and within ten days after every twenty-ſixth of December yearly, the ſaid owners and maſters ſhall meet and appoint in like manner fifteen perſons to be truſtees for the year enſuing, and the ſaid truſtees ſhall continue until new ones are elected and confirmed; and the ſaid inſtrument ſhall be ſent to the preſident and aſſiſtants, who are to confirm the ſame under the common ſeal of the corporation, without fee or reward, within ten days after the receipt thereof: and the ſaid truſtees, when ſo confirmed, (five whereof ſhall be a *quorum*) ſhall be veſted with the ſame powers to make by-laws, and to revoke or alter the ſame, and for receiving and applying benefactions, and for appointing receivers and other officers for collecting and applying the ſaid duty, as are given to the preſident and governors aforeſaid, according to ſuch rules, orders, and regulations as ſhall be eſtabliſhed in purſuance of this act; and the ſaid receivers and other officers ſhall have the ſame powers as other the receivers and officers before appointed, and ſhall be liable to the ſame penalties and forfeitures.

And whereas by letters patent, bearing date the eighteenth of December, in the ſixth year of the reign of king Edward VI. certain merchants, therein named, and their ſucceſſors, reſiding at the port and city of Briſtol, are incorporated by the name of the maſter, wardens, and commonalty of merchant-venturers of the city of Briſtol; which ſociety is willing, for the benefit of the ſeamen employed in the ſervice of the merchants, &c. belonging to the ſaid city and port, to undertake the collection and application of the ſaid ſix-pence *per* month, payable there, and of any donations of well-diſpoſed people; it is therefore enacted, that the maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and treaſurer of the ſaid incorporated ſociety, for the time being, ſhall be truſtees, and ſhall be veſted with the like powers, &c. for collecting, recovering, and applying, &c. the ſaid duty and any donations at the ſaid city and port; and for appointing receivers and other officers for the ſaid purpoſes as are granted by this act to the preſident and governors aforeſaid, according to ſuch rules, orders, and regulations as are, or ſhall be eſtabliſhed by virtue of this act; and ſuch receivers and other officers ſhall have the ſame powers, &c. as thoſe to be appointed in purſuance of this act, and ſhall be ſubject to the like penalties and forfeitures; and the ſaid maſter, wardens, aſſiſtants, and treaſurers, ſhall alſo have power to take and receive any lands, tenements, and hereditaments in ſuch manner, and for the like purpoſes only, as the ſaid preſident and governors are by this act impowered to take and receive.

And whereas the guild of maſters and pilots, ſeamen of the Trinity houſe of Kingſton upon Hull, are willing for the benefit of the ſeamen employed in the ſervice of merchants, &c. belonging to the ſaid town and port, to undertake the collection and application of the ſaid duty, and any donations of well-diſpoſed people there, it is therefore enacted, that the ſaid guild of maſters and pilots, ſeamen of the Trinity houſe of the town and port of Kingſton upon Hull, for the time being, ſhall be truſtees, and ſhall be veſted with the like powers for collecting, recovering, and applying, &c. the ſaid duty and any donations, and for appointing receivers and other officers, as are granted by this act; to the preſident and governors aforeſaid, according to ſuch rules, orders, and regulations as are or ſhall be eſtabliſhed by virtue of this act; and ſuch receivers and other officers ſhall have the ſame powers, &c. as thoſe to be appointed in purſuance of this act; and ſhall be ſubject to the like penalties and forfeitures.

Nothing herein contained ſhall oblige the receivers or collectors of the ſaid duty, who ſhall be appointed by the truſtees of any of the reſpective out-ports, to ſend duplicates of the muſter-rolls (directed to be delivered to them by the maſter, or perſon having care of any veſſel) to the ſaid preſident and aſſiſtants, but ſuch duplicates, after making and filing copies thereof, ſhall be delivered by ſuch collectors, &c. to the ſaid truſtees reſpectively, to be by them kept for their uſe.

No ſeaman, &c. in the merchants ſervice ſhall be intitled to any benefit from this act at the port of London, or any out-

out-port, but thoſe who are liable to, and ſhall pay the ſaid duty at the ſaid ports reſpectively.

Thoſe ſeamen who ſhall have been longeſt in the ſaid ſervice, and contributed moſt towards the ſaid duty, ſhall be firſt provided for as worn out or decrepid.

If any ſeaman or other perſon employed on board any veſſel ſhall, in the diſcharge of his duty, either on ſhore or on board, break any limb, or be otherwiſe hurt, ſo that immediate care is neceſſary to be taken of him, the preſident and governors of the port of London, and the reſpective truſtees for the out-ports, ſhall provide proper relief for ſuch perſon, until he ſhall be ſo well recovered of ſuch hurt as to be removed and ſent with ſafety to the port to which ſuch veſſel does belong; and the expence thereof, not exceeding two-pence *per* mile, ſhall be paid by the preſident and governors at the port of London, or by the truſtees for the out-port to which ſuch perſon ſhall be ſent.

If any ſeaman or other perſon ſhall ſerve five years or more in the merchant ſervice, and ſhall have paid the ſixpence *per* month for that time, and ſhall be adjudged by the preſident and aſſiſtants, or the reſpective truſtees, a proper object of relief, he ſhall be provided for at the port where he ſhall have paid the greateſt part of the ſaid duty for the laſt five years of his ſervice.

If it ſhall happen that ſeamen employed in the merchant ſervice, within the limits of this act, ſhall be ſhipwrecked or taken by the enemy, and on their return from impriſonment may be travelling with paſſes to the place of their abode, the preſident and governors, and the reſpective truſtees, may relieve them in ſuch manner as they ſhall think proper.

Where certificates directed to be produced by this act cannot be obtained, ſuch other certificates as ſhall be ſatisfactory to the preſident and governors, or truſtees reſpectively, ſhall be admitted to intitle the party to the penſions or other relief provided by this act.

And whereas the united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies have at their own expence provided for ſuch ſeamen employed by them, as have been rendered incapable of ſervice, and for the widows and children of ſuch as have been killed or drowned in their ſervice, and have eſtabliſhed a fund for that purpoſe, and are therefore deſirous that the perſons employed in the ſaid ſervice may be exempted from the payment of the ſaid ſix-pence *per* month; it is therefore enacted, that no officer, ſeaman, &c. of any veſſel, employed in the ſervice of the ſaid company, ſhall, during the time of ſuch ſervice, be liable to the payment of the ſaid duty.

No officer or ſeaman, &c. during his employment in the ſervice of the ſaid company, nor the widows or children of ſuch of them as ſhall be killed or drowned, ſhall be intitled to any benefit by this act during the time they ſhall be employed in the ſaid ſervice.

All pecuniary forfeitures and penalties incurred by virtue of this act ſhall be ſued for and recovered in any court of record in England, wherein no eſſoin, protection, privilege, wager of law, or more than one imparlance ſhall be allowed; and if a verdict ſhall paſs for the plaintiff in any ſuch action, he ſhall be allowed double coſts; and one moiety of the forfeitures, &c. ſhall be applied to the uſes of this act, and the other to the perſon who will ſue for the ſame in manner aforeſaid.

This act ſhall be deemed a public act, and be judicially taken notice of as ſuch by all judges and other perſons, without ſpecially pleading the ſame; and all actions or ſuits which ſhall be commenced againſt any perſon for any thing done in purſuance of this act, or in relation to the premiſſes, ſhall be brought within three months next after the fact committed; and ſhall be laid in the county or place where the fact was done, and not elſewhere; and the defendant may plead the general iſſue, and give this act and the ſpecial matter in evidence, and that the ſame was done in purſuance thereof; and if it ſhall ſo appear, or if ſuch action, &c. ſhall be brought after the time limited, or in any other county or place, the jury ſhall find for the defendant; or if the plaintiff ſhall become nonſuited, or ſuffer a diſcontinuance of his action, or verdict ſhall paſs againſt him, the defendant ſhall have double coſts; and ſhall have ſuch remedy for the ſame as defendants have for coſts of ſuit in any other caſes by law.



The procuring the preceding act is an inſtance of the benevolent regard our merchants have for the future ſupport here at home of thoſe ſeamen who ſhall ſuffer by valiantly defending their property, either in ſhip or goods, and for the diſtreſſed families of ſuch, who ſhall unhappily loſe their lives in their ſervice; whilſt the following ones ſerve no leſs to demonſtrate both theirs, and the government's indulgent attention to ſecure a ſufficiency for them abroad, when reduced by misfortunes to the neceſſity of claiming it; and the charitable diſpoſitions theſe acts contain, plainly evince as well the prudence as the beneficence of the promoters and compilers of them, juſtly challenging our tribute of praiſe for ſuch ſhining inſtances of tenderneſs and compaſſion, in a comfortable proviſion for the accidental ſufferings of the brave, till now left deſtitute and diſregarded, I mean, by law, for though the 22d and 23d *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 10. (before recited) provides ſomething for the maimed and ſlain, yet it is too ſmall to ſupply the loſs of limbs, or give maintenance to the afflicted relicts of a ſailor, untimely ſnatched away; it is therefore from thoſe ſtatutes only the mariner muſt expect redreſs, and a reflection on their exiſtence will naturally encourage him to deſerve their protection, by a punctual compliance with his duty.

It ſhall be lawful by 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 1. for perſons authoriſed by the majority of the Britiſh merchants and factors reſiding in Portugal, being aſſembled with the conſul general, or his deputy, in any of the ports in Portugal, to recover from all commanders of Britiſh ſhips trading from Great-Britain or Ireland, or any other his majeſty's dominions, to any of the dominions of the king of Portugal, the following ſums, viz. any ſum not exceeding two hundred reis *per* ton on all tonage goods (except wheat, barley, rye, coals, timber, boards, and lumber) and one hundred reis *per* ton on wheat, barley, &c. and fifteen *per cent.* on the freight of all other goods exported from any of the king's dominions to any place in the dominions of the king of Portugal; and all bills of lading ſhall ſpecify to pay the monies accordingly, under denomination of contribution, as *per* act of parliament; and the perſons paying the ſame ſhall be reimburſed by the freighters, or the perſons to whom the goods ſhall be conſigned; and if no bill of lading ſhall appear, and no freight or tonage is ſettled between the owner of the goods and the maſter of the veſſel, the freight or tonage ſhall be valued by two indifferent Britiſh merchants on the place, one to be choſen by the conſul general, and the other by the maſter of the ſhip, within ten days after unlading the goods; and if the perſons ſo choſen ſhall not agree the ſame, in five days, ſuch two perſons ſhall chuſe a third (being a Britiſh merchant on the place) who ſhall decide the valuation in three days.

All maſters of ſhips trading from Great Britain, Ireland, or any other his majeſty's dominions, to the dominions of the king of Portugal, and unloading there, ſhall within ten days after their arrival deliver to the conſul general, or deputy conſul, reſiding there, or to ſuch perſon as ſhall be appointed, a manifeſt upon oath, ſpecifying the particulars of the cargo, or of ſuch part thereof as ſhall be unloaded there, and to whom conſigned, which oath the conſul general, &c. is to adminiſter *gratis*. *Ditto*, *ſ.* 2.

The conſul general, or his deputy, ſhall detain the clearances outwards of all Britiſh and Iriſh ſhips till payment. *Ditto*, *ſ.* 3.

The monies ſhall be applied in manner following, viz. to the miniſter reſiding there three hundred mill-reis *per annum*, by equal quarterly payments, and the remainder for the relief of ſhipwrecked mariners, and other diſtreſſed perſons, his majeſty's ſubjects, and to ſuch other charitable and publick uſes as ſhall be appointed by the majority of the Britiſh merchants and factors reſiding at Liſbon, and other parts in Portugal, being aſſembled with the conſul general, or any of his deputy conſuls. *Ditto*, *ſ.* 4.

Perſons formerly liable to pay the four reis *per* mill, ſhall, after payment of the ſums required by this act, be exempted from the ſame. *Ditto*, *ſ.* 5.

The conſul general, or his deputy conſuls, reſiding in Portugal, ſhall, as they ſee occaſion, call a general meeting of the Britiſh merchants and factors, and ſhall call ſuch meetings as often as ſhall be deſired, by writing under the hands of any five Britiſh merchants or factors. *Ditto*, *ſ.* 6.

This shall be a public act, &c. *Ditto, f.* 7.

An act, like the preceding one, was made for his majesty's subjects trading to Cadiz and Port St. Mary's, specifying, that any sums of money, not exceeding one ryal plate *per* ducat, shall be received from all masters of British and Irish vessels, trading to those places, on the freight of goods (except tonage goods) imported into the said ports, and on all tonage goods, any sums not exceeding two rials plate *per* ton, to be collected and disposed of in the same manner as directed for that raised in Portugal, and the other part of this act being *verbatim* like that, is here omitted to be repeated. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *f.* 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

It shall be lawful for persons appointed by the consul, named for his majesty's subjects trading to the port of Leghorn, together with the majority of the British merchants and factors there, to recover from all commanders of British or Irish ships, trading from any part of his majesty's dominions to the said port, any sums not exceeding one livre *per* ton on all tonage goods imported into the said port, and all bale goods, not exceeding one third of a livre *per* bale, or parcel: to be recovered and applied with like directions as in 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. for the consulage duty at Cadiz and Port St. Mary's. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *f.* 1.

Mariners must help one another both at sea and in port, and never quit the ship without leave from the master, when she is at anchor. *Leg. Oleron. c.* 13. *&c. per Leg. Denmarc.*

If mariners get drunk and wound one another, they are not to be cured at the charge of the master or ship, as the damage is not received in the service of either; but if any of them are hurt, or taken ill, in doing their duty, the expence of their cure the ship must defray; and if his disorders render him unfit to continue on board, he shall be left on shore, and have those accommodations and assistance as his case requires; and though the ship must not be detained to attend his recovery, yet if this happens afterwards, he shall have his full wages, deducting only what the master may have expended for him. *Leg. Oleron. c.* 6. *Ditto, c.* 1.

If goods are thrown overboard in order to lighten, and by this means save the ship in a storm, upon proof thereof, by the oaths of the master, &c. he shall be acquitted, though the ship, freight, and remainder of the cargo shall be brought into an average, to make good what was so thrown away for the preservation of the whole. *Leg. Oleron. c.* 11.

Though a ship shall be seized for debt, or otherwise become forfeited, the mariners must receive their wages, unless in some cases, where they are forfeited as well as the ship; as in case of committing piracy, with letters of marque, by reason of which all will be forfeited; but lading of prohibited goods on board, such as wool, &c. though it subjects the ship to a forfeiture, yet it disables not the mariner of his wages; for the sailors having honestly performed their parts, the ship is tacitly obliged for their wages; but if the ship perishes at sea they lose their wages, and the owners their freight: and this being the marine custom, is allowed as well by the common as civil law. *Consolat. del Merc. Roll's Abridg. fol.* 530.

Barretry of the mariners is a disease so epidemical, that it is difficult for a master with the greatest care to prevent it, and though he may not really be faulty, yet the law will always adjudge him so, and impute sailors offences to his negligence; and were it otherwise, the merchant would be in a very dangerous condition; and the reasons why a master should be responsible for his crew, are because it is of his own chusing, and under his correction and government, and on ship-board know no other superior but himself, and if they are faulty he may correct and punish them (in a moderate manner) and justify the same by law; and the fact being proved against them, he may reimburse himself out of their wages. *Just. de ob. Juræ ex dilect. f. Fin. Pasch.* 11. *Jac in* B. R. *Herne.* v. *Smith. Roll's Abridg.* 533.

When goods are once delivered to a master, they are not subject to be attached in his hands, nor can any custom whatsoever support the same, for they are in law as it were bailed to the ship, until the freight and all other charges are paid; and it is very much doubted whether an attachment can be made in London of any goods lying on board ship, in the river of Thames (which, though the port of London) notwithstanding freight, and all other charges are paid off. *Mich.* 27. *Car.* II. *per* L. C. J. *Hale.*

Commissioners of bankruptcy issued a warrant to seize goods of a bankrupt on board two ships in Topsham Bay in Devonshire; the goods were consigned to persons in Holland, who had not paid the bankrupt for them; the masters refused to deliver the goods notwithstanding the warrant, which occasioned the commissioners coming to demand them, though they were still refused. *Hill.* 8 *Ann. in Chancery.*

Sir Peter King moved for an order upon the masters for their contempt.

The court at first greatly doubted whether they can make an order in aid and assistance of the warrant of the commissioners of bankruptcy, the statute having vested a large power in them; besides, the persons to whom the goods are consigned would be indebted to the creditors of the bankrupt, which creditors may recover by the law of Holland.

Sir Peter King. We shall rather lose the goods than follow them into Holland.

Lord Chancellor. Their refusing to deliver the goods upon the warrant is no contempt to this court, though the commissioners act under a commission under the broad seal: the masters in this present case have some colour to detain the goods; for upon a delivery of them, they may be disappointed of freight, and the assignees of the commission must stand in the same place as the bankrupt, and be subject to his contract.

But however an order was made upon the masters to deliver the goods upon payment of the freight, and the masters to be indemnified by the creditors against a bill of lading, which was sent by the consignees.

SHOE-MAKER. This is a business that requires no extraordinary abilities, nor any learning, besides reading, writing, and accounts. The master shoe-makers in London keep shop, and employ many workmen and women; and some of them export great quantities to our plantations, both of shoes and boots made in London, and of those they contract for in the country. The principal business of these shoe-makers, and of their journeymen and apprentices, is cutting out shoes, delivering them to the makers, receiving them when finished, fitting them on the feet of their customers, and keeping their books; but it is usual, and very necessary for an apprentice before he is out of his time, to spend a month or six weeks in learning to make a shoe. These shop-keepers take ten or twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have fifteen or twenty pounds a year and their board, by being a clicker; for by this name they call their journeymen, who work in their shops; or with one hundred pounds he may set up a small shop: but some of them employ several thousand pounds in trade; and from small beginnings raise great fortunes.

The men, who really make the shoes, are considered as journeymen, though they take apprentices. They are divided into two classes; those who make men's shoes, boots, &c. and those who make shoes only for the women. The journeymen and the women, who bind the shoes, and sow the quarrers together, when they are made of silk, velvet, callimanco, &c. get but small wages. These journeymen take about five pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get about nine or ten shillings a week; or, if he has a little money, and some acquaintance, he may set up as a chamber-master, and work for his own customers.

*Shoe-makers* shall not use the mystery of a tanner, 13 *Rich.* II. *stat.* 1. *c.* 12. 21 *Rich.* II. *c.* 16. 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 7. 2 and 3 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 9.

Liberty given to shoe-makers to tan their leather, 4 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 35.

Regulations for the shoe-makers in and about London, 4 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 7. 14 and 15 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9. 1 *Eliz. c.* 8. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *f.* 29. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27.

Not to use the mystery of a currier, 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 19.

Exportation of shoes and boots prohibited, 5 and 6 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 15. *f.* 5. permitted 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *f.* 6.

What security to be given not to reland them: and what drawback allowed, 9 *Ann. c.* 11. *f.* 39, 40, 41, 42. 12 *Ann. stat.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 64.

Directions for the performing shoe-makers works, 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *f.* 28, &c.

Satisfaction to be made by journeymen purloining shoes, &c. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27.

And by persons buying or taking them in pawn, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27. *f.* 2.

Pu-

Puniſhment of offenders unable to make ſatisfaction, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 1, 2.

Houſes of ſuſpected perſons to be ſearched, and goods fraudulently obtained to be reſtored to the owner, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 3.

Perſons retained, and engaging with new maſters before the firſt work is performed, how puniſhed, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 4.

SHORLING *and* SORLING, ſeem to be words to diſtinguiſh fells of ſheep; ſhorling ſignifying the fells after the fleeces are ſhorn off, and morling, *alias* mortling, the fells ſtead off after they are killed, or die. 3 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 1. 4 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 3. 12 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 5. and 14 *Edw.* IV. *c.* 3. Howbeit in ſome parts of England they underſtand by a ſhorling, a ſheep whoſe fleece is ſhorn off; and by a mortling a ſheep that dies.

SHROPSHIRE, or the county of Salop, abounds in corn, coals, and iron; has ſome pipe and potters clay, and makes flannels and plain white cloths for dying; the fabricks of theſe are principally at Shrewſbury, where is alſo every Thurſday a market held for Welch cottons, of which great quantities are bought for London: and a large quantity of excellent cheeſe is likewiſe ſent there.

SHUTTLE, in the manufactures, an inſtrument uſed by the weavers, which, with the thread it contains, either of woollen, ſilk, flax, or other matter, ſerves to form the woofs of ſtuffs, cloths, linens, ribbands, &c. by throwing the ſhuttle alternately from right to left, and from left to right, a-croſs between the threads of the warp, which are ſtretched out lengthways on the loom.

SIAM. This kingdom, even ſince the ſeparation of Tunquin and Cochinchina, is one of the moſt powerful in India: its preſent bounds are Cambaye to the eaſt; Lahor to the north; Ava and Pegu, to the weſt; and the ſea of the gulf of Siam (to which it gives name) to the ſouth. Its capital in Seia-Juthaia, of which the Europeans have made Judtia, Judia, Judea, and Odia; and the Portugueſe call it Siam.

This city is ſeated on the Menam, a great river that falls into the gulph of Siam, four days journey from it; and which, like the Nile, regularly overflowing and drowning the whole country at periodical ſeaſons, renders it very fertile in all neceſſaries of life, particularly in rice, of which foreigners yearly export ſeveral ſhips loadings, tho' large ones cannot go up the river, but are obliged to attend and take in their cargoes below, whilſt ſmall ones may get up to Bancock, (five or ſix leagues above its mouth) but only barks and junks can reach the capital.

There is no part of Aſia, from whence merchants are not ſeen at Juthaia, as they come here from Japan, China, the Philippines, Tunquin, Cochinchina, Chiampa, Camboyna, the iſles of Sunda, Bengal, the coaſt of Coromandel, Surate, Perſia and Arabia; and the European nations that have ſettlements here, are the Engliſh, Dutch, and Portugueſe; the French who had one alſo in 1686, were drove out from Bancock in 1688, and tho' they afterwards ſettled in another part of the kingdom, their trade was ſo inconſiderable, that it may be juſtly ſaid they have ever ſince ſent more miſſionaries than merchants there.

It is only the Europeans, Chineſe, and Moors, (that is, all the Mahometans) who are privileged to have houſes in the city; the Indian nations having them without, though their quarters are all ſeparate, where they carry on their trade, and exercife their religion.

The Dutch carry on the greateſt trade here, and the houſe they built in 1634, is one of the handſomeſt they have in all the Eaſt; yet this ſettlement is only reckoned the twentieth in the thirty-two principal ones they have in all, under the general government of Batavia.

Trade is one of the chief profeſſions of the Siamois; and it may be truly ſaid, that their king is the principal merchant among them, whether for the traffick at home or abroad.

His foreign commerce is moſtly to China, where he annually ſends five or ſix large veſſels; to Japan, where there goes two or three; to Camboya, Tunquin, and Cochinchina, the deſtiny of as many; and in fine, to all the coaſts of India, (eſpecially Surate) and even to Perſia, where there are always ſome of his ſhips, commanded commonly by chriſtians, as his own ſubjects are no great ſailors.

The inland trade of the kingdom, carried on by his factors, does not only conſiſt in the valuable commodities imported by his ſhipping, of which his ware-houſes are always full, and ſold at the prices he thinks proper; but alſo in the different products of his dominions, whether they be the tribute of his ſubjects, or what he cultivates in the lands peculiarly belonging to him: ſo that only in betal and areque, green and dry, the king's agents get upwards of ſix or ſeven hundred thouſand French livres; and it is reported, that the cuſtoms of Bancock, and the farming the circumjacent gardens, produce him more than four millions yearly. This kingdom is rich in mines of pewter, lead, ſilver, and even gold, though theſe laſt produce but little, and that of a very baſe alloy; the pewter mines of Lagor being the moſt conſiderable, whoſe metal makes one of the beſt branches of trade that the Dutch carry on here; the company having a treaty with the king, which interdicts the purchaſe of this commodity by any others than themſelves.

It is with this pewter that the Dutch ballaſt their ſhips in returning for Europe, preſerving however enough of it for their India trade, where in many parts they truck it againſt other commodities to a very great advantage.

The other merchandizes which Siam produces, are, wood for building ſhips (of which the Dutch load great quantities for Batavia) ſtags, beaves, buffaloes, and tygers ſkins, (of which latter, a ſtriped ſort eſteemed very valuable, more eſpecially for Japan) gum lacque, lead, ſapan wood, calembeck (or aloes wood) honey, wax, ſugar, betel, areque, pepper, rice, ſalt, varniſh, various odoriferous woods, tea, (that comes from China and Japan) calin, (ſuppoſed by ſome a metal between pewter and lead, though by others only a mixture of them) ambergreaſe, linens of the country, elephants teeth, ſaltpetre, gum gutta, canes and rattans, cotton, ivory, aſphaltus wood, muſks, benzoin, and ſilk; but theſe three laſt are brought here from Laor, when that kingdom is not at war with this of Siam.

The goods proper for this trade, and which are principally in demand at Siam, are ſilk ſtuffs, ſpices; all ſorts of Chineſe and Japan commodities, ſuch as flowered velvets, japanned works, porcelane, goldſmiths wares, diverſe European commodities, gold and ſilver bars: but the goods that find the readieſt and ſureſt diſpatch, are the linens from Surat, Coromandel, and Bengal; here are beſides imported, red coral, yellow amber, quickſilver, ſanders, and cloths; pepper alſo was once a good commodity, but ſince its plantation here the natives have enough and to ſpare for exportation.

SIBERIA, *or* ASIATIC RUSSIA, formerly denominated Great Tartary, is ſituated between ſixty and one hundred and thirty degrees of eaſt longitude, and between forty-ſeven and ſeventy-two degrees of north latitude, being bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north, by the Pacific Ocean, China, and Chineſian Tartary on the eaſt, by the Moguls and Uſbec Tartars on the ſouth, and by the rivers Oby and Irtis, which ſeparate Aſiatic from European Ruſſia on the weſt, being upwards of two thouſand miles in length from eaſt to weſt, and fifteen hundred miles in breadth from north to ſouth; the north of it is a cold, barren uninhabited country, covered with ſnow eight or nine months in the year; the ſouthern province is, a more fruitful ſoil, but moſt of the natives live a vagrant life like the ancient Scythians and Tartars, depending chiefly on what they take by hunting and fiſhing, or the produce of their flocks and herds: there are very few towns, and very little of the land cultivated, except near Tobolſke, the capital, to which part of it the Swediſh priſoners were baniſhed ſome years ago, and to which the Ruſſians ſend moſt of their priſoners and ſome large colonies, but ſtill there wants hands to manure the ground; and great part of Siberia remains a deſart. They have ſcarce any trade or manufactures: the principal traffic of the Muſcovites of Siberia, is by ſledges over the lake and frozen country to China in the winter, and they have been endeavouring to find a way into the ſea of Japan and China, by their rivers which fall into the Frozen Ocean, but have not ſucceeded yet as we can learn; but they relate they have met with ſome rich mines of ſilver and copper in the mountains of Siberia, which they have begun to work. We include the Calmuc Tartars

Tartars within the limits of Siberia, as they acknowledge themſelves ſubject to the empire of Ruſſia.

SICILY. *See* NAPLES.

SIER LIONA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

SIGILLATA TERRA, a name given to ſeveral earths or boles, to ſignify their being genuine; the principal is that dug in the iſland Lemnos. *See* LEMNIAN EARTH.

SILLEBAR. *See* SUMATRA.

SILESIA, a duchy in Germany. This country lies between Bohemia, Moravia, and Luſatia, on the ſouth-weſt, and Poland on the north-eaſt. On the ſide next Bohemia are very barren mountains, but the reſt of the country is a good ſoil, abounding with corn, wine, ſweet-cane, or galengal, madder, and flax; and on the mountains which divide it from Moravia, are mines of ſilver, the richeſt in Germany: there are others of copper, lead, iron, quick-ſilver, ſalt, ſalt-petre, and chalk.

*Teſchen*, which ſtands between the two rivers Oels and Weighſel, has a good trade in wine and fruit from Hungary, with ſtore of veniſon, wild-fowl, and fiſh, and two ſorts of beer, the one of wheat, the other of barley, both much eſteemed.

*Freyſtat*, on the river Oels, is noted for mines of iron, and is a great thoroughfare from Cracow to Vienna.

*Striga* ſtands on the river Polſnitz, and is noted for excellent beer, and that remarkable mineral called terra Sigillata.

*Breſlaw*, which is the metropolis of Sileſia, ſtands at the conflux of the Oder and Olaw, and two other rivers. It is a very populous city, and much frequented by Hungarian, Bohemian, Poliſh, and other foreign merchants. Here is a ſquare near a mile round, where are, on one ſide, three grand warehouſes, about five hundred paces in length, like market-halls, full of ſhops, where they ſell ſilks, ſtuffs, fine cloth of all colours, iron wares, &c. and on the other ſide are the houſes of the merchants to whom they belong. But the ſalt-market, in reſpect to the magnificent houſes round it, is reckoned the fineſt of all its ſquares.

*Croſſen* ſtands near the conflux of the Oder and Boben: it is a neat old city, and has a conſiderable trade, particularly in linen-cloth and earthen-ware, by its rivers.

SILK, *ſaricum*, a very ſoft, fine, bright, delicate thread, the work of an inſect called bombyx, or the ſilk-worm.

In the year 555, two monks brought from the Eaſt-Indies to Conſtantinople, great quantities of ſilk-worms, with inſtructions for the hatching their eggs, rearing and feeding the worms, drawing out the ſilk, ſpinning and working it. Immediately manufactures were ſet up at Athens, Thebes, and Corinth.

About 1130, Roger, king of Sicily, eſtabliſhed a ſilk manufactory at Palermo, and another in Calabria, managed by workmen whom he brought from Athens, &c. which that prince had conquered in his expedition to the Holy Land. By degrees the reſt of Italy and Spain learned, from the Sicilians and Calabrians, the management of the ſilk-worms, and the working of ſilk; and at length, a little before the reign of Francis I. began to imitate them.

The great advantage flowing from this new manufacture, made our king James I. to be very deſirous of its being introduced into England: accordingly it was recommended ſeveral times from the throne, and in the moſt earneſt terms, to plant mulberry-trees, &c. for the propagation of ſilk-worms, but unhappily without effect; though from the various experiments inſerted in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and other places, it appears, that the ſilk-worm thrives, and works as well, in all reſpects, in England, as in any other part of Europe.

The ſilk-worm is an inſect not more remarkable for the precious matter it furniſhes for divers ſtuffs, than for the many forms it aſſumes, before and after its being inveloped in the rich cod or ball it weaves itſelf. From a ſmall egg about the ſize of a pin's head, which is its firſt ſtate, it becomes a pretty big worm, or magot, of a whitiſh colour, inclining to yellow. In this ſtate it feeds on mulberry-leaves, till being come to maturity, it winds itſelf up into a ſilken bag, or caſe, about the ſize and ſhape of a pigeon's egg; and becomes metamorphoſed into an aurelia: in this ſtate it remains without any ſigns of life, or motion, till at length it awakes, to become a butter-fly; after making itſelf a paſſage out of its ſilken ſepulchre. And, at laſt, dying indeed, it prepares itſelf by an egg, or ſeed it caſts, for a new life; which the warmth of the ſummer-weather aſſiſts it in reſuming.

As ſoon as the ſilk-worm is arrived at the ſize and ſtrength neceſſary for beginning his cod, he makes his web; for it is thus they call that ſlight tiſſue, which is the beginning and ground of this admirable work. This is his firſt day's employment. On the ſecond he forms his folliculus or ball, and covers himſelf almoſt over with ſilk. The third day he is quite hid, and the following days employs himſelf in thickening and ſtrengthening his ball, always working from one ſingle end, which he never breaks by his own fault, and which is ſo fine, and ſo long, that thoſe who have examined it attentively, think they ſpeak within compaſs, when they affirm that each ball contains ſilk enough to reach the length of ſix Engliſh miles.

In ten days time, the ball is in its perfection, and is now to be taken down from the branches of the mulberry-tree, where the worms have hung it. But this point requires a deal of attention, for there are ſome worms more lazy than others, and it is very dangerous waiting till they make themſelves a paſſage, which uſually happens about the fifteenth day of the month.

The firſt, fineſt, and ſtrongeſt balls are kept for the grain, the reſt are carefully wound; or if it is deſired to keep them all, or if there be more than can be well wound at once, they lay them for ſome time in an oven moderately hot, or elſe expoſe them, for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, to the greateſt heats of the ſun, in order to kill the inſect, which, without this precaution, would not fail to open itſelf a way to go and uſe thoſe new wings abroad, it has acquired within.

Ordinarily, they only wind the more perfect balls; thoſe that are double, or too weak, or too coarſe, are laid aſide, not as altogether uſeleſs, but that, being improper for winding, they are reſerved to be drawn out into ſkains. The balls are of different colours; the moſt common are yellow, orange-colour, Iſabella, and fleſh-colour; there are ſome alſo of a ſea-green, others of a ſulphur-colour, and others white; but there is no neceſſity for ſeparating the colours and ſhades to wind them apart, as all the colours are to be loſt in the future ſcouring and preparing of the ſilk.

*To wind ſilk from off the balls.*—Two machines are neceſſary, the one a furnace, with its copper; the other a reel, or frame, to draw the ſilk. The winder, then ſeated near the furnace, throws into the copper of water over the furnace (firſt heated and boiled to a certain degree, which cuſtom alone can teach) a handful or two of balls, which have been firſt well purged of all their looſe furry ſubſtance. He then ſtirs the whole very briſkly about with birchen rods, bound and cut like bruſhes; and when the heat and agitation have detached the ends of the ſilks of the pods, which are apt to catch on the rods, he draws them forth, and joining ten or twelve, or even fourteen of them together, he forms them into threads according to the bigneſs required to the works they are deſtined for: eight ends ſufficing for ribbands, and velvet, &c. requiring no leſs than fourteen. The ends, thus joined into two or three threads, are firſt paſſed into the holes of three iron rods, in the fore part of the reel, then upon the bobbins or pullies, and at laſt are drawn out to the reel itſelf, and there faſtened; each to an end of an arm or branch of the reel. Thus diſpoſed, the workman, giving motion to the reel, by turning the handle, guides his threads; ſubſtitutes new ones, when any of them break, or any of the balls are wound out; ſtrengthens them where neceſſary, by adding others, and takes away the balls wound out, or that, having been pierced, are full of water.

In this manner, two workmen will ſpin and reel three pounds of ſilk in a day, which is a greater diſpatch than is made by the ſpinning-wheel, or diſtaff. Indeed, all ſilks cannot be ſpun and reeled after this manner, either by reaſon the balls have been perforated by the ſilk-worms themſelves, or becauſe they are double, or too weak to bear the water, or becauſe they are coarſe, &c. Of all theſe together, they make a particular kind of ſilk called floretta:

A New MAP of the DUTCHY of SILESIA, Drawn from the best Authorities.
BRANDENBURG
KINGDOM OF POLAND
KINGDOM OF HUNGARY
BOHEMIA
MARQUISAT OF MORAVIA
AUSTRIA
Frankfort on Oder
Guben
Sagan
Glogau
Crossen
Zullichau
Lissa
Wolfaw
Lignitz
Brieg
BRESLAU
Oelse
Munsterberg
Schweidnitz
Neisse
Oppelen
Gratz
Troppaw
Teschen
Jagendorf
Olmutz
Konigingratz
Jung Buntzel
Czaslau
Kuttenberg
Leitomischel
Politiska
Tribau
Zillau
Weiskirchen
Moscritsch
Siradia
Pilsen
Prag
Elbe R.
Oder R.
Neisse R.
Bober R.
Lober R.
Weide R.
Glatz C.
Ob. Gloga
Ob. Neustadt
Ob. Kosel
Ob. Strehlitz
Ob. Tillendorf
Ob. Johannsberg
Ob. Hohenstadt
Ob. Landscron
Ob. Schomberg
Ob. Wogendorf
Ob. Hoff
Ob. Oder
Ob. Tillendorf
Ob. Tillendorf
Ob. Tillendorf

floretta: which being carded, or even ſpun on the diſtaff, or the wheel, in the condition it comes from the ball, makes a tolerable ſilk.

As to the balls, after opening them with ſciſſars, and taking out the inſects (which are of ſome uſe for the feeding of poultry) they are ſteeped three or four days in troughs, the water whereof is changed every day to prevent their ſtinking. When they are well ſoftened by this ſcouring, and cleared of that gummy matter the worm had lined the inſide withal, and which renders it impenetrable to the water, and even to air itſelf, they boil them half an hour in a lye of aſhes, very clear and well ſtrained: and after waſhing them out in the river, and drying them in the ſun, they card and ſpin them on the wheel, &c. and thus make another kind of floretta, ſomewhat inferior to the former.

The ſeveral preparations which ſilks undergo, to fit them to be uſed in the manufactures of ſilken ſtuffs, are the ſpinning, reeling, milling, bleaching, and dying. The two firſt we have already ſpoke of, as they are concerned in drawing the ſilk from off the balls. As to the ſpinning and reeling of raw ſilks off the balls, ſuch as they are brought hither from Italy, the Levant, &c. the firſt is chiefly performed on the ſpinning-wheel; and the latter, either on hand-reels, or on reels mounted on machines, which ſerve to reel ſeveral ſkains at the ſame time. As to the milling, they uſe a mill compoſed of ſeveral pieces, which may mill two or three hundred bobbins at once, and make them into as many ſkains.

*Raw Silk*, that taken from the ball without fire, and wound up without any coction; ſuch is moſt, if not all, that is brought into England from the Levant.

*Boiled Silk*, that which has been boiled in water, to facilitate the ſpinning and winding.

*Spider Silk*. In the year 1710, Mr. Bonn diſcovered a method of procuring and preparing ſilk of the webs of ſpiders, and uſing it in ſeveral manufactures.

After the death of Mr. Bonn, the French academy appointed the celebrated Reaumur, to make a farther enquiry into this new ſilk-work; but he raiſed ſeveral objections and difficulties againſt it, which are inſerted in the Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1710. The ſum of what he has urged anſwers to this: the natural fierceneſs of the ſpiders renders them unfit to be bred and kept together: four or five thouſand being diſtributed into cells, fifty in ſome, one hundred or two hundred in others; the big ones kill and eat the leſs, ſo that in a ſhort time there were only left one or two in each cell: and to this inclination of mutualy eating one another, Mr. Reaumur aſcribes the ſcarcity of ſpiders, conſidering the vaſt number of eggs they lay.

But this is not all: he even affirms that the ſpider's bag is inferior to that of the ſilk-worm, both in luſtre and ſtrength; and that it produces leſs matter to be manufactured. The thread of the ſpiders's web only bears a weight of two grains without breaking; that of the bag bears thirty-ſix. The latter, therefore, in all probability, is eighteen times thicker than the former; yet it is weaker than that of the ſilk-worm, which bears a weight of two drams and a half. So that five threads of the ſpider's bag muſt be put together to equal one thread of the ſilk-worm's bag.

Now, it is impoſſible that theſe ſhould be applied ſo juſtly over one another, as not to leave little vacant ſpaces between them, whence the light will not be reflected; and, of conſequence, a thread, thus compounded, muſt fall ſhort nf the luſtre of a ſolid thread. Add to this, that the ſpider's thread cannot be wound off, as that of the ſilk-worm may, but muſt of neceſſity, be carded; by which means, being torn in pieces, its evenneſs, which contributes much to its luſtre, is deſtroyed. In effect, this want of luſtre was taken notice of by M. de la Hire, when M. Bonn preſented a pair of ſtockings to the academy.

Again, ſpiders furniſh much leſs ſilk than the worms: the largeſt bags of theſe latter weigh four grains, the ſmaller three grains; ſo that 2304 worms produce a pound of ſilk. The ſpider's bags do not weigh above one grain, yet, when cleared of their duſt and filth, loſe two thirds of their weight. The work of twelve ſpiders, therefore, only equals that of one ſilk worm; and a pound of ſilk will require at leaſt 27648 ſpiders. But as the bags are wholly the work of the females, who ſpin them to depoſit their eggs in; there muſt be kept 55296 ſpiders to yield a pound of ſilk. Yet will this only hold of the beſt ſpiders: thoſe large ones ordinarily ſeen in gardens, &c. ſcarce yielding a twelfth part of the ſilk of the others. Two hundred and eighty of theſe he ſhews, would not do more than one ſilk-worm, and 663552 of them would ſcarce yield a pound.



Silks, wrought, mixed with gold or ſilver, or other materials, ſecretly or clandeſtinely imported, are forfeited, with two hundred pounds, by every importer and each of his aſſiſtants, beſides former penalties, and one hundred pounds by the receiver, ſeller, or concealer.

Such ſilks are to be ſold by inch of candle at the cuſtom-houſe in London or Edinburgh. 6 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 14, 15.

Wrought by itſelf, or with any other ſtuff, in any place out of this realm, in ribbons, laces, girdles, corſes, cauls, corſes of tiſſue, or points, may not be imported to be ſold, upon forfeiture; but ſilks wrought and unwrought, or raw, may be imported by any perſons. 19 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1.

Thrown, of the growth or product of Turkey, Perſia, Eaſt-India, China, or any other country (except Italy, Sicily, and Naples, brought directly from thoſe places reſpectively, by ſea, in ſhips legally navigated) may not be imported, on forfeiture thereof. 2 *W.* and *M. c.* 9. *ſ.* 2.

*Silks*, callicoes, linens or ſtuffs, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, wherſoever found, not having a ſtamp to denote the payment of duty, are forfeited, with the penalty of fifty pounds on the poſſeſſor.

After recovered, may not be delivered out of the cuſtom-houſe warehouſe till ſtampt. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 15.

Raw, of the growth and culture of the Britiſh plantations in America, may be imported directly from thence into the port of London free of all duties; provided entry is made at the cuſtom-houſe in the ſame manner as before this act, and it is landed in the preſence, and examined by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, and imported in veſſels which may lawfully trade thither, manned according to law. 23. *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 1.

But to intitle the importer to this exemption, the perſon who ſhips the ſilk in America muſt, before clearing the ſhip, make oath before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms and naval-officer, or any two of them, that ſuch ſilk is *bonâ fide*, of the growth and culture of ſome or one of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, expreſſing the pariſh wherein, and the perſon by whom it was cultivated and produced, who muſt likewiſe make oath thereto before the governor or juſtice of the peace, &c. upon producing ſuch oath, the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms and naval-officer, or any two of them, are to grant a certificate under their hands and ſeals, expreſſing the marks, numbers, tale, and weight in each bale, with the names and places of abode of the exporter, of the perſon or perſons who have ſworn to the growth and culture, and the name of the perſon to whom conſigned in London; which certificate the maſter of a ſhip is to deliver to the collector, comptroller, or chief officer of the port of London, at or before entry; and at the ſame time make oath, that the bales and parcels, and goods contained in the certificate, are the ſame that were taken on board in the ſaid Britiſh colonies in America. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 2.

Any perſon entering foreign raw ſilk as raw ſilk of the growth or culture of the Britiſh plantations in America, or mixing foreign with that of the Britiſh plantations in order to evade the payment of the duty, forfeits fifty pounds, and all the ſilk, together with the bales and packages. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 3.

In any diſpute about the growth, the *onus probandi* to lie on the owner or claimer. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 4.

Wrought or mixed with any other materials, and velvets (not manufactured in Great Britain, and not prohibited to be worn therein) imported, are after entry at the cuſtom-houſe, and before delivery to the importer, to be marked or ſealed at each end of every piece, with ſuch mark or ſeal, and by ſuch officer, as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall appoint. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1.

Upon exportation, the exporter, before they are ſhipped, muſt give notice to the proper officer when and where he will pack them up, who is (without fee or reward) to take care that ſuch ſeals, ſtamps, or marks, are taken off from every piece intended to be exported; without which no drawback is to be allowed. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 2.

Such goods found in any ſhop, warehouſe, or other

place upon land, not ſo marked or ſealed, upon both ends of a whole piece, or one end of a remnant, are forfeited, and may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in the king's warehouſes; and after condemnation are to be publickly ſold to the beſt bidder; one moiety of the produce to be for the uſe of his majeſty, and the other for the officer who ſeized and ſecured them; and the perſon in whoſe poſſeſſion they are found, alſo forfeits two hundred pounds. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 3.

Such goods not to be conſumed in this kingdom, but are to be ſold for exportation only, and not to be delivered out of the warehouſe, till ſecurity is given accordingly. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 4.

For counterfeiting ſuch ſtamp, mark or ſeal, or the impreſſion thereof, upon the goods above mentioned, or for knowingly ſelling, or expoſing to ſale, the ſaid goods with a counterfeit ſtamp, the offender, his aiders, abettors and aſſiſtants, are to forfeit for every offence five hundred pounds, and to ſtand in the pillory for two hours. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 5.

The pecuniary forfeitures by this act may be ſued for in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or the court of exchequer at Edinburgh, by action, bill, plaint, or information, in the name of the attorney general, or of the advocate in Sco land, or of any officer of the cuſtoms; one half to his majeſty, and one half to the officer of the cuſtoms who informs or proſecutes. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 6.

A capias in the firſt proceſs may iſſue, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for, and the defendant ſhall be obliged to give bail by natural-born ſubjects, perſons naturalized or denizens, for his appearance at the day of the return of the writ, and at ſuch appearance to give ſufficient bail, to anſwer the forfeiture in caſe of conviction. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ* 8.

If any officer of the cuſtoms refuſes, or neglects for one month, to proſecute ſuch offender to effect, any other perſon may do it in the ſame manner, and ſhall be intitled to the ſame ſhare of the forfeiture. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 7.

In caſe of any queſtion ariſing where the goods were manufactured, the proof is to lie upon the owner or claimer. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 10.

For the bounty and regulations of exportation of Britiſh ſilk manufactures. *See* BOUNTY.

*Abſtract of an act of* 6 Geo. III. *to prohibit the importation of foreign wrought ſilks and velvets, for a limited time; and for preventing unlawful combinations of workmen employed in the ſilk manufacture.*

Great quantities of foreign wrought ſilks and velvets being daily brought into and ſold in Great Britain, to the prejudice of the ſilk manufacture of theſe kingdoms, it is therefore hereby enacted, That, from and after the fourteenth of June, 1766, no foreign wrought ſilks or velvets ſhall be imported into Great Britain, or the iſlands of Jerſey, Guernſey, Alderney, Sark. or Man, on penalty of forfeiture and one hundred pounds; nor ſhall any ſuch be ſold, or expoſed to ſale, exchanged, trucked, or worked up, (not being imported before the ſaid time) on penalty of forfeiture thereof, and one hundred pounds, with coſts of ſuit.

The ſaid goods may be ſeized, and the venders, in whoſe poſſeſſion the ſame ſhall be found, forfeit one hundred pounds.

The ſeizure is to be depoſited in one of the king's warehouſes, and to be free to inſpection; and to be publicly ſold, after condemnation, to the beſt bidder, for exportation; for which ſecurity is to be given, before delivery of the goods out of the warehouſe. The certificate is to be returned of ſuch exportation, on proof made of the goods being taken, or having periſhed at ſea; otherwiſe the ſecurities are to be put in ſuit.

An officer neglecting to proſecute for any pecuniary penalty, any other perſon may ſue for and recover the ſame.

Where the goods ſeized ſhall not be proved by the owner to be manufactured in Great Britain, the court ſhall deem them of foreign manufacture.

The weaver of ſuch goods, or owner of furniture made thereof, is not liable to forfeit. Coſts are to be allowed in all proſecutions for pecuniary penalties. The proof where the goods were manufactured is to lie upon the perſon proſecuted; and judgment of condemnation of the goods is ſufficient to intitle the proſecutor to recover.

This act is to continue in force for the ſpace of five years, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, and no longer.

Nothing in this act contained extends to any wrought ſilk or velvet, manufactured in, and imported from, the Eaſt-Indies; or to any ſilk, crapes, or tiffanies, of the manufacture of Italy.

The clauſe of an act of 12 *Geo.* I. relating to the woollen manufacture, and the proviſions therein, are extended to the ſilk manufacture, ſo that if any perſon or perſons ſhall, by day or by night, break into any houſe or ſhop, or enter by force into any houſe or ſhop, with intent to cut or deſtroy any velvet, wrought ſilk, or ſilk mixed with any other materials, or other ſilk manufacture, in the loom, or any warp or ſhute tools, tackle or utenſils; or ſhall wilfully and maliciouſly break or deſtroy any velvet, wrought ſilk, or ſilk mixed with any other materials, or other ſilk manufacture, in the loom, or any warp or ſhute tools, tackle, or utenſils, prepared or employed in or for making thereof; or ſhall wilfully and maliciouſly break or deſtroy any tools, tackle, or utenſils, uſed in or for the weaving or making any ſuch velvet, wrought ſilks, or ſilks mixed with any other materials, or other ſilk goods, or ſilk manufacture, not having the conſent of the owner ſo to do; every ſuch offender, being thereof lawfully convicted, ſhall be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death as in caſes of felony, without benefit of clergy.

SILK-MAN. This is a very genteel and reputable trade; and the ſilk-man, being by the nature of his buſineſs, obliged to have a capital of ſome thouſand pounds, deſerves a place in the firſt rank of tradeſmen. The youth, who is put apprentice to it, ought therefore to have, beſides a handſome fortune, the education of a gentleman, at leaſt ſo far as relates to a polite behaviour; no extraordinary learning is however neceſſary to qualify him for this branch of trade: he ſhould write a fair expeditious hand, and be well verſed in accounts. The ſilkman buys raw and ſpun ſilk from the importer, and ſometimes imports it himſelf; he keeps ſhop, and ſells his ſilk by the pound. He takes from fifty to three hundred pounds with an apprentice; who may ſet up with one thouſand pounds, though if he has much trade, he may ſoon have occaſion for three or four times that ſum.

SILK-THROWSTER. Thoſe of this buſineſs are employed in twiſting and winding ſilk, to fit it for the uſe of different artificers. They take from about twenty to fifty pounds with an apprentice; and, as they deal in ſilk, require from four hundred to two thouſand pounds to ſet up maſters.

SILK-WEAVER. The boy who is to be put apprentice to a weaver of plain ſilks, requires no extraordinary abilities; but if he is to be bound to a weaver of flowered ſilks, as damaſks and brocades, he ought to learn drawing, that he may be able to deſign his own patterns. The ſums given with an apprentice are from five to ten pounds. Some of the maſters keep only a loom or two at work; and ſuch a maſter may ſet up with fifty or one hundred pounds. But there are others who are great dealers, and employ from five hundred to five thouſand pounds in trade. Theſe laſt require from twenty to one hundred pounds with an apprentice; who will be chiefly employed in the compting-houſe. The wages of weavers in general are but poor, the beſt hands among the journeymen being ſeldom able to get above fifteen ſhillings a week.

SILVER, a white, rich ſort of metal, being the fineſt, pureſt, moſt ductile, and moſt precious of all metals, except gold. Silver is heavier than any of the other metals, except gold and lead; though it comes after lead, in regard to its gravity, it greatly excels it in fixity, and, of all metals, approaches the neareſt to gold in ſimplicity; bearing all the teſts of fire, and moſt of the ſeverer ones, by the addition of other metalline bodies, in the ſame manner that gold does, and not diſcovering any diverſity of parts by the ordinary means. It is conſiderably hard in compariſon of lead or gold; yet it is malleable and ductile to a very great degree, and may be drawn out in an extremely fine wire. It is leſs capable of ruſt than any other metal, except gold; but it readily becomes black, on being rubbed with ſulphur. It is in ſome degree ſonorous in itſelf, and, in compoſition with copper and tin, it makes a metal that is more ſo than

thoſe

thoſe two materials alone would be. It requires a kind of middle degree of fire to fuſe it, bearing unaltered a ſtronger degree of heat than either lead or gold, but melting much eaſier than copper or iron. It may be ſtrictly ſaid to grow red-hot before it melts, but the ſtate of ignition, without fuſion, is but inſtantaneous in it, and it runs as ſoon as it is red-hot. It amalgamates ready enough with mercury; the readieſt way of mixing them is to have the ſilver in fine filings, very clear from greaſe, and to rub it in a mortar with the mercury. It is fixed in a common fire, ſo as to loſe ſcarce any thing, perhaps, truly ſpeaking not any thing at all, in the fierceſt degree of it, never ſo long continued: it has been tried by Boerhaave for two months together, in the eye of a glaſs houſe furnace, and found to loſe only one twelfth part of its weight in the operation; and it is highly probable, that even this loſs might be owing to the ſilver's not being perfectly purified firſt.

Silver, expoſed to the fierceſt fire, collected in the focus of a large burning-glaſs, immediately becomes red-hot, and melts; it then crackles, and afterwards emits a thick ſmoak: ſoon after this, it is covered with a duſty ſubſtance, or calx. If the ſilver has been refined by means of antimony, the calx is of a yelloviſh hue, and, if kept long enough in the focus, it will vitrify in the ſame manner as gold; but, if it has been refined with lead, the calx is whiter, and, Homberg aſſures us, will never vitrify, however long expoſed, even to that degree of heat.

The ſpecific gravity of ſilver has been variouſly laid down by various experiments, this has been owing to the different degrees of purity of the ſilver they have weighed, or their different accuracy in experiments of this kind; they make its weight to water to be from 10284 to 11091 to 1000, by the niceſt trial; the gravity of the ſilver we have already mentioned, as ſtanding the fire without loſs, is to water as 10470 to 1000. Silver is purified by means of lead, and bears its action without loſs. Fuſed with antimony, if the effect be not carefully prevented, it turns to ſcoria, and becomes volatile: there is no metal, indeed, except gold alone, that bears the teſt with this rapacious mineral in the common way.

The proper ſolvent of ſilver is *aqua fortis*; it is diſſolved readily by this, and not at all by the common *aqua regia*; yet, under certain circumſtances, *aqua regia* will diſſolve ſilver: the firſt phlegm which ariſes in diſtilling that menſtruum, when newly made, and when it has been ſome time in digeſtion with gold, will diſſolve ſilver, and will not touch gold; though it cannot be acknowledged, but this liquor is as much *aqua regia*, as what follows in the diſtillation. This, however, is a mere experiment of curioſity, not likely ever to occur in the way of buſineſs, and in that reſpect, though we are acquainted with this accident, which was accidentally diſcovered by Homberg, we may ſay in general, as we uſed to do, that *aqua fortis* diſſolves ſilver, and not gold; and *aqua regia* gold, and not ſilver. If but the ſmalleſt quantity of ſea ſalt be put into *aqua fortis*, it will no longer give a clear ſolution of ſilver. This gives us a teſt for the goodneſs of *aqua fortis*; and to this difference in the effect of theſe two menſtruums, we owe the only method of ſeparating ſilver from gold, without loſs. If ſilver be fuſed with lead, it loſes its ſound, and its bright colour; if melted with tin, it becomes extremely brittle, and the two metals are very difficultly ſeparated again. It melts and mixes eaſily with copper, and by that means acquires a hardneſs which fits it for our coins and utenſils, much better than in its pure natural ſtate.

Silver, melted with arſenic (which is eaſily done by mixing the arſenic with a little chalk and a little tartar, then wetting it with common water, and then ſtratifying the ſilver with the maſs) receives a part of that ſubſtance into its own body, and ſhews the ſingular effect it has on it in its loſing all its malleability; but the arſenic may be ſeparated from it again by only melting it in a ſtrong fire.

Silver, melted with biſmuth, is afterwards much the more eaſily amalgamated with quickſilver; and what is yet more remarkable, is, that by this means it becomes ſo attenuated, that it will paſs through a leather in much larger quantity mixed with the mercury, than it would otherwiſe have done. It is made much more fuſible, as well as volatile, by antimony, and is ſtrangely debaſed by the fume of burning ſulphur.

Silver is ſaid by ſome to be able to colour the natural gems, and the factitious glaſſes, and paſtes with fine blue; but this is an error wholly owing to the alloy of copper, which is in moſt ſilver, and which has occaſionally ſhewn this effect in the artificial products of this kind; as to the ſuppoſed effect in the natural ones, we have no adequate proof of it, no ſilver being ever ſeparated from any blue gem, nor any proof of its being in any of them having appeared in all the experiments occaſionally made. Though ſilver in the earth be not capable of communicating any colour to foſſiles, it has, however, a power of influencing their figure, and that in a very ſingular manner: it has long been known, that iron determines the cryſtals it enters the compoſition of, into rhombs, and lead into cubes; but it has not been known that theſe truncated cryſtals and ſpars, preſerved as great curioſities in the cabinets of the curious, owe their figure to ſilver, till ſilver was lately ſeparated from them. As certainly, therefore, as iron or lead can form cryſtals into cubes and rhombs, ſo certainly can ſilver, even in a very ſmall quantity, influence the figure of thoſe foſſils, and form them into columns truncated at each end.

The chemiſts, who ſuppoſe ſilver to have ſome peculiar affinity to the moon, therefore call it *luna*; their character for it is this; by this they mean to denote the half of gold, whoſe character is a complete circle; the inner line of this figure, if turned outward, will make it the compleat mark of gold, by which they expreſs that the inſide of ſilver, turned outward, would make it gold; for they do not allow that there is any thing foreign or corroſive in this metal, as there is in all the others, except gold itſelf: this corroſive matter they expreſs by a croſs added to the figure, which is wanting only in the characters of gold and ſilver. It has been ſuppoſed by many, that ſilver would afford a blue tincture, but this is wholly erroneous; its ſolution, if the ſilver has been thoroughly purified, is always colourleſs, and its cryſtals are as pellucid and deſtitute of any tinge, as the pureſt rock cryſtal; but if there be any copper left in the ſilver, even in ever ſo ſmall a quantity, the ſolution will be green or blue. The cryſtals of ſilver are intenſely bitter. If ſilver be melted with common ſalt, it blends, with proper management, into a ſemi-pellucid maſs, called *luna cornea*, which is very difficultly reduced into ſilver again, being ſo volatile, that it flies wholly off in a ſmall degree of heat.

The chemical writers have ſaid great things of the virtues of ſilver, but there is very little reaſon for placing any dependance on them. The Arabian authors are as fond of it, indeed, as they are of gold, and attribute all thoſe effects to a grain or two of it taken internally, as a ſufficient quantity of it is apt to create in the poſſeſſor without ſwallowing any of it. They ſay it gives great ſpirits and chearfulneſs, and fortifies the heart, and add, that in a particular manner it is good for the head. Hence they give leaf-ſilver a place in all their ſtrengthening and cordial compoſitions, and hence the chemiſts have endeavoured to introduce among us a long train of lunar medicines, ſuch as *argentum potabile*, *diaphoreticum lunare*, *bezoarditum lunare*, and fifty others, as pompous as inſignificant.

The only preparations which keep up to their credit in the ſhops, are, the lunar cryſtals, and lunar cauſtic.

SILVER MINES, *and the different ſorts of ore.* There are a great number of ſilver-mines, in different parts of the world; but the richeſt and moſt copious are in America, eſpecially in Potoſi, one of the provinces of Peru. The veins of ore were, in the beginning, but at a very ſmall depth in the mountain of Potoſi, but by degrees the miners were obliged to dig deeper into the bowels of the mountain, in order to follow the veins; and at preſent the ſhafts are ſo deep, that it requires upwards of four hundred ſteps to arrive at the bottom. The veins at this depth are found to be of the ſame quality as thoſe formerly diſcovered near the ſurface; and the mine is rich. It ſeems to be inexhauſtible, but the working in it becomes more difficult every day, and often proves fatal to the greateſt part of the workmen, by the exhalations ariſing from the bottom of the mine, and which ſpread even to the extremities. No perſon can endure ſo deſtructive an air more than one day at a time, nor are the animals which feed on the adjacent places free from its effects. They often meet with metallic veins, which yield ſuch pernicious vapours as kill inſtantly; theſe they are obliged

liged immediately to ſhut up, and leave them entirely. The greateſt part of the workmen after they have wrought in the mines for a conſiderable time, become diſabled. It is aſtoniſhing to find how many Indians have loſt their lives, ſince they began to work theſe mines; and the numbers that die ſtill every day. The ſilver ore, though contained in the ſame vein, is not always of the ſame colour and quality: in Peru they call it mineral: if it be white or grey, mixed with red or whitiſh ſpecks, they call it *plata-blancha*; and this is the richeſt and the eaſieſt oré to work. They likewiſe find a black ore like the ſcoria of iron, which they term *plomo-ronco*. There is another ſpecies of black ore, to which they have given the name of *boſſicler*; becauſe it turns red on being wet and rubbed againſt iron. The oré called *zoroche* ſhines like talc; and, though it looks as if it contained ſilver, yet they extract but little of that metal from it; the *paco* ore is of a red colour, with a caſt of yellow in it, and is found in little and very ſoft pieces, and is but a poor one: the green ore, called *cobriſſo*, is almoſt friable; the particles of ſilver in it may be ſeen with the naked eye, but it is very difficult to extract them. There is alſo, in the mine of Catamito in Potoſi, an ore called *aranea*, which conſiſts of threads of pure ſilver; this is what they call ſilver ore in ſmall threads. Theſe filaments are always richer towards the center than towards their extremities; but the ſilver abounds moſt where theſe threads interſect each other. The two firſt mines of Potoſi were opened in the year 1545; the one called Rica, and the other Diego Centeno. The firſt was raiſed ſome diſtance above the level of the ground, in the form of a cock's comb, being three hundred feet long and thirteen broad. The ore of this mine was ſo rich, that almoſt half of it was pure ſilver, to the depth of fifty or ſixty fathoms, where it began to change a little.

The richeſt ſilver mines are only to be found in the cold places of America. The climate of Potoſi is ſo very cold, that formerly the Spaniſh women could not lie in there, but were obliged to remove twenty or thirty leagues beyond it, in order to have a milder climate: but at preſent they lie in as eaſily at Potoſi, as the native Indians themſelves. At the foot of the mountain of Potoſi ſtands the town of the ſame name, which is become famous on account of the great riches its inhabitants have drawn from the mountain. There are in this town upwards of ſixty thouſand Indians, and ten thouſand Spaniards. They oblige the neighbouring pariſhes to furniſh a certain number of Indians every year to work in the mines; and this is what they call *mita* or their *quota*: the greateſt part carry their wives and children with them, but they all go thither with the greateſt reluctance. This ſervitude laſts only a year, after which they are at liberty to return to their former habitations; but a great many ſettle in Potoſi, which by that means becomes every day more and more populous. Though the mines of Potoſi are the leaſt dangerous, yet without the herb *paraguai*, which the miners take by way of infuſion, as we do tea, or chew it like tobacco, they muſt ſoon quit them. The mines of Potoſi and Lipes ſtill maintain their reputation; however, there have been others diſcovered ſome years ago that are reckoned richer; ſuch are thoſe of Oruvo, eight leagues from Arica; and thoſe of Ollacha, near Cuſco, which were diſcovered in 1712.

*The method of extracting* SILVER *from the ore.* In order to extract ſilver from the ore, they firſt break it into pretty ſmall pieces, and then grind it with iron peſtles, weighing about two hundred pounds, and which commonly are moved by water. The ore, when pounded, is paſſed through a ſieve of iron or copper, and then kneaded with water to a paſte, which they leave to dry a little; afterwards, they knead it a ſecond time with ſea-ſalt, and at laſt they throw ſome mercury upon it, and knead it a third time, in order to incorporate the mercury with the ſilver; being what they call an amalgama. Eight or ten days are ſufficient for this proceſs in temperate places; but in cold countries, it ſometimes requires a month or ſix weeks. They then throw the paſte into large tubs or lavatories, in order to ſeparate the earth from it; theſe tubs conſiſt of three baſons ſtanding over a current of water, which carries off the earth, after it has been ſteeped in each baſon. In order to facilitate the operation, they conſtantly ſtir the paſte with their feet, that, when the water comes clear out of theſe baſons, there may remain at the bottom only ſilver and mercury amalgamated together; and this is what they call *pigna*. They endeavour to extract the mercury which is not incorporated with the ſilver, by preſſing the pigna, beating it ſtrongly, or bruiſing it in a preſs or mill. There are pignas of different ſizes and different weights; they commonly contain a third of ſilver, and two-thirds of mercury. They lay the pigna upon a trevet, placing under it a veſſel full of water; and cover the whole with earth in form of a cap, which they ſurround with burning coals. The action of the fire cauſes the mercury to evaporate from the pigna, and falls into the water, where it is condenſed. The interſtices which the mercury occupied in the pigna continue empty, and there remains only a porous and light maſs of ſilver, compared with its former bulk.

Silver is likewiſe extracted from the ore in the following manner: they firſt break the ore, and ſometimes waſh it, to ſeparate the ſtony particles which have been reduced to a powder: after this they calcine it, in order to extract from it the ſulphur and arſenic: this is what they call roaſting the ore; after which they waſh it again, to free it from the calcined powder. The ore being thus prepared, they fuſe it with lead or litharge, or with copel heads that have been uſed before; they employ granulated lead for this purpoſe, when the work is but ſmall. The harder the ore is to melt, the more lead they mix with it: about ſixteen or twenty parts of lead to one of oré. This proceſs is called ſcorifying: the ſcoria conſiſts of lead vitrified with the ſtone, and with whatever elſe is not gold or ſilver in the ore; and the metal precipitates into a regulus. If this regulus looks pretty fine, and of a metallic colour, they put it into the copel; but, if it ſtill be mixed with ſcoria and black, they melt it over again with a ſmall quantity of glaſs or lead.

In order to ſeparate the ſilver from the mercury, with which it is amalgamated, they have a furnace with an aperture at the top; this aperture they cover with a ſort of dome made of earth in a cylindrical form, which may be left on or taken away at pleaſure. When they have put the maſs of ſilver and mercury into the furnace, laid on the cover, and lighted the fire, the quick-ſilver riſes in the form of vapours, and adheres to the dome, from whence they collect it, and uſe it again for the ſame purpoſe.

When the ſilver is well purified, ſo that all heterogeneous matter, either metallic or other, that might be mixed with it, is extracted, they ſay it is twelve carats fine. This is the expreſſion they uſe to denote the quality of the pureſt ſilver, without any mixture or alloy; but if there ſhould remain any, they deduct the weight of the mixture from the principal weight, and the remainder ſhews the value of the ſilver. The carat conſiſts of twenty-four grains: ſo that, when to the weight of twelve carats there are twelve grains of mixture, the value of the ſilver is eleven carats twelve grains, and ſo of any other.

*Refining of* SILVER. As to refining, it is differently performed in different countries, and according to the different intentions of the refiners. The refining of ſilver with lead is performed with a very dry copel, which they make red-hot in a reverberatory furnace; and after this they put the lead into it, uſing more or leſs, according as the ſilver which they would copel is ſuſpected to have more or leſs alloy. *See* ASSAYING.

There is ſome difference between copelling in ſmall, and copelling in great: for inſtance, when they copel in the great, they blow upon the copel, while the ſilver runs round, in order to ſeparate it from the litharge: whence it happens, that, when the proceſs is not well performed, there is found ſome lead among the litharge, and ſometimes ſilver; which does not happen when they copel in the ſmall. In this proceſs they muſt allow ſixteen parts of lead for each part of alloy.

The refining of ſilver with ſalt-petre is performed with fuſing the ſilver in a crucible that is laid in a wind-furnace: when the ſilver is fuſed, they ſay the matter is in balneo; and, when it is in this ſtate, they throw ſalt-petre into the crucible, and let the whole fuſe well together; this they call ſoldering the matter well in balneo.

They take the crucible out of the fire, and pour the matter gently into a tub full of water, where the ſilver turns to little grains, provided the water be ſtirred; for if the water be at reſt, the ſilver falls down in a lump to the bottom.

They likewiſe fuſe ſilver three times, putting ſalt-petre and borax to it each time; and the third time they let the crucible

crucible cool without touching it, and pour it into an ingot mould: after this they break it, and find at the bottom a piece of fine ſilver; the ſcoria or ſcales a-top, conſiſt of the ſalt-petre and the alloy that was in the ſilver.

Two ounces of ſalt-petre, and an eighth part of an ounce of borax calcined with eight ounces of ſilver, are repeated in the proceſs till the ſcoria have no colour.

All the above methods of refining ſilver, having been found inconvenient and tedious, M. Homberg was induced to attempt the diſcovering a method of ſhortening the proceſs, in which he ſucceeded. It conſiſts in calcining ſilver with half its weight of common ſulphur; and, after fuſing the whole together, throwing upon it, at different times, a certain quantity of filings of ſteel; by which means the ſulphur quits the ſilver, in order to unite with the iron, and both the one and the other turn to a ſcum that ſwims a-top of the ſilver; and there is found at the bottom of the crucible the purified matter.

*Shell*-SILVER, is made with ſilver-leaf, ground with new-honey, and, after pouring a ſmall quantity of aqua-fortis on it, the menſtruum is poured off, and the ſilver kept for uſe.

SILVER. The old ſtandard of eleven ounces two pennyweights reſtored. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1.

The old ſtandard of eleven ounces two pennyweights, and the new ſtandard of eleven ounces ten penyweights, continued, and no plate may be made of coarſer allay. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 40.

Molten ſilver may not be exported, unleſs marked or ſtamped at Gold ſmiths-hall, and a certificate be produced to one of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, under the hands of one or more of the wardens, of oath having been made before him or them by the owner, and one credible witneſs, that it is lawful ſilver, and that no part thereof (before molten) was the current coin, nor clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 5, 6.

Shipped without being ſo marked or ſtamped, and without ſuch certificate, is forfeited, and may be ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 6.

Molten ſilver or bullion, either in bars, ingots, wedges, cakes, pina's, or any other form, may not be ſhipped, unleſs a certificate be produced to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or four of them, from the court of the lord mayor and aldermen of London, of oath having been made before the ſaid court, by the owners, and two or more credible witneſſes, that the ſame, and every part and parcel thereof was, and is foreign bullion, and that no part thereof (before molten) was the coin of this realm, or clippings thereof, nor plate wrought within this kingdom.

An entry thereof to be made by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in a particular book. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 9.

Shipped without entry and ſuch oath and certificate, is forfeited, and may be ſeized by any perſons, and the proprietor forfeits double the value. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 7.

The maſter of any ſhip belonging to a ſubject, knowingly permitting the ſhipping, forfeits two hundred pounds and if it be a man of war, the captain likewiſe forfeits his employment, and is rendered incapable of any office, civil or military. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 7.

Officers granting a cocket, before certificate be produced and entry made by the commiſſioners, forfeit two hundred pounds and are rendered incapable of any other place. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 8.

Seized, proof of its being foreign, &c. is to lie on the proprietor or claimer. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 9.

SILVER-WATCHES, ſword hilts, wrought plate and other ſilver manufactures of the fineneſs of eleven ounces ten pennyweights to every pound troy, ſo many may be exported yearly, as ſhall be allowed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 1.

But boxes, caſes, or dial-plates of gold, ſilver, braſs, or other metal, for clocks or watches, may not be exported without the movements made up fit for uſe, with the maker's name graved thereon, upon forfeiture and twenty pounds. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 2.

SILVER THREAD Britiſh, for the drawback and regulations for exportation, *See* DRAWBACK.

SILVER-CASTER His art does not requires any extraordinary genius, ſtrength, or learning. The ſilver-caſter caſts buckles, ſtay-hooks, the work of ſeals, and many other articles for the jewellers, who afterwards repair and poliſh the work, and ſet ſtones in the apertures left for that purpoſe. The ſilver-caſter works in the following manner: he lays upon a table the various patterns from which he is to caſt; as the rims of buckles, ſtay hooks, the work of ſeals, &c. Theſe being placed at a ſmall diſtance from each other, he places over them a braſs frame, which is called a flaſk; into this frame he ſifts a quantity of fine brick duſt over the models, and then fills up the flaſk with fine wet ſand, which being cloſe preſſed down, the flaſk, with the ſand on which is impreſſed the things to be caſt, is carefully taken up, dried and ſmoked. Mean while the rims of the buckles, ſtay hooks, &c. the impreſſion of which was made as before-mentioned in the ſand, are carefully turned, and placed exactly on the ſame ſpot on which they lay before; another flaſk anſwering to the former, is again placed over them, brick duſt is again ſifted in, and the flaſk, being filled up with wet ſand, is dried and ſmoked like the former. A groove is then made in the ſand, leading to the ſeveral figures to be caſt, from an opening in the braſs frame; and the two frames being placed together, the melted ſilver, gold, or other metal, is poured in, and if it runs well, all the figures are caſt in an inſtant ready to be ſent to the jewellers. Thoſe of this buſineſs take ten or twenty pounds with an apprentice; and, as they ſell the metal they thus caſt, require one or two hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

SILVER BUCKLE-MAKER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs ought to learn drawing, that he may be able to make his own models for the uſe of the caſter, and to enable him to raiſe the work of the buckles, and improve, and properly poliſh the figures that come rough and rudely formed to his hand. The men in this buſineſs work for the gold-ſmiths; and take about ten or twelve pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn about twenty ſhillings a week.

SILVER-SMITH. Theſe are now diſtinguiſhed from the goldſmiths only by their being the artiſts who perform the work which the others ſell in their ſhops. The boy intended for this buſineſs, ought to have a good genius, which ſhould be improved by learning to draw, and a ſolid judgment, together with a mechanical head and hand, to enable him not only to perform his work, but to underſtand all the properties of metals; the proper menſtruums for their ſolution; and the ſecret of mixing them with their proper alloy. The ſilver-ſmith is employed in making all manner of utenſils of gold and ſilver; and his work is performed by ſoldering and beating veſſels into form with the hammer, and poliſhing. They take with an apprentice from ten to forty or fifty pounds, pay their journeymen, who work by the piece, from twelve to fifteen ſhillings a week; and require to become maſter from eighty to five hundred pounds.

SILVER *and* GOLD THREAD-SPINNERS. The moſt neceſſary qualifications in this buſineſs, in which both men and women are employed, is a dry hand. The ſilver or gold wire being drawn to the utmoſt fineneſs by the wire-drawer, and then flatted, it is ſpun, or, in other words, twiſted round a thread of ſilk. This is done in a long room, at the end of which is a wheel of ſteel, on which are ſpindles placed in the ſame manner as in the wheel of a rope-walk. To one of theſe ſpindles is faſtened the ſilk together with the flatted wire; one perſon turns the wheel, while another holding the thread of ſilk in one hand, and the flatted ſilver or gold wire in the other, allows it to wind gently about the ſilk, as it is turned round by the wheel: in this manner the ſilk is covered; after which it is rolled upon a bottom, and is now called ſilver or gold fleſy. The perſons employed in this work may earn twelve or fourteen ſhillings a week. The maſter is paid by the laceman, who generally furniſhes him with the materials. He takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when his time is expired, may ſet up with fifty pounds.

SILVER-TURNER. This is a buſineſs which depends on the gold-ſmiths; but requires no extraordinary education. The artiſt turns a variety of veſſels and toys in gold and ſilver. He takes with an apprentice from five to twenty pounds, and if the youth has fifty or ſixty pounds, he may, when his time is expired, ſet up for himſelf.

SILVESTRE, *or* SYLVESTRE, *granum*, or *coccus ſylveſtris*, a term uſed by ſome authors to expreſs the *coccus polonicus*,

*nicus*, and by others for a coarſe or bad kind of cochineal, produced in the province of Guatimala, in New Spain: it is by ſome ſuppoſed to be the feed of the plant; but it is, in reality a true inſect as the cochineal is; only that the ſcarlet-colour it yields, is greatly inferior to the other. *See* COCHINEAL.

SINKING-FUND, is a proviſion made by parliament, conſiſting of ſurpluſages of other funds, appropriated for paying the public debts of the nation; and many late ſtatutes have been made for applying the growing produce thereof. Alſo money is often borrowed on the credit of the ſinking-fund, ufually one million a year towards raiſing ſupplies for public ſervice.

SINOPE, is a port ſituated on the Euxine Sea, on the Natolian ſide; ſome goods are here imported, but the greateſt part of the trade is carried on in different coins. The Perſians, however, drive a very conſiderable one here in ſilk ſtuffs, cambreſines, indianas, carpets, lizats, &c. of which the greateſt part goes to Conſtantinople, and the reſt to Caffa; and it is the Tartars, Greeks and Turks, who purchaſe the greateſt part of theſe merchandizes: a few linens are brought from Trebiſonde, but of ſo little import as not to merit any regard.

SIZE, an inſtrument uſed to find the ſize of pearls withal.

It conſiſts of five thin pieces, or leaves, about two inches long, and half an inch broad, faſtened together at one end by a rivet. In each of theſe are ſeveral round holes drilled, of different diameters. Thoſe in the firſt leaf ſerve for weighing pearls from half a grain to ſeven grains. Thoſe of the ſecond, for pearls from eight grains or two carats, to five carats, &c.

SIZEL, in the fabrication of our milled money, the gold or ſilver that is caſt out of the melting pot into long flat bars, which bars are drawn through a mill, (wrought by a horſe) to produce the juſt thickneſs of guineas, crowns, &c. Then with forcible engines, called cutters, which anſwer exactly to the reſpective ſizes or dimenſions of the money to be made, the round pieces are cut out from the flat bar, ſhaped as aforeſaid; after which the reſidue is called ſizel, and is melted down again.

SKERRIES, (iſland or rock). Patent granted to William French, Eſq; for a light-houſe there, confirmed, 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *See* LIGHT-HOUSE.

SKIE, the biggeſt but one of all the weſtern iſlands of Scotland, is a part of Inverneſs, from which it is divided by a narrow channel. The ſoil is generally a black mould, though there is ſome of a red colour, wherein iron is ſometimes found. The arable land is for the moſt part black, yet affords clay, white, red, and blue; and in ſome places there is fine white marble, various marcaſites, [*ſee* MARCASITES] agate, and variegated ſtones; cryſtals of ſeveral colours, plenty of free-ſtone and lime ſtone. Here are the *lapis hecticus*, the *lapis ceraunius* (a ſort of crampſtone) and plenty of good ſprings, ſome of which are medicinal.

It is very high land, both on the coaſt and within the country; and almoſt to the centre of the iſland, there are ſeven high mountains that lie near one another. The ſoil is fruitful enough in the low grounds, and produces plenty of thoſe ſpecies of cattle and corn, which are to be found in the other weſtern iſlands; eſpecially of the latter, for it ſupplies the neighbouring continent with barley and oats.

Cod and ling are common upon the coaſt, and herrings in great abundance, for the taking of which there are many convenient harbours and bays, with about thirty rivers that afford ſalmon and other fiſh. [*See the article* SCOTLAND]. The country is populous, the people handſome, and very healthy. Their cattle are horſes, cows, ſheep, goats, and hogs.

SKINS. None ſhall take the wool from any ſheep-ſkin or lamb-ſkin, unleſs he make leather or parchment of it, &c. 5 *Eliz. c.* 22. *f.* 1.

None ſhall buy ſkins but to make leather or parchment. 5 *Eliz. c.* 22. *f.* 1.

Exportation of ſkins and leather prohibited. 5 *Eliz. c.* 2. *f.* 2.

Of ſheep-ſkins tawed permitted. 8 *Eliz. c.* 14.

None but artizan ſkinners ſhall dreſs or export black coney-ſkins. 3 *Jac.* I. *c.* 9.

Merchants ſhall not buy coney-ſkins or morkins in ſmall quantities. 3 *Jac.* I. *c.* 9.

Duty on ſkins imported. 9 *Ann. c.* 11. *f.* 1.

Drawback of two-thirds on exportation. 9 *Ann. c.* 11. *f.* 39.

Additional duty on ſkins imported. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *f.* 1.

Drawback on exporter's oath that hides are marked. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *f.* 5. *See* HIDES, LEATHER.

SKINNER, a youth who is to be bound apprentice to a ſkinner, needs only the capacity neceſſary for every wholeſale tradeſman; and his education may be confined to reading, writing a good hand, expreſſing himſelf handſomely in a letter, and the knowledge of the common rules of arithmetic. The ſkinner deals in rich ſkins and furrs dreſſed with the hairs on, chiefly for lining or ornamenting garments and robes, and alſo in the fur itſelf; which they cauſe to be cut off, and ſell to the hatters, &c. and ſome of them are alſo furriers. They take from ten to fifty pounds with an apprentice; who will require from five hundred to two thouſand pounds to ſet up for himſelf.

SLATE, a bluiſh foſſile ſtone, very ſoft when dug out of the quarry, and therefore eaſily cut or ſawed into thin long ſquares, to ſerve inſtead of tiles for the covering of houſes; alſo for making tables, &c.

The ancients were unacquainted with the uſe of ſlate, and inſtead thereof covered their houſes with ſhingles, as we read in Pliny. Beſides the blue ſlate we have alſo in England a greyiſh ſlate, called alſo Horſham ſtone, from a town in Suſſex of that name, where the greateſt quantities of it are found.

The blue ſlate is very light and laſting, but chargeable withal, becauſe the roof muſt be firſt boarded over, the ſlates hung with tacks, and laid with finer mortar than tiles. The grey ſlate is chiefly uſed in covering churches, chancels, &c.

SLAVE TRADE. *See* AFRICA.

SLEGO, in Ireland, tho' not abounding in grain, is a very plentiful country both for breeding and feeding cattle; ſo that beſides the advantages ariſing from the fattening them, the fleece and the pail proclaim the riches of the grazing and dairy trade. Slego had in the year 1723 eighteen ſhips (with eight hundred and eighty tuns) belonging to its port.

SLESWICK. *See* JUTLAND.

SLOOP, a veſſel with one maſt, and ſeldom exceeding two hundred tons. Sloops of war, commonly called men of war ſloops, are much larger, and carry ſixteen or eighteen guns.

SLOP-SHOP. This buſineſs requires no great ſkill, ingenuity, or learning, to become maſter of it; writing a good hand and accounts are all the qualifications neceſſary for a young man before he is put apprentice. In the ſlop-ſhop are ſold all kinds of jackets, ſhirts, trouzers, and other wearing apparel belonging to ſailors, ready made. It is a very profitable buſineſs. The maſters take about twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have twenty pounds a year and his board as a journeyman, for cutting out the cloth, giving it to the workwomen, and attending the other buſineſs of the ſhop. Some of the maſters, and particularly thoſe who contract to ſerve the royal navy, employ ſeveral thouſand pounds in trade.

SMACK, is a ſmall veſſel with one maſt, ſometimes employed as tenders to men of war, and are likewiſe uſed in fiſhing upon the coaſts.

SMALT, a kind of mineral matter, prepared and purified abroad, and brought hither, ſometimes in form of a blue powder, and ſometimes in cakes.

It is prepared in the following manner: the remaining matter of the cobalt from which the flowers have been ſublimed, as deſcribed under arſenic, is ſuffered to cool, and then taken out of the furnace. It is then rendered to a fine powder, and calcined over again in the ſame furnace, and this is repeated till there is not the leaſt particle of flame or ſmoke ſeen to ariſe from any part of it. The cobalt thus perfectly freed from its arſenical and ſulphureous part, is then ground to an impalpable powder, and a mixture is made of one hundred pounds of this powder, fifty pounds of pure white pot-aſh, and one hundred and fifty pounds of fine white ſand. This is all ground together in a mill, and then put into a proper furnace, like thoſe of our

glaſs-

glaſs-houſes, where it runs into a blue deep glaſs. This is afterwards ground to powder in mills contrived for that purpoſe, and makes what we call ſmalt, or powder-blue, uſed by our painters and waſhers.

It has no uſe in medicine.

SMARAGD, ΣΜΑΡΑΓΔΟΣ, a precious ſtone of a green colour, very beautiful and brilliant, but brittle, called alſo emerald. The oriental ſmaragds are moſt in eſteem, as being the hardeſt, and having the moſt vigorous ſplendor, ſo as even to tinge the ambient air with their greenneſs.

Great virtues are aſcribed to the ſmaragd, or emerald. Cardan and others ſay, it reſiſts plagues, poiſons, and dyſenteries; that it refreſhes the ſpirits, &c.

SMELTING, in metallurgy, the ſeveral ways of reducing ore to pure metal, in the large way of buſineſs, ſo as to fit the produce for the civil, mechanical, and œconomical uſes.

The large way of ſmelting ores is analogous to the ſmall one of aſſaying *(ſee that article;)* all things being proportionably larger, the fire animated with bellows, and the blaſt directed upon the ſurface of the melted metal, ſo as to blow off the lead in the form of litharge, before it is fully vitrified.

SMITH. We have given a particular account of the ſeveral trades under this denomination, as the gold-ſmith, black-ſmith, copper-ſmith, &c. under the articles gold-ſmith, black-ſmith, copper ſmith, &c.

SMOLENSKO, a duchy and palatinate in Muſcovy.

This province is ſtiled the Great Duchy, or Palatinate, and extends about two hundred miles from eaſt to weſt, though not half the breadth from north to ſouth. It hath on the north, the principality of Bela, on the weſt, Lithuania, unto which it formerly was ſubject, till ſubdued by the Muſcovites; on the ſouth it hath the duchy of Severia; and, on the eaſt, that of Moſcow.

The river Niepper, or Boriſthenes, hath its ſpring-head on the north-eaſt borders of this province, and runs quite acroſs it, directly from eaſt to weſt. As for the territory, it is not even fertile, but abounds with ſeveral kinds of wild beaſts, whoſe ſkins fetch a good price. It lies from the fifty-fifth to the fifty-ſixth deg. thirty min. of latitude. Its chief cities and towns are Smolenſko, Zuercova-Louki, Graviſk, Dragabuſa, and Bogloveſtine; all of them inconſiderable, except

SMOLENSKO, capital of the duchy, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the Niepper above-mentioned, near the confines of Lithuania, and is a large and well-built populous city. It is almoſt ſurrounded with woods, wherein are taken the beſt furrs in all Muſcovy.

As it ſtands on the frontiers, between Muſcovy and Poland, it hath often ſhifted from one to the other, 'till yielded, with the whole province, to the czar, by the treaty of 1686.

SMUGGLER, a cant word for one that illegally evades the payment of the duties laid by the ſtate on any kind of merchandize. *See* CUSTOMS.

SMYRNA. The great number of European ſhips that import at Smyrna, and the numerous caravans which arrive there from Perſia, have always made, and ſtill make this to be a place of the greateſt commerce in all the Levant, for which it is happily ſituated in the gulph of the Archipelago, in that part of the Leſſer Aſia that the Greeks called Ionia, and at preſent named Natolia.

The port of this city, ſo famous for its commerce, is capable of containing many fleets, and here is always ſeen ſeveral hundred veſſels of diverſe nations.

The greateſt part of the principal foreign merchants have fine commodious houſes of their own; and hardly any thing can be ſeen more ſuperb and magnificent than the habitations of the conſuls, who are almoſt all lodged near the ſea; but perſons whoſe ſtay here is but ſhort, or who would be ſaving in their expences, may have the convenience of being accommodated in a kan, which is a ſort of inn, where a thouſand people may lodge, on paying a dollar per month for each chamber.

At Smyrna are two cuſtom-houſes; the biggeſt called the cuſtom-houſe of commerce, where the duties are paid on ſilk, and other goods that the Armenians import from Perſia, and thoſe which the Chriſtians unload there, and embark for their rerurns: the other named the cuſtom-houſe of Stamboul, or Conſtantinople, only takes notice of the trade of this capital of the Ottoman empire, from Salonica, and other parts of Turkey.

The caravans have their times and ſeaſons fixed for their arrival and departure, on which the European nations regulate the remiſs of their ſhips, to the end that the Aſiatics may carry with them the weſtern merchandizes, and the Europeans reload with thoſe of Aſia.

Of the Aſiatic nations the Armenians are thoſe who carry on the greateſt trade with Smyrna; the caravans from Perſia being almoſt all compoſed of them, and in this city are eſtabliſhed above twelve thouſand.

In reſpect of the natives of Europe, the Engliſh are beſt regarded, and moſt favourably treated, and they likewiſe ſend the greateſt number of ſhips here; after them the Dutch; but the French are too numerous here, and thereby hurt one another.

The merchants from Leghorn carry on a great trade here; thoſe of Venice ſtill more; and the Genoeſe (notwithſtanding the expence the liberty to trade under their own colours has coſt them) hardly any; and the Meſſinois, ſince the year 1690, none at all.

The French trade is carried on from Marſeilles in ten ſail of ſhips, and three or four barks yearly; whoſe loadings conſiſt of dollars, cloths of Dauphiné, Carcaſſonne, and Sapte; in perpetuans or imperial ferges; in caps, paper, cochineal, tartar, verdigreaſe, indigo (from St. Domingo and Guatimala) pewter, dying woods, ſpice, and ſugar. The returns being almoſt the ſame, for all the nations of Europe, who trade there, we ſhall here mention them once for all, viz. Angora goats, and camels hair, rhubarb, ſcammony, opium, fenna, gum adragant and arabic, coffee, yellow-wax, allum, cotton in wool and ſpun, currants, fine camblets, fine wools from Metalin and Caramania, ſkins like Morocco's, buffaloes hides, ſhagreen, ſponges, maſtick, ſaffron, galbanum, galls, aſhes, box, annifeeds, fuſtians, buckram, carpets, ſilks called cerbaſſi, legis, ardaſſe, and ardaſſetes, cotton ſtockings, Turkey handkerchiefs, valonea, xantoline, opoponax, agaric, tutti, amber, muſk, the ultramarine ſtone, ſtorax, ſoap, pearls, diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones; but theſe jewels are ſold privately by the Armenians, who bring them with their caravans, and who frequently come themſelves to chriſtendom to diſpoſe of them.

The Dutch ſend there yearly about fourteen ſhips, with Leyden fine cloths, cloves, mace, cinnamon, nutmegs, ginger, cochineal, indigo, copperas, quickſilver, braſs and iron wire, Dantzick ſteel, Engliſh pewter, rough yellow amber, tartar, ſea-horſe teeth, lapis lazuli, loaf and powder ſugar, cinabar, red oaker, dying woods, tin, Ruſſia hides, &c. and reload with the greateſt part of the goods juſt mentioned.

The Venetians generally ſend there fourteen or ſixteen large ſhips annually, under convoy of two men of war, (as the Engliſh, French and Dutch commonly go) beſides others at different times without convoy; and the Livernois alſo ſend veſſels as they find occaſion.

SNUFF. Made, mixed or coloured with oaker, umber, &c. (except water tinged with Venetian red, or fuſtic, yellow ebony, touchwood, or other wood, dirt, ſand, or tobacco-duſt mixed therewith, is forfeited, with three pounds for every pound weight, by the maker or ſeller. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 7.

The powers and proviſions relating to counterfeit tobacco, are to extend to the abuſes in making and mixing of ſnuff. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 22.

The new duty thereon repealed, by 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 26. *See* TOBACCO.

SNUFF-SHOP. The ſnuff-man buys tobacco from the tobacconiſts, or the importer, and makes it into ſeveral ſorts, by means of mills; ſome of which are turned by horſes, and others by water. Some of theſe ſnuff-men are very great dealers: they moſtly keep ſhop, and ſell great quantities of ſnuff and tobacco, not only to the retail ſhops in this city, but ſend weekly many hundred weights to the chief towns in England. The boy deſigned for this trade needs only the common education of a tradeſman. The maſters take from twenty to forty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get to be a ſhopman; may have the management

nagement of mills; or be a rider for the maſter: but, if he has one hundred pounds, and good credit, he may ſet up for himſelf; and, with care, induſtry, and honeſty, may encreaſe his capital, as others have done, to ſeveral thouſand pounds.

SNUFF BOX-MAKER. The uſe of ſnuff has naturally produced the introduction of ſnuff-boxes; which are made, not only of all kinds of metal, either plain, chaſed, or embelliſhed with ſtones, enamels, ſhells, &c. but of horn, ivory, coal, and even paper. This has introduced ſeveral different trades; in ſome of which the makers take ten or twenty pounds with an apprentice; and in others not more than five pounds. In ſome a journeyman cannot earn upwards of ten or twelve ſhillings a week; and in other branches they may with equal eaſe earn upwards of twenty ſhillings. Again, in ſome branches, a maſter may ſet up with twenty pounds, and in others it will require near an hundred.

SOAP, *or* SOPE, a kind of paſte, ſometimes hard and dry, and ſometimes ſoft and liquid. The principal ſoaps of our manufacture, are the ſoft, the hard, and the ball-ſoap. They all conſiſt of an intimate union of the ſalt of pot-aſh, with oil, or ſome animal ſat.

Every hundred weight of ſoap imported, pays ten ſhillings by *ſtat.* 2. *IV.* and *M. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 47. And every pound two-pence. 18 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. And a penny. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 1. And home made one penny. 20 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. And one halfpenny. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1.

White aſhes not to be exported. 2 and 3 *Ed.* 6. *c.* 26.

The duty laid on ſoap. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. made perpetual, and part of general fund. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9.

Drawback on ſoap uſed in the woollen manufactures. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 29. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 16.

Barrels of ſoap to contain two hundred and fifty pounds, every firkin ſixty-four pounds, beſides the tare of the caſk. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 8.

Penalty of ſwearing falſe. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 31. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 18. Cake-ſoap need not be barrelled. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 111.

Duties laid by 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. made perpetual. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. in order to be ſubſcribed into South-ſea fund, and the ſurplus mortgaged to the bank, by 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3.

Penalty on concealing ſoap. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 14.

On beginning to work without giving notice. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 33.

Penalty on officers falſely admitting notice. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 38.

SOAP-BOILER. This is a laborious greaſy buſineſs, but abundantly profitable; it requires no great ſhare of ingenuity, and no more learning than is neceſſary for every great trader. Soap is compoſed of a lixivium of lye made of kelp, that is, the ſalt of ſea-weed obtained by burning, or the white aſhes of other vegetables, to which is added a quantity of lime-water. When the lye has ſtood long enough in the vats to extract the ſalts from the aſhes, it is drained off, and put into a boiler; if for hard ſoap, with a quantity of oil; where it is allowed to boil till the tallow or oil is ſufficiently incorporated with the lye, and is become of one thick conſiſtence; it is then taken out with ladles, and poured into ſmall barrels: the hard ſoap is put into cheſts, and, when cold, taken out, cut into lengths, and laid up to dry.

Soap-boiling is a very profitable buſineſs, and requires a great capital; but none ought to be bound to it, who has not a proſpect of becoming maſter. Thoſe of this trade take with an apprentice from one hundred to two hundred pounds; and it requires from two thouſand to five thouſand pounds to ſet up: but there is little room for journeymen; for if the maſter and one man in the houſe underſtand the buſineſs, the whole work may be performed by labourers. The wages received by ſuch a foreman depend on the buſineſs of the maſter, and are in proportion to the largeneſs of his dealings; but the others are only paid as labourers, from nine to twelve ſhillings a week.

SOAP-EARTH, *Steatites*, a ſmooth unctuous kind of earth found in the Levant, and uſed as a ſoap.

The ſoap-earth, Dr. Smith tells us, is only had in two places near Duraclea, ſix leagues to the eaſt of Smyrna. It is in effect of itſelf a fine ſoap, boiling and ſhooting up out of the earth.

It is gathered always before ſun-riſe, and in mornings when there falls no dew, ſo that a ſtock muſt be laid up in the ſummer months to ſerve all the year. In ſome places it comes up an inch or two above the ſurface of the ground, but the ſun riſing on it makes it fall again: every morning there returns a freſh crop.

SOCATARA, *or* SOCCATARA, ſeated at the mouth of the Red-Sea, commonly called the ſtreights of Babel-Mandel, is the laſt of the African iſles towards the eaſt, and neareſt to the continent of Aſia. This ſituation placing it almoſt equidiſtant from theſe two parts of the world, renders it very convenient for ſhips that come from India, Madagaſcar, Moſambique, or Melinda, to trade with Arabia-Felix, or with Aden, Mocha, Mecca, and other cities of the Red-Sea. It produces, beſides good refreſhments of all ſorts, aloes (the beſt in the world) ambergreaſe, indigo, civet, incenſe, dragon's blood, and other medicinal drugs, rice, tobacco, and dates, of which latter they have ſuch quantities, as to ſerve them inſtead of bread. All theſe commodities the natives either ſell to foreigners who touch there, or truck them againſt other products of Europe, or India.

SOFALA. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

SOIL, *ſolum*, in agriculture and gardening, denotes earth or ground conſidered with regard to the quality of its mould for the product and growth of vegetables.

Mr. Bradley reduces all ſoils to three heads, viz. ſand, loam, or mother-earth, and clay. Gravels, and all the open ſoils till we come at loam, are of the ſandy race; and the binding earths from loam, down to the ſtiffneſs of chalk, may be ranged under the clay kind.

Loam, or mother-earth, is the medium between the two, and includes all the intermediate kinds.

Each of theſe ſoils tends alike to vegetation, and each has its ſalts proper thereto; but in different proportions, a peck of clay having twice as much ſalt in it as the ſame quantity of loam; and four times as much ſand.

Now, it is found to be the ſalts or juices of the ſoil, not the earth itſelf that plants are fed and ſubſiſted by. For, in many experiments of vegetation where plants of fifteen or twenty pounds weight have been produced, there has been no ſenſible diminution of the weight of the earth.

Hence, at firſt ſight, it would ſeem that clay were moſt proper, and ſand the leaſt proper ſoil, to promote the growth of plants, which is contrary to experience. The reaſon is, that the parts of clay, being cloſe wrought together, do not ſo eaſily give out their ſalts, nor can the tender fibres of many plants make their way through it in ſearch of their food. But, if its parts be well opened by digging and breaking it into very ſmall pieces, and thoſe parts be kept open by a mixture of ſharp ſand, or other like matter, that author adds, we ſhall ſee the effect of its vigour: ſand, on the other hand, giving its ſalts readily, puts forth its plants very eaſily, and will make them germinate a full month ſooner than clay; but, as it is haſty, it is ſoon ſpent. The ſun's warmth calls up all its warmth early in the ſpring. and there is but little left for them to ſubſiſt on long, if the heat continue.

SOISSONS. *See* CHAMPAGNE.

SOK, *or* SOC. *See* KEN.

SOL, *or ſou*, a ſhilling, a French coin of billon, *i. e.* copper with a little ſilver mixed, equal to twelve deniers, or French pence; and the twentieth part of the livre or pound.

The French ſol is now worth upwards of an Engliſh halfpenny, or the twenty-third part of an Engliſh ſhilling. *See* COIN.

SOLDER, SODDER, *or* SODER, a metallic or mineral compoſition uſed in ſoldering or joining together other metals.

Solders are made of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, and lead, always obſerving that in the compoſition there be ſome of the metal to be ſoldered mixed with ſome higher and finer metals.

Goldſmiths uſually make four kinds of ſolder, viz. ſolder of eight, where to ſeven parts of ſilver, there is one of braſs or copper; ſolder of ſix, where only a ſixth part is copper; ſolder of four, and ſolder of three. It is the mixture

mixture of copper in the ſolder that makes raiſed plate always come cheaper than flat. The ſolder uſed by plumbers is made of two pounds of lead to one of block-tin. Its goodneſs is tried by melting it, and pouring the bigneſs of a crown-piece on a table; for, if good, there will ariſe little bright ſhining ſtars therein.

The ſolder for copper is made like that of the plumbers, only with copper and tin; for very nice works, inſtead of tin, they ſometimes uſe a quantity of ſilver. *See* COPPER.

Solder for tin is made of two-thirds of tin, and one of lead; but where the work is delicate, as in organ-pipes, where the juncture is ſcarce diſcernable, it is made one part of tin-glaſs, and three of pewter. The duke of Florence's nail, anciently ſo much admired, as being half iron, and half gold, whereas theſe two metals were deemed irreconcileable, was joined by a kind of ſolder made by Turneiſſer, an ingenious chemiſt of Venice; the ſecret whereof was never diſcovered till publiſhed by Tachenius. The ſolder is a little of Cyprus vitriol put between the gold and the iron. For the great acidity of the gold naturally reduces the iron into a ſcoria or ruſt, when the two are applied immediately over one another; but this inconvenience is removed by the interpoſition of a little copper, be it in the ſmalleſt quantity imaginable.

SOLDERING, *or* SODDERING, among mechanics, the joining or faſtening together two pieces of the ſame metal, or of two different metals, by the fuſion and application of ſome metallic compoſition on the extremities of the metals to be joined.

Goldſmiths ſolder with ſilver and braſs or copper mixed together; plumbers with lead and tin. Copper is uſually ſoldered with tin; ſometimes, according to that work, with a mixture of copper and ſilver. In ſoldering all theſe metals they generally uſe borax in powder, and ſometimes roſin.

As to iron, it is ſufficient to beat it red-hot, and, the two extremeties being in this caſe hammered together, by this means they become incorporated.

SOLEURRE. The capital city of the canton with the ſame name in Switzerland, has very fine fortifications, and is ſeated in a country extremely pleaſant; the Aar dividing the city into two unequal parts. It ſerves as a depoſit of the goods imported to Switzerland, by way of Schaffhouſe and Baſil, and which are loaded for Yverden by the lake of Bienne. At Alten, a ſmall town on the Aar, and dependent on Soleurre, beſides other parts of the canton, are made a quantity of woollen knit ſtockings, and ſome hats, and cutlery ware.

SOLLICITOR *in* CHANCERY. The education of a ſollicitor in chancery ſhould be nearly the ſame with that of an attorney at common-law; but he is bound to a ſollicitor, or to one of the clerks in chancery. Indeed, every attorney, ſworn of any of the other courts, may practiſe as a ſollicitor; but this is always done in the name of a ſollicitor ſworn in chancery, who makes it his ſole buſineſs to attend that court.

SOLOWITZJOGDA, is a Muſcovite city celebrated for its trade, where are many good ſubſtantial merchants, and excellent artificers, particularly in works of ſilver, copper, and ivory. It has alſo in its neighbourhood many ſalt ponds, that produce a great deal of that commodity for tranſportation to Vologda, and ſeveral other places, even as far as Archangel.

SOLVIT AD DIEM, is a plea in action of debt on a bond, bill, &c. that the money was paid at the day limited. *Mod. Cas.* 22. To a bond of thirty years ſtanding the defendant pleaded *ſolvit ad diem*, relying on the preſumption; the plaintiff proved payment of intereſt two years after the day; this falſifies the plea: the defendant ſhould have pleaded upon the act for amendment of the law, that he paid the money after the day. 1 *Strange* 652.

SOMERSETSHIRE. Few counties produce ſo great a variety as this, both for home and foreign markets; as here is corn in plenty, lead, copper, lapis calaminaris, cryſtal, coals, and woad for dying. The oxen in this county equal in ſize thoſe in Lincolnſhire, and the ſheep are as numerous as in Dorſetſhire, Wilts, &c. which afford the natives a ſufficient ſupply of wools for their large manufactures of almoſt all ſorts of woollen, ſuch as broad-cloth, mixt or medleys, ſerges, druggets, duroys, and ſtuffs of many denominations; ſtockings, both worſted and yarn, kerſeys, ſhalloons, &c. At Chedder are made thoſe celebrated cheeſes, which excel the Parmeſan, to an unprejudiced taſte; and extra of theſe, this county with the northern part of Wiltſhire, ſends yearly to Morden, or Magdalen Hill fair, near Wincheſter, about fifteen hundred tuns, which are ſold in one day; this fair is held annually on the twenty-fifth of July, and is the greateſt for this commodity in England.

SOMPAYE, is the ſmalleſt ſilver coin current at Siam; it was worth two ſols and demi-pite French money, when the ounce of ſilver was only valued at three and a half livres. It is the half of a ſouang, and twelve to thirteen Siameſe caches are given for one ſompaye, or four hundred cowries. The ſompaye is divided into two payes, the paye into two clams; but theſe two ſorts of money are only imaginary, and not current ſpecies; the ſompaye and its diminutions ſerve alſo for weights; the clam weighing twelve grains of rice, and the other riſing in proportion.

SOMPI, a ſmall weight which the inhabitants of Madagaſcar uſe for gold and ſilver; it weighs but one Paris dragme, and yet it is the heavieſt weight theſe iſlanders have; they not knowing what the ounce or pound is, nor have they any thing anſwering to them; the diminutions of the ſompi, are the vari, or demi-gros, the ſacare, or ſcruple, the nanqui or demi-ſcruple, and the nanque, equal to ſix grains.

SOOT, an earthy, volatile matter, ariſing from wood, coals, and other fuel, along with the ſmoak, by the action of the fire; or rather it is the ſmoak itſelf fixed and detained on the ſides of the chimney.

Soot is found to be an excellent manure for corn lands, eſpecially where the ground is cold. The dyers alſo make conſiderable uſe of ſoot, for a kind of dun colour.

SORDIS, a ſmall money current at Ormus, in the Perſian Gulph, being worth four payes, and the paye ten beſorchs. *See* BESORCH.

SOUND, in geography, implies a ſtreight, or inlet of the ſea, between two head-lands.

The famous ſtreight which joins the German Ocean to the Baltic, is called, by way of eminence, the *Sound*.

This paſſage or ſtreights, called the Sundt, or Sound, ſo famous in all the northern countries, is between the iſle of Siæland, and the terra firma of Scania. On the Swede's ſide is the city of Helſingburgh, wih a ruined caſtle, between which and Elſinore all the ſhips who trade to the Baltick, paſs and repaſs, ſo that it may juſtly be ſaid, that after the ſtreights of Gibraltar, this is the moſt important and frequented one in Europe. The loſs of the province of Schonen, (which, with the three adjoining, were given to the Swedes by treaty in 1658) was very conſiderable to the Danes, in regard to this celebrated paſſage, as they were maſters of the one, whilſt they continued poſſeſſors of the other; it is true, that by treaties, the right they had is expreſly reſerved to them, and in virtue thereof, they make all ſhips pay the impoſt at paſſing, excepting the Swedes, who were excuſed till 1720, when the treaty of Stockholm, ſigned the fourteenth of July, between the kings of Denmark and Sweden, reunited and confirmed the ſovereignty of the toll, to the firſt of theſe crowns for ever; to which the Swede ſhips have always ſince ſubmitted like thoſe of other nations; yet they cannot judge their right to be as firm and ſecure, as if they were maſters of both coaſts as formerly; for they may have the title as formerly, but not the power to ſupport their claim, in caſe of any diſagreement with the Swede, which, whilſt they poſſeſſed the other ſhore, was uncontroulable. The cuſtoms have been various, according as times, and the intereſts of princes have ſuited, and the levying them have given birth to many diſputes, too long to be recited here; however we ſhall juſt mention the ſuppoſed origin of this toll, which it is aſſerted, took riſe from a general conſent of merchants trading to the Baltic, readily to contribute a ſmall ſum for the raiſing and ſupport of ſome lights on the coaſt, to ſerve in dark and tempeſtuous nights, as guides to the diſconſolate ſailors: by this means the paſſage of the ſound ſoon became frequented, to the entire neglect and diſuſe of the Great Belt. But as many diſputed the payment of the aforeſaid trifling contribution, and nothing had been regulated to decide the difference that ought to be made in the various ſizes and burthens of the ſhips ſubject to its payments; the Danes began in ſucceſſion of time to conſtitute

themſelves maſters of the affair, and to exact more or leſs, according to the force or weakneſs of thoſe with whom they had to deal, or proportionably to their ſituation with the princes or ſtates to which the ſhips belonged; which induced the emperor Charles V. to fix the toll for his ſubjects of the ſeventeen provinces, by a treaty concluded with the king of Denmark, and ſigned at Spire on the Rhine, at two nobles, a gold coin valued at ſix ſhillings and eightpence Engliſh, for each ſhip of two hundred tun, or under, on entring or coming out of the Sound; and for all ſhips above two hundred tun, three. This treaty remained in force, till the Dutch ſhook of the Spaniſh yoke; but as their contentions with that crown, expoſed them to the impoſitions of the Danes, theſe laſt taking advantage of the conjuncture, raiſed this tax to an exceſſive height, which abuſe the Dutch had not leiſure to think of redreſſing, at a juncture when their wars and troubles engaged their whole attention; however, in the year 1600, they combined with the Lubeckers, jointly to oppoſe ſo exorbitant a duty, as was equally laid on their ſubjects; from which time the Dutch paid more or leſs, according to their good or bad fortune; but in general they paid but little. Denmark and the United Provinces (as ſovereigns) made the firſt treaty about this toll, as Mr. Savary ſays, in 1647, by which they ſubmitted to pay a certain ſum for each veſſel paſſing the Sound; and as this treaty was only for forty years, it conſequently expired in 1687, when a proviſional one was concluded according to the ſaid author, for four years longer, in the expectation of adjuſting at leiſure, a more durable and ſolemn agreement; of the many diſputes ſubſiſting between the contracting powers about this and ſeveral other affairs. Mr. Jean Pierre Ricard, in his book entitled, Le Negoce d'Amſterdam, printed in 1722, ſays, (p. 435) that the abovementioned firſt treaty, was concluded on the thirteenth of Auguſt, 1645, and renewed for twenty years the fifteenth of June, 1701, with a regulation what ſhips, and all ſorts of goods belonging to that nation, are to pay Sound duty. La Martiniere is alſo agreed in the year, and adds, that it was likewiſe adjuſted by this treaty, that the ſubjects of the United Provinces ſhould pay toll at the rate of four *per cent.* on all merchandizes, which with the complaiſance of our king James I. in favour of the Danes, to the prejudice of his own ſubjects, out of regard to the princeſs of Denmark, whom he had married, confirmed that king's uſurped title, to what was otherwiſe precarious; and as time and treaties have now rendered it a ſort of due, we ſhall conſider it in this light, and give an account of it, on the footing it is at preſent.

The Engliſh treaties with the crown of Denmark, are founded on thoſe the Dutch have made with it; the firſt in 1667, but this ſpeaks nothing of the Sound, ſo the ſubſequent one in 1670, is that wherein the conceſſion of the paſſage duty is made; it contains forty-two articles, expreſſing, that a perfect peace and friendſhip ſhall commence and be eſtabliſhed between the two crowns; of which neither ſhall conſent to any thing prejudicial to the other. That they ſhall not aſſiſt each others enemies if aggreſſors, but England to aſſiſt Denmark if invaded. Each party to be comprehended in any treaty made with others, and a freedom of trade to be carried on between the two kingdoms; Engliſh not to come to prohibited ports without licence, or ſtreſs of weather, nor the Danes to any of the Britiſh colonies. Danes may import all things of their own growth or manufacture, and ſuch as come from any part of the river Elbe, into England, Scotland, and Ireland; and the Engliſh have the ſame liberty for introducing all the products of his Britannick majeſty's dominions into any part of Denmark or Norway, except ports prohibited; though in caſe any ſtrangers have hereafter liberty to bring all ſorts of goods into prohibited ports, both parties reſpectively ſhall have the ſame privilege. Neither to pay any greater duties than other ſtrangers, excepting the Swedes in Denmark. Both nations have leave to bring all goods into their proper ſtorehouſes reſpectively, and neither party obliged to come into any port, where he is not bound, nor (being forced in) obliged to unlade or ſell any part of his goods. Tho' prohibited timber be laden on an Engliſh ſhip, ſhe ſhall not be ſearched after it is aboard, nor ſhall the ſhip or any Britiſh ſubject be arreſted or moleſted for it, &c. Engliſh ſhips paſſing the Sound to have the benefit of deferring paymeet of the cuſtom till their return, on bringing with them certificates under the ſeal of the proper officers, teſtifying that the ſhips belong to Britiſh ſubjects; and likewiſe that before their paſſage they give ſecurity to pay it at their return, and if they ſhall not return, in three months at fartheſt. Goods landed at Elſinore, with an intention to tranſport them elſewhere, ſhall pay no duties but what the Dutch or any other ſtrangers pay. Britiſh ſhips and ſubjects to be diſpatched immediately on their arrival at Elſinore, without a preference to any other nation, except the inhabitants of certain places, who have anciently held a privilege to that purpoſe, and ſtill do. The ſubjects of either prince dying in the others dominions, ſhall have his eſtate preſerved for the uſe of the right heir, &c. The ſubjects of either of the confederates may trade with enemies of the other, unleſs in beſieged places, or with contraband goods. A merchant may freely reſide where he trades, and duties only to be paid according to printed tariffes. Engliſh ſhips trading to Norway ſhall be re meaſured, that thus commerce may be better regulated than hitherto. That the freedom of navigation during the war, which either party may have with any other may be obſerved, paſſports and certificates ſhall be given to the allies ſhips, and the ſhips bearing ſuch certificate ſhall not be ſearched on producing it. Engliſh ſhips paſſing by Gluckſtad, and other places ſubject to the king of Denmark on the Elbe, ſhall be free from all cuſtoms and ſearch. Any injury done to either party's ſubjects in the other's territories, ſhall be puniſhed according to the laws of the country. No ſhips, or goods laden on ſhips, belonging to either party, ſhall be adjudged prize, but by due form of law. Juſtice to be adminiſtered according to the laws of each country reſpectively. In caſe of ſhipwreck, the goods, &c. ſhall be preſerved for the owners. Ships, commanders of ſhips, goods, &c. not to be arreſted or ſeiſed, but for the defence of the kingdom, and in caſes of debt. Merchants, mariners, &c. to have the liberty of wearing, or carrying arms. Ships ſteering the ſame courſe, ſhall have the benefit of each other's convoys. Pirates ſhall not be protected by either party. The ſubjects of either party ſhall have free acceſs at all times to each other's ports, but men of war not to exceed ſix in number, except forced in, and then to give notice to the magiſtrate. Neither ſubjects ſhall take letters of mart from any prince or ſtate in war with the other. Ships taken in port by a third party ſhall be reſtored; and ſeamen taken on board any prize, that are the ſubjects of either crown, ſhall be ſet free. If a ſhip laden with prohibited goods is taken, no bulk ſhall be broken till an inventory be made in the admiralty. No men of war to injure the ſubjects of the other prince; and in caſe they do, they ſhall be liable to make ſatisfaction, as it ſhall be adjudged on trial in the courts of admiralty, or by commiſſioners appointed by the contracting kings reſpectively. Sentence concerning prizes ſhall be given according to juſtice, and upon complaint of any ſentence, the cauſe ſhall be reheard. No goods ſhall be ſold before ſentence but by mutual conſent, and to prevent periſhing. Conſuls to be appointed; no private injury to break this treaty, nor repriſals to be granted, but upon denial or delay of juſtice. The Engliſh to enjoy all privileges enjoyed by any ſtrangers in Denmark, the Swedes only excepted. Former treaties, not contrary to this, confirmed, and the ratifications to be exchanged within three months.

The aforementioned treaty, made between the Danes and the Dutch, under the fifteenth of June, 1701, for twenty years; and another between Denmark and France, dated at Copenhagen, the twenty-third of Auguſt, 1742, for fifteen years, being much the ſame in ſubſtance as the preceding with us, we omit giving the particulars of them, for fear of incurring the cenſure of prolixity; but ſhall proceed to cummunicate the rules for ſtriking to the caſtle at Cronenburg near Elſinore.

I. Ships from the north, as ſoon as they get the higheſt church ſpire. (*N. B.* It is blown down, and the ſteeple covered with boards) and the northernmoſt ſteeple in Cronenburgh to bear in one S. W. and by W. muſt lower their top-gallant or topſails, and continue ſo until they are paſt

paſt the caſtle, and have the two northern moſt ſteeples of Cronenburgh to bear in one W. and by N. and then may again hoiſt them.

II. Ships from the ſouth muſt have lowered before they get the two north ſteeples of Cronenburg W. and by N. and continue ſo until the church ſpire and north ſteeple of the caſtle bear in one S. W. and by W. They who neglect in theſe two articles may be fired at from the caſtle.

III. Such ſhips as carry ſtanding or flying top-gallant ſails, ſhall lower them down to the cap, and if they have but one top-gallant ſail, muſt at the ſame time lower their fore-top ſail half maſt down; if no top-gallant ſails, then both top-ſails half maſt down. All veſſels who have no caps, muſt lower their top-ſails entirely down. Ships who have only low ſails are exempted from lowering.

IV. Ships turning to windward, with a ſcant or little wind, and the current ſo ſtrong againſt them that it would force them aſtern in caſe they lower, then it is not required, but on a flag being hoiſted from the caſtle, are excuſed, and may do their beſt.

V. In caſe a ſhip is fired at from the caſtle, and the maſter and people will make oath that he lowered as in the firſt and ſecond article, or could not do it to prevent driving aſtern by wind or current, he is free from paying the ſhot; but if his people refuſe to take ſuch oath, he muſt pay. If the maſter ſails without paying the perſon who clears him at the cuſtom-houſe, he muſt pay the money when it is proved who the maſter was: charge one guinea; to the boat one ſhilling.

The ninth of April, 1687, the king iſſued a placard, ordering the following fees to be taken at the ſound.

| | Rixdollars. |
|---|---|
| To the director of the cuſtoms | ½ |
| To the four chamberlains | 1 |
| To the ſeal preſſer, for ſtamped paper, and his trouble | ½ |
| To the toll inſpector for himſelf and three boatmen | 1 |

By another placard of June 15, 1701.

| | Rixdollars. |
|---|---|
| To the director of the cuſtoms | ½ |
| To the four chamberlains | 1 |
| To the ſeal preſſer, for ſtampt paper, and his trouble | ½ |

The tranſlator extorts eight ſtivers for each cocket.

Such of the above fees as are now taken, ſome of the commiſſioners charge in crown money, which is apprehended to be an abuſe, as they ought only to be charged in current money.

The following are the Sound duties on ſuch goods as are commonly carried from, or brought to England, which we thought would be ſufficiently ſatisfactory to our readers, without ſwelling the account, by an amplification of what all other nations pay on the commodities that compoſe their trade.

| | Rix. | Sti. |
|---|---|---|
| Ale or beer, the 8 hogſheads, at 4½ | 0 | 36 |
| Alegar | 0 | 36 |
| Alum, the ſchippont | 0 | 12 |
| Almonds, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Apples, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 12 |
| Apothecary's drugs, the lieſpond, valued at 36 rixdollars | 0 | 18 |
| Anniſeeds, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Antimony, the ſchippont | 0 | 12 |
| Anchor and locks, the ſchocks of 60 | 1 | 0 |
| Argol, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Arſenic, ditto | 0 | 12 |
| Aſhes, weed, the laſt of 12 barrels, or 12 ſchip. | 0 | 12 |
| Pot, ditto ditto | 1 | 0 |
| Auri pigmentum, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Bacon, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Balks, great, of oak, the piece | 0 | 3 |
| Fir, 4 ditto | 0 | 6 |
| Small ditto, 20 ditto | 0 | 15 |
| Bays, the ſingle piece | 0 | 3 |
| Double | 0 | 6 |
| Beef, ſalted, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 36 |
| Books, printed, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rixdollars | 0 | 18 |
| Braſs, or braſs wire, the ſchippont | 0 | 24 |
| Wrought, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rixdollars | 0 | 18 |
| Brimſtone, the laſt of 12 ſchip. | 1 | 0 |
| Brandy, French or Spaniſh, the hogſhead | 0 | 24 |
| Corn the barrel | 0 | 6 |
| Rheniſh, the auln | 0 | 24 |
| Bay berries, the 200 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Biſcuit or bread of wheat, the 4 barrels | 0 | 6 |
| Rye | 0 | 4 |
| Butter, the barrel | 0 | 5 |
| Brazil wood, the 500 lb. | 0 | 15 |
| Briſtles, the ſchippt. valued at 36 rixdollars | 0 | 18 |
| Cables, cordage, or cable yarn, the ſchippt. | 0 | 6 |
| Calicoes, the 8 pieces | 0 | 15 |
| Capers, the pipe, or two hogſheads | 0 | 18 |
| Cards, for playing, or for wool, the 10 dozen | 0 | 6 |
| Copper, the ſchippont | 0 | 24 |
| Wrought, the 100 l. valued at 32 rixdollars | 0 | 6 |
| Cheeſe, the ſchippont | 0 | 4 |
| Cork, the 30 bundles | 0 | 36 |
| Copperas, calamin, or cremor tartari, the ſchip. | 0 | 6 |
| Cotton wool, the 100 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Cardamoms, cinnamon, cloves, or cochineal, the 100 lb. | 0 | 36 |
| Corn, barley, the laſt of 20 barrels | 0 | 24 |
| Beans, peaſe, oats, or buck-wheat, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 12 |
| Malt, the laſt of 20 ditto | 0 | 18 |
| Rye, ditto 20 | 0 | 12 |
| Wheat, ditto 20 | 1 | 0 |
| Coriander and currans, the 200 | 0 | 9 |
| Caſques, the 50 pieces | 0 | 6 |
| Cloth, of ſilk, the piece | 0 | 9 |
| Fine, or ſhort cloths, or double dozens, the two pieces | 0 | 9 |
| Coarſe, or long cloths, or dozens, the four pieces | 0 | 9 |
| Canvas, or cambrick, the 4 pieces | 0 | 15 |
| Camlet, the 4 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Camel's hair, the 25 lb. | 0 | 15 |
| Calamancoes, the 8 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Campeachy wood, the 500 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Carraway ſeeds, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Canary ſeed, the caſk | 0 | 6 |
| Cheſnuts, the 36 ſacks | 0 | 36 |
| Cyder, the hogſhead | 0 | 12 |
| Cavear, the ſchippont, valued at 18 rixdollars | 0 | 9 |
| Coffee, the 100 lb | 0 | 24 |
| Clockwork, the 100 lb. valued at 36 rixdollars | 0 | 18 |
| Crooked wood, or timber, 25 pieces | 0 | 36 |
| Deals, of oak or fir, above 20 feet the ſchock | 1 | 0 |
| Calſhamn deals under 20 feet | 0 | 24 |
| Pruſſia | 0 | 36 |
| Common, 10 to 14 feet the 1000 | 0 | 36 |
| Diaper, or drilling, the 20 pieces | 0 | 30 |
| Dates, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Damaſk, of ſilk, the piece | 0 | 12 |
| Linen, 4 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Woollen, 8 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Druggets, 2 pieces | 0 | 9 |
| Down, the ſchippont | 0 | 36 |
| Eals, the laſt, of 12 barrels | 0 | 30 |
| Elephants teeth, the piece | 0 | 36 |
| Fiſh, Cod, the laſt, of 12 barrels | 0 | 12 |
| Stock, the laſt, 12 ſchippont or 1000 fiſh | 0 | 30 |
| Salmon, the barrel | 0 | 5 |
| Salted herrings, ditto | 0 | 2 |
| Red ditto, the laſt of 20 ſtraaes, or 20,000 | 0 | 12 |
| Feathers, coarſe, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Flannels, 8 pieces of 25 ells each | 0 | 10 |
| Flax dreſt, the ſchippont | 0 | 36 |
| undreſt, as fine clean Narva, Marlenburgh, Heilin, Eſlmiſh, Podolick, Rakitzker, and Pater-noſter, the 4 ſchippont | 1 | 0 |
| coarſe, half clean, Farken, Raſſen, Courland, Pruſſia, Raffets, Memels, Marienburgh, the 6 ſchippont | 1 | 0 |
| Tow, the 5 ſchippont | 0 | 18 |
| Figs, the 18 baſkets, 800 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Fernambuck wood, 1000 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Flounders dry, the 20,000 | 0 | 12 |
| Frieze, the piece | 0 | 6 |

| | Rix. | Sti. |
|---|---|---|
| Flour of wheat, 200 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Barley, or rye, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 12 |
| Gauls, or gum, the 200 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Gadza, 12 | 0 | 30 |
| Glaſs for windows, Engliſh, French, Lubeck and Dantzick, the 8 cheſts | 0 | 30 |
| Venice, drinking ditto, the cheſt | 0 | 9 |
| Bottles, the ton, 4 hhd. and 30 ſchocks | 0 | 30 |
| 2 pipes | 0 | 12 |
| Quart bottles, 100 doz. 50 rixdollars | 0 | 24 |
| Grains of guinea, 50 lb. | 0 | 15 |
| Ginger 100 | 0 | 12 |
| Green 50 | 0 | 12 |
| Gun powder, 100 lb. | 0 | 6 |
| Gloves, Ruſſia, or Courland, 250 pair | 0 | 9 |
| Leather, 1 doz. value 2 rixdollars | 0 | 1 |
| Hats, Felt, the caſk | 0 | 12 |
| Beaver, the doz. value 48 rixdollars | 0 | 24 |
| Caſtor 24 | 0 | 12 |
| Honey, the hogſhead | 0 | 7½ |
| Hops, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Horſes the pair | 0 | 36 |
| Hair, camels or coneys, the 50 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Hemp, the ſchippont | 0 | 8 |
| Tow, 10 ditto | 0 | 36 |
| Haberdaſhery ware, 100 lb. value at 36 rixdollars | 0 | 18 |
| Hides, elks, harts, bucks, or Ruſſia, the decker | 0 | 9 |
| Salted ditto | 0 | 6 |
| Dry, the 5 ditto | 0 | 18 |
| Ruſſia, the ſchippont | 0 | 36 |
| Handſpokes, the 500 | 0 | 8 |
| Iron, wire, or pans, the 100 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Stoves, plates, or pots, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Bars, bats, bolts, hoops, anchors and guns, the ſchippont | 0 | 4 |
| Wrought, 100 lb. valued at 24 rixdollars | 0 | 12 |
| Old, the ſchippont | 0 | 3 |
| Oſtermunds, the ſchippont | 0 | 2 |
| Indigo, the 100 lb. | 0 | 36 |
| Iſinglaſs, the 100 lb. | 0 | 6 |
| Juniper berries, 200 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Kerſies, the 8 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Lace, ſilk or ferret, the 4 lb. | 0 | 10 |
| Thread, wool, cottot, hair, the 10 lb. | 0 | 6 |
| Gold and ſilver, the pound | 0 | 5 |
| Lemons, the 12 cheſts, or 3600 | 0 | 24 |
| Pickled, the pipe, or 2 hogſheads | 0 | 18 |
| Linſeed, the laſt, of 24 barrels | 0 | 36 |
| Lignum vitæ, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Leather, Ruſſia, or Scotch, the decker | 0 | 9 |
| Spaniſh, Cordovan, Turkey and buff ditto | 0 | 6 |
| Sems, the 10 decker | 0 | 36 |
| Baſanes, ditto | 0 | 18 |
| Tanned, or ſole, 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Alumed, or white, 500 pieces | 0 | 18 |
| Linen, Callicoes, the 16 pieces | 0 | 30 |
| Flax, 20 ditto | 0 | 30 |
| Holland, Sileſia, and Weſtphalia, the 4 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Tow linen, Crocus, Dantzick tow, ditto the 40 pieces | 0 | 30 |
| Hemp, black tow 80 pieces | 0 | 30 |
| Canvas, 8 ditto | 0 | 30 |
| Damaſks, 12 ditto | 0 | 30 |
| Drilling, 20 pieces, or 500 arſhins | 0 | 30 |
| From Peterſburg, all ſorts, 40 pieces or 2000 arſhins | 0 | 30 |
| Lead, the fodder, ton, or 6 ſchippont | 0 | 24 |
| Shot, the 100 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Red, or white, the 100 lb. | 0 | 2 |
| Logwood, the 800 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Maſt 15 palms, and upwards, the pieces | 0 | 24 |
| Small | 0 | 8 |
| For boats, the ſchock | 1 | 24 |
| Muſtard ſeed, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 30 |
| Mace, 50 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Mats, from Peterſburg the 1000 | 0 | 15 |
| Mohair, 50 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Nutmegs, 50 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Nuts, the laſt of 12 barrels, or 36 ſacks | 0 | 12 |
| Nails, Holland's and Lubeck's, the centner | 0 | 4 |
| Tree nails, for ſhips, the 40,000 | 0 | 36 |
| Oars, great, the ſchock | 0 | 12 |
| Small ditto | 0 | 8 |
| Oil, olive of Seville, or Portugal, the pipe | 0 | 36 |
| Rape, lin, hemp, the laſt of 8 aums | 0 | 36 |
| Train, the laſt of 8 hogſheads, or 12 barrels | 0 | 36 |
| Olibanum, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Oranges, 12 cheſts, or 3600 | 0 | 24 |
| Olives, the pipe, or two hogſheads | 0 | 18 |
| Paper, 8 bales, or 80 reams | 0 | 30 |
| Pins, 50 dozens | 0 | 30 |
| Pitch, great band, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 18 |
| Small | 0 | 9 |
| Plates of tin, the 4 caſks, or ſchippont | 0 | 12 |
| Prunes, the 400 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Prunelloes, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Pepper, the 100 lb. | 0 | 12 |
| Pewter, the ſchippont | 0 | 24 |
| Pladding, the 1000 ells, or 40 pieces | 0 | 30 |
| Quickſilver, the 50 lb. | 0 | 36 |
| Raſhes, the 12 pieces | 0 | 15 |
| Rape ſeed, the laſt of 24 barrels | 0 | 36 |
| Ribbons of ſilk, or ferret, the 4 lb. | 0 | 10 |
| Gold and ſilver, 2 lb. | 0 | 10 |
| Rice, the 200 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Rozin, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Raiſins, the 400 lb. or 36 baſkets | 0 | 36 |
| Rhubarb, the 25 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Rickers, the ſchippont | 0 | 12 |
| Saffron, the 2 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Salt, Spaniſh, French, and Scotch, the laſt, of 18 barrels, or 8 buſhels | 0 | 24 |
| Lyneburg, the laſt, or 12 barrels | 0 | 36 |
| Saltpetre, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Shumack, 400 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Spars, great, the 25 pieces | 0 | 36 |
| Small, the 1000 | 0 | 16 |
| Says, double, the 2 pieces | 0 | 9 |
| Single, or Engliſh, 4 pieces | 0 | 6 |
| Sail cloth, 8 ditto | 0 | 30 |
| Sattin, 2 ditto | 0 | 9 |
| Serge, 12 ditto | 0 | 15 |
| Soap, white, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Green, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 36 |
| Shag, with thread, 2 pieces | 0 | 9 |
| Starch, the 300 lb. | 0 | 8 |
| Steel, the 100 lb. | 0 | 4 |
| Silk, ſewing, ferret, wrought lace, 4 lb. | 0 | 10 |
| Raw, the 100 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Stuff, 4 pieces | 0 | 15 |
| with gold and ſilver, 1 ditto | 0 | 18 |
| Skins, beaver, the 5 decker | 0 | 24 |
| Otter, 1 ditto | 0 | 6 |
| Ruſſia, dry, wolf, and fox, 5 deckers | 0 | 18 |
| Goat, 20 ditto | 0 | 36 |
| Skins, calf, 10 ditto | 0 | 12 |
| Cat and ſheep, 500 pieces | 0 | 18 |
| Black rabbets or lamb, 1000 ditto | 0 | 18 |
| Grey rabbets, or kid, 2000 | 0 | 18 |
| Martens, 40 | 0 | 30 |
| Hare, a bale, valued, at 72 rixd. | 0 | 36 |
| Staves, pipe, hogſhead, and barrel, the great hund. of 48 ſhocks | 0 | 30 |
| Stones, Poland, 1000 feet, or 500 ells | 0 | 30 |
| Sturgeon, the laſt of 12 barrels | 1 | 12 |
| Stockings, of ſilk, 1 doz. or 12 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Kerſey, woollen, or worſted, for children, 100 pair | 0 | 30 |
| Worſted, floret, ſayette, 50 pair | 0 | 30 |
| Woollen for children, 200 pair | 0 | 30 |
| Succad, 50 lb. | 0 | 12 |
| Sarſaparella, 50 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Sugar, candy or confectionary, the 100 lb. | 0 | 18 |
| Loaves, powder, muſcovado, 200 | 0 | 18 |
| Stuffs, woollens, 8 pieces | 0 | 12 |
| Sword blades, 50 | 0 | 12 |
| Hilts, 50 | 0 | 18 |
| Sweet wood, 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Tallow, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Terras, the laſt, 6 ſchip. or 12 barrels | 0 | 36 |

| | Rix. | Sti. |
|---|---|---|
| Tar, great band, the laſt of 12 barrels | 0 | 18 |
| Small | 0 | 9 |
| Thread, white and coloured, 50 lb. | 0 | 30 |
| Gold and ſilver, 1 lb. | 0 | 5 |
| Tin, the ſchippont | 0 | 24 |
| Tobacco, 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Treacle, a pipe, or 2 hogſheads | 0 | 36 |
| Turpentine, the ſchippont | 0 | 6 |
| Verdigris, the 100 lb. | 0 | 9 |
| Vermillion, the 100 lb. | 0 | 36 |
| Velvet, fine, the piece, | 0 | 9 |
| with thread, the 2 pieces | 0 | 9 |
| Vinegar, of wine, the hogſhead. | 0 | 12 |
| Beer, ale, or cyder, 2 hogſheads | 0 | 9 |
| Wax, the ſchippont | 0 | 36 |
| Wire, iron or braſs, the ſchippont | 0 | 24 |
| Steel, the 100 lb. | 0 | 24 |
| Gold and ſilver, the lb. | 0 | 5 |
| Wool, beaver, the 50 lb. | 1 | 0 |
| Spaniſh, or fine, the 4 ſchip. | 0 | 36 |
| Coarſe, or Scotch, 6 | 0 | 30 |
| Flock, or cutting wool, 2 ſchip. | 0 | 9 |
| Scotch, ſhirts, 50 pieces | 0 | 15 |
| Shifts, 8 pieces | 0 | 10 |
| Wood, ſhovels, the 10 ſchocks | 0 | 9 |
| Diſhes, or trays, 5 ſchocks | 0 | 9 |
| Plaies, ditto | 0 | 2 |
| Nails, the 20,000 | 0 | 18 |
| Wine Bourdeaux, the ton, or 4 hogſheads, at 52 rixd. | 1 | 36 |
| Picardin, hoogland, muſcat, and frontinac, the 2 hogſheads | 1 | 0 |
| Spaniſh, or Portugueſe, the pipe | 1 | 24 |
| Italian and Levant, ditto | 2 | 0 |
| Rheniſh, the auln | 0 | 40 |
| Wainſcot, boards, the ſchock | 0 | 24 |
| Yarn, cotton, 50 lb. | 0 | 36 |
| Linen, the ſchip. or 40 ſch. | 0 | 36 |
| Yarn, tow, the 4 ſchipponts | 0 | 36 |
| Sail, 1 ſchip. | 0 | 36 |
| All ſorts of woollen, the 50 lb. | 0 | 36 |

The following is a liſt of the commodities prohibited by his Daniſh majeſty, with ſome other particulars, neceſſary to the information of ſuch perſons as are concerned in this trade.

Brimſtone is forbid importation by placart of 29 December 1727; and buckram to be brought into Copenhagen and the iſland of Siælland, by order from the chamber of finances, dated 10 September 1728. Cloth, corn, and earthen ware of all ſorts, are prohibited by a placart of 25 February 1717; dried fiſh, or ſalt cod, from foreign parts, probibited by a placart of 23 March 1729; flannel, and iron in bars, prohibited by a placart of 8 Sept. 1730, but allowed on an oplag (which is a privilege granted to Copenhagen and Elſinore, where all foreign goods may be landed and exported duty free within a year) for exportation; kerſies forbid to be imported; oil of linſeed, hemp, and rape ſeed, prohibited by a placart of 22 Nov. 1704; mohair twiſted, forbid by a placart of 18 July 1708; woollen ſtuffs of all kinds, and ſtockings, prohibited; brandy, ſalt, tobacco, and wine, may not be brought into any port in Denmark but Copenhagen; wool cards, not importable into Siælland by a placart of 15 September 1727, but admitted any where elſe.

To the port charges before-mentioned, payable in the Sound, ſhould be added;

| | | Loaded | in Bal. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Light money for ſhip and cargo, in crowns | Rixd. | 5 3 | 2 25½ |
| Paſs, ſeal, writing money, and fees | | 2 12 | 2 12 |
| Guard ſhip both ways, 4 ſti. each time | | | |
| Britiſh poor upwards of 24 ſti. | | | |
| Commiſſion | | 0 24 | 0 24 |

Add three ſti. on each rixd. crowns, to make it current money, and obſerve that in this and all the preceding duties, forty-eight ſtivers make the rixdollar.

*N. B.* All maſters are allowed four *per cent.* out of the duties paid on their cargoes both upwards and downwards.

At Copenhagen a bank was eſtabliſhed a few years ago, whoſe notes are current through all Denmark; and the king's orders, the 21ſt of March, 1705, concerning ſtranded ſhips and goods, are very excellent, though they have not been ſo well obſerved lately as they ſhould be, in Jutland, where ⅓ ſalvage has been recovered, in direct contradiction to the aforeſaid ordinance; but in Norway a better regard is paid to it.

Beſides the Sound, the Baltick has an entrance by the great and ſmall Belt; the former being a ſafe paſſage (when well known) for large ſhips, which pay the duties thereof at Nybourg in the iſle of Fuhnen, where the Danes have a fortification (oppoſite to Korſoer the ferry place in Siælland) and where all paſſengers for Jutland, Holſtein, &c. from Copenhagen land.

The little Belt is at Frederica in Jutland, (where ſmall ſhips can only paſs, and muſt pay Sound duties) and Sophia Odde in Fuhnen, both places being fortified. *See* DENMARK, JUTLAND, NORWAY.

SOUNDING, in navigation, the art of trying the depth of the water, and the quality of the bottom, by a line and plummet, or other artifice.

The ſounding-line is the thickeſt and ſhorteſt, as not exceeding twenty fathom in length; and marked at two, three, and four fathoms, with a piece of black leather between the ſtrands; and at five with a piece of white leather. The ſounding-line may be uſed when the ſhip is under ſail, which the deep ſea-line cannot. The plummet is uſually in the form of a nine-pin, and weighs eighteen pounds, the end of which is frequently greaſed, to know whether the ground is ſandy or rocky. Near banks, ſhores, &c. they ſound continually.

SOURABAYA is a large city twenty leagues from Cadaioa, ſeated in the ſtreights of Madura, and upon a river, a large league from the ſea.

It has more than ten thouſand houſes, of which a great part are built with ſtone, as the Chineſe, who are very numerous here, always build with this material. Its commerce in rice is very great, ſo that it can ſupply trade with between two and three thouſand tuns, and ſome years double that quantity; the Dutch have a fine fort here with a captain's command.

SOUTH-SEAS. The company or corporation are to have the ſale trade into, unto, and from all the places of America on the eaſt-ſide thereof, from the river Aranoca to the ſouthermoſt part of the Terra del Fuego; and on the weſt-ſide thereof, from the ſaid ſouthermoſt part, through the South-Seas, to the northermoſt of America; and into, unto, and from all places within the ſaid limits, which belong to the crown of Spain, or which ſhall be found out, not exceeding three hundred leagues from the continent of America, except Brazil, and ſuch other places on the eaſt-ſide of America, as are in poſſeſſion of the Portugueſe, and of the country of Surinam. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 46.

The ſaid company only, and no other perſon, may trade within the aforeſaid limit, upon forfeiture of the ſhip, and alſo the goods, and their proceed and effects, with double the value; ¼ to his majeſty, ¼ to the ſeizer, informer, or ſuer, and ½ to the company. 9 *Ann c.* 21. *f.* 47, 49.

The company is to continue for ever one body corporate and politick, and to hold and enjoy all their forts, factories, &c. and ſole benefit of trade, with a perpetual ſucceſſion. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 9. *f.* 18. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. *f.* 31, 34. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *f.* 57.

The company's ſhips may not at any time be ſtopped, unleſs particularly mentioned in the embargo. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 54.

The company may not go beyond the ſouthermoſt parts of Terra del Fuego, except through the ſtreights of Magellan, or round Terra del Fuego; nor to go from thence into any part of the Eaſt-Indies, nor return any other way, except through the ſtreights of Magellan, or by Terra del Fuego: nor trade in goods of the product of the Eaſt-Indies, China, or Perſia, nor ſend or employ any ſhips within the ſaid South-Seas, from Terra del Fuego to the northermoſt part of America, above three hundred leagues to the weſtward of, and diſtant from Chili, Peru, Mexico, Callifornia, &c. upon forfeiture of ſhip and goods, with double the value by the owners, &c. ⅓ to his majeſty, and ⅔ to the Eaſt-India company. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 58.

Officers of the crown may take the company's bonds under their common seal. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *f.* 56.

The company to continue for ever, although the fund, appropriated to them, should be redeemed. 10 *Ann. c.* 30. *f.* 1. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *f.* 9. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 9. *f.* 22. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. *f.* 34. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *f.* 60.

Redemptions of South-Sea stock. 1 *Geo.* I. *st.* 2. *c.* 8. *f.* 19. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16. *f.* 4. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17.

Directions for trustees. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16. *f.* 8.

Quarterly divisions to be made good out of the aggregate fund. 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *f.* 20.

Redemption of South-Sea annuities out of sinking fund. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 5. And see 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. 9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 34. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. *f.* 35.

New South-Sea annuities created. 6 *Geo.* 2. 28.

Restrained from issuing bonds without a general court. 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 28. *f.* 26. 7 *Geo.* 2. *c.* 17.

Fund for their annuity supplied. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3. *f.* 60.

The company continued till the annuities shall be redeemed. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 2. *f.* 31.

The company's annuity reduced. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11.

Their servants embezilling their effects made felony. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *f.* 3.

The first and second subscribed South-Sea annuities to be consolidated. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 27. *f.* 26.

The number of directors reduced to 21. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16.

The king may be governor of the South-Sea company. 1 *Geo.* III. *c.* 5. *See* COMPANY.

SOUTHWOULD. The preamble sets forth, that there had been, for time immemorial, a sea port or harbour for shipping at Southwould, in the county of Suffolk, which is situated very conveniently, not only for the preservation of vessels navigating in the British seas, but also for the importation and exportation of many useful commodities, and for the benefit of trade in general; but that the road lying before the said port is so obstructed with sand, as to prevent loaded vessels (except such as are of a very small burden) from passing into or out of the harbour; to the end therefore the said harbour may be opened, and made commodious for shipping, and be of public utility to the trade and commerce of this kindom, It is enacted, that, from the 25th of March, 1747, for the term of twenty-one years, and from thence to the end of the then next session of parliament, there shall be paid unto the commissioners and trustees for the purposes of this act, or to such person as seven of them shall appoint, under their hands and seals, the rates and duties herein after-mentioned, for and towards the opening, cleansing, scouring, widening, depthening, repairing, and improving, &c. the said harbour, *viz.*

For every English ship or vessel, which shall sail into the said harbour, and shall neither load nor unload there, the sum of 1 d. 2 q. *per* ton, according to their light bills.

For every chaldron of coals, culm, and cinders, exported or imported, laid on board of, or landed or discharged out of, any English vessel in the port of Southwould, the sum of one shilling.

For every last of wheat, rye, barley, malt, oats, and other grain, exported, or imported, &c. in any English vessel, the sum of one shilling.

For every ton of rock salt, exported or imported, &c. in any English vessel, the sum of one shilling.

For every hogshead of wine, brandy, rum, or other spirituous liquor, exported or imported, &c. in an English vessel, the sum of one shilling.

For every ton of chalk, imported there to be burnt into lime, for any other purpose than that of manuring land, the sum of one penny.

For every firkin of butter, and for every weigh of cheese, exported or imported, the sum of one penny.

For every ton of grocery wares, and other goods, wares, and merchandizes, (fish, butter, and cheese, only excepted) exported or imported, &c. in any English vessel, the sum of one shilling and six-pence.

For every ton of lead, exported or imported, &c. in any English vessel, the sum of one shilling.

For every greater or less quantity of any of the said goods or merchandizes than what are before-mentioned, proportionably to the prices herein before set.

For every foreign vessel which shall sail into the said harbour, and shall not load or unload there, and for all goods, wares, and merchandizes, which shall be exported or imported, laid on board of, or discharged from out of, any such vessel in the said port, double the duties herein before laid.

Which sums shall be paid at the landing or shipping off the said commodities, and, in default thereof, the collector of the said duties may go on board and distrain such vessel, with her tackle and furniture, or the goods, and merchandizes, or any part thereof, and make sale of the same, and no custom-house officer shall clear any vessel, till the master produces a certificate of having paid the duties, &c.

The monies collected (after deducting the expences of obtaining this act) shall be employed for the opening, cleansing, scowering, &c. of the said haven and harbour, and for opening any rivers or creeks for letting in streams of water to drive the sand or other obstructions out of the harbour, and for keeping it open, clear, and in good repair, and shall not be diverted to any other use, except the charge of collecting the same, which shall not exceed six-pence in the pound.

In order to raise money sufficient for the speedy cleansing, &c. the said haven and harbour, the majority of the trustees may mortgage the profits arising by the duties, for such sums as they shall borrow for that purpose, &c.

The bailiffs of the borrough of Southwould, for the time being, and Sir John Rous, Sir Charles Blois, Sir Robert Kemp, baronets, &c. shall be commissioners and trustees for the execution of this act.

This act shall be deemed a public act, &c.

SPA, a town in the bishopric of Liege, in Germany, famous for its mineral waters. Those of the Pouhon spring in Spa are preferred, by our physicians, to any other in or near the county of Liege.

SPAAD, *or* SPALT, SPALTUM, a word used in several different senses; sometimes for a species of fibrose talc, or of gypsum, and sometimes for spar.

SPAIN. The chief places of trade in Spain, are Madrid, St. Sebastian, Bilboa, Seville, Cadiz, (and in its bay, St. Maria, Port Real, St. Lucar, and Rota) Malaga, Carthagena, Alicant, Valencia, and Barcelona, in all which the Dutch have some commerce, and, next to that with the English, the most advantageous one to the Spaniards. Madrid, the capital of Spain, is situated almost in the middle of it, and consequently lies very distant from the sea, which however does not hinder its carrying on a considerable trade, by means of the correspondence it has settled with the several sea ports of the kingdom, and elsewhere, more especially at Cadiz and Carthagena, as these are the usual places where goods are landed for the metropolis; and it is here that all foreign commodities are entered for the court, on account of the difference in the customs, which greatly vary between the several ports in this kingdom. At St. Sebastians great quantities of wool are shipped for England, France, and Holland, as also chesnuts and small nuts for the latter, both from hence and Gigon, which is but a little distant. From Bilboa, the Dutch carry wool, iron, saffron, chesnuts, oranges, and lemons: from Seville they take olives, oil, wool, oranges, lemons, Morocco hides, and wine: from Cadiz, they have indigo, cochineal, tobacco de Verines, Jesuits bark, sarsaparilla, venelloes, and other American drugs and hides, salt, wine, oil, figs, raisins, wools, &c. At Malaga and Carthagena, they supply themselves with wool, oil, olives, raisins, figs, and wine, and from this latter with some sosa and barilla. Alicant affords them still greater supplies, as from hence they have a better sort of the last mentioned commodity; red wine (accounted by the Dutch a good remedy for the dysentery) Castile soap, anniseeds, cummin-seeds, almonds, raisins, saffron, oil, and salt. Valencia, though the capital of the kingdom of that name, and a most delightful fertile country, produces nothing for the Dutch, nor indeed any other nation, but raw, or wrought silks, of which the first is however generally all shipped at Alicant, when the extraction is permitted, (which has for some years been denied) and Valencia grows no almonds or wines, as most authors have erroneously asserted. Barcelona is the capital of Catalonia, where some few woollens are made, though the only extracts from these parts for Holland, are brandies and nuts, chiefly shipped at Saloe. The merchandizes,

A New & Accurate
MAP
of the Kingdom of
SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
from the Sieur Robert's
ATLAS.
with Improvements.
BAY OF BISCAY
WESTERN OCEAN
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
PART OF FRANCE
PART OF AFRICA
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
GALLICIA
ASTURIAS
BISCAY
NAVARRE
OLD CASTILE
NEW CASTILE
ESTREMADURA
LEON
ANDALUSIA
GRANADA
MURCIA
VALENCIA
ARAGON
CATALONIA
MAJORCA I.
MINORCA I.
IVICA I.
MADRID
LISBON
Meridian of London
British Statute Miles

chandizes, which the Dutch carry to Spain, are Holland, Sileſia, and Oſnabrug linens, printed cottons and chints, muſlins, cambricks, Brabant and Flanders lace, gold and ſilver ditto, Engliſh and Dutch cloth, (though we believe theſe are now prohibited) gold, ſilver, and ſilken ſtuffs, gauzes, ribbons, fans, wigs, velvets plain and flowered, caffoys, ſilk and worſted ſtockings, mercerics and hardware of all ſorts, pepper, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, wheat, and other grain, when wanted, wood for the building of ſhips, canvas, cords, and twine, ſhips built on purpoſe for ſale, anafcotes, lamparillas of Bruges, and picottes of Liſle, tapes white and coloured, butter, cheeſe, ſewing thread, paper, cards, table-linen, Ruſſia, and other hides, &c. The commerce between Italy and Spain, conſiſts in ſeveral ſorts of wrought ſilks from Naples, Florence, Milan, Genoa, Meſſina, and Leghorn, hoops, pipe-ſtaves, paper, linens, and corn, on failure of the Spaniſh harveſt. The Swedes and Danes bring only iron, copper, pitch, tar, and lumber; and re-load with wine, brandy, ſalt, &c. The Hamburghers likewiſe take off theſe commodities, and beſides, they yearly freight two or three ſhips, to load almoſt ſolely with ſaffron and almonds. The iſland of Majorca is very fruitful in oil, of which great quantities are yearly ſhipped for all parts of the north, and that of Ivica is greatly frequented for its ſalt, of which one ſort is different in colour and grain from that made at Almat. The greateſt and moſt important part of the Spaniſh trade is carried on at Cadiz, and this on account of the galleons and flotas being diſpatched from, and returning there. And as it is a commerce in which the principal nations of Europe are concerned, we ſhall give our readers ſome idea of the method of its tranſaction, and acquaint them with the aſſortments of goods proper for an intereſt therein. The galleons was a name formerly given to large men of war of three or four decks; and though it has been for a long time diſuſed with this ſignificancy, it is however ſtill retained by the Spaniards, and uſed indifferently for all the ſhips which yearly ſail from Cadiz, for Carthagena and Porto Bello; of theſe, there are eight for the king's account, (which are men of war) and from twelve to ſixteen belonging to merchants, who obtain, or rather purchaſe, the permiſſion to undertake this American voyage. The ſhips are all fitted out at Cadiz, from whence they may ſail at any time, though they commonly depart ſome months before the flota, (which leaves this place always in Auguſt) and are about two years before they return. The flota conſiſts of three men of war for the king's account, and an equal number with the galleons for the merchants, from four hundred to a thouſand ton, which ſails (as before obſerved) about Auguſt, for la Vera Cruz, and is generally nineteen or twenty months in its voyage. Beſides theſe diſtinctions in the Weſt-India convoys, there is yet another, under the denomination of the flotilla, or little flota, which the Spaniards give to ſome ſhips, ſent before the flota on its return from la Vera Cruz, with an account of the time of its departure, and what its loading conſiſts of. When theſe fleets ſet out together, they ſeparate in the latitude of the Antilles, and rejoin on their coming back at the Havana, in the iſle of Cuba; the galleons are always the richeſt, though the aſſortments of goods proper for the different markets, much the ſame; the following ones therefore will indifferently ſerve for both.

From England.

Cloths in twenty pieces, nineteen brown and one black.
Sempeternas, in forty pieces, the following colours, viz.
Fifteen pieces of parrot green, fifteen pieces of ſky blue, five pieces of muſk, five pieces of black.
Serges, all brown, or ſorted like the ſempeternas.
Eſtaminas, wide and well calendered, brown and green.
Serges, fine, of a ſcarlet colour.
Says, white and black, well calendered.
Bombazeen, double, brown and greeniſh.
Serges of Hoogwet, half white and half black, very fine and well calendered.
Bays of Colcheſter, the hundred pieces aſſorted as follows, viz.
Twenty pieces black, fifteen pieces parrot green, fifteen pieces ſky blue, twelve pieces of the beſt yellow, ten pieces ſcarlet, ten pieces red, eight pieces violet, five pieces very white, five pieces caracucha (a colour which I am quite ignorant of,)
Stockings, worſted, of the firſt and ſecond ſort.
Ditto, ſilk, ordinary knit, in packets of ten pair, viz.
Three pair ſky blue, two pair dove colour, three pair parrot green, two pair light yellow.

From France.

Several ſorts of linen, as rouenes, florettes, blancartes, &c.
Caſtor hats, two thirds white, and one third black.
Pluſh velvet, the twelve pieces aſſorted as follows,
Four pieces muſk, two pieces olive colour, two pieces amber colour, one piece ſky blue, one piece fleſh colour, one piece parrot green, one piece black.
Stuffs called lamas, twelve pieces, aſſorted as follows:
Three pieces fleſh colour, three pieces ſky blue, three pieces parrot green, three pieces caracucha.
Thread ſtockings.
Laces, gold and ſilver, from one to eight fingers wide, one third of each ſort.
Cuts of black laces, a foot, or half a yard wide.

From Holland and Flanders.

Cloth, fine, of two aunes wide, twelve pieces, aſſorted as follows, viz.
Two pieces black, two pieces ſcarlet, two pieces of a light nut brown, two pieces olive, two pieces of deep cinnamon, and two pieces of muſk.
Cotton printed cloths, called guineas, which are denominated Hollandillas in Spain; twenty-five aunes long, and the aſſortment of a hundred pieces to be as follows, &c.
Thirty pieces deep blue, twenty pieces pale blue, fifteen pieces parrot green, fifteen pieces orange, ten pieces muſk, five pieces yellow, and five pieces fleſh colour.
Or as the ſubſequent;
Fifty pieces of blue, deep and pale, ten pieces of a pale fleſh colour, ten pieces of parrot green, ten pieces of orange, ten pieces muſk, ten pieces yellow.
Some pieces of goods made of goats hair, wide and narrow, very fine, of muſk and black colours.
Nonparels, palimites, ſerges of Liege of a deep ſcarlet; ditto, corded, of Holland of lively colours; dimities, browns and greens.
Says, fine, half black and half of a very good white.
Tapes, white, made of Erverwelt thread, of twenty-eight threads, the two thirds.
Ditto, fleſh colour, of eighteen threads, the other one third.
Caſtor hats, fine, two thirds white and one third black.
Pepper and cinnamon, when they are cheap; as the charges run high on them.
Cloves and mace, in a ſmall quantity, as the conſumption is not great.
Ruſſia hides; muſk, in the cods and out of them.
Wax, white, in cakes of five roves; knives, with ivory handles.
Stuffs of Leyden, of a fine black; two and three threaded velvets.
Pluſh velvet.
Silk brocades of plain colours, among which muſt be neither red nor fleſh colour.
Barragons of Liſle, and double ones of Valenciennes.
Picote woollen, of modeſt colours and browns.
Ditto, ſilk, lamparilles and anafcotes.
Serges, fine, of Germany, all of brown colours.
Cambricks, of the fineſt and cleareſt ſorts.
Hollands, very fine; and laces of all ſorts, eſpecially fine.
Lace, called cortes, of the price of eight or ſixteen rials of plate the yard; the aſſortments of the cortes of Anvers are made for a hundred, as follows, viz.
Twenty ſorts of tranſillas, in two aſſortments, viz.
Ten of one ſame pattern, from two to four inches wide;
Ten of another pattern, from two to five inches wide.
Forty aluxeriados, with ſmall holes in,
Twenty-five from two to four inches width,
Fifteen from two to five inches width.
Twenty puntas de Moſquito, the half from three to eight or ten inches wide, and the other half from four

four to eight or ten inches wide, but each ſort to be of the ſame pattern.

Ten licenciados, very fine, of one or two inches wide, and ſome from three to four inches wide, for women's head dreſſes.

Tranſillas and abuxeriadas, of the fineſt, from one to two inches wide.

Damaſk napkins and tablecloths.

Some platilles, eſtopilles, and bocadilles.

From Italy

Lames of ſilk of Naples, the ten pieces aſſorted as follows, viz.

Two pieces fleſh colour, three pieces parrot green, two pieces ſky blue, and two pieces dove colour.

Silk ſtockings of Milan with long clocks, each dozen ſeparate, with the following colours.

Three pair dove colour, three pair parrot green, three pair ſky blue, three pair light yellow.

Ditto, for women, of the ſame colours.

Ditto, of Meſſina and Genoa, about half the quantity as from Milan.

Ditto, for children, of the ſame colours.

Guirviones, or corcondilles of Naples, Meſſina, and Genoa, of brown colours.

Silk eſtaminas and gorgeranes, of the ſame colours.

Plain ſilks of Florence of a low price, the ten pieces aſſorted thus;

Three pieces parrot green, three pieces dove colour, one piece ſky blue, one piece light yellow, one piece of a fine white, one piece of an amber colour.

Flowered ſilks of a middling price, with lively colours, and ſome brown.

Gold and ſilver ſilks, from twenty to twenty-four rials of plate the yard.

Lamas, of lively colours, all with ſilver, and none with gold.

Calabria ſilk, a hundred ſkeins, ſorted as follows;

Fifty ſkeins browns; ten black, pearl and white; ten parrot green; ten dove colour; ten deep and ſky blue; five deep green; five deep yellow.

Since the above calculation was made, the Spaniards have improved greatly in their manufactures, and now (at leaſt in a great part) ſupply ſeveral of the preceding commodities from their own looms; of which Don Geronimo de Uztariz ſays (in his Theory and Practice of Commerce) there were formerly no leſs than ſixteen thouſand in Seville, though now they are reduced to about three hundred; which decreaſe, though a ſeeming contradiction to what we have aſſerted of the Spaniſh improvements, is, however, not ſo in fact; as the decay of trade in one place has been more than equivalently augmented in another: thus the city of Valencia, Alicant, Alcoy, &c. have gone for ſome years paſt encreaſing both in their ſilk and woollen manufactures, inſomuch, that it is now computed there are in this kingdom only two thouſand looms; in Catalonia above five hundred; and in the kingdom of Granada a thouſand: and as there are alſo ſeveral of both ſorts in other provinces, we may reaſonably conclude, there are not at preſent ſo few as ten thouſand in all Spain, which one would imagine ſhould be ſufficient to clothe both rich and poor, as the inhabitants of Spain are not ſuppoſed to exceed ſeven millions and a half: however we find the contrary, and tho' the imports to that kingdom are greatly diminiſhed within a few years paſt, yet they ſtill continue very conſiderable, more eſpecially to furniſh out the aſſortments proper for the American ſettlements: wool and ſilk are the natural products of this country, ſo that the natives have a conſtant ſupply of materials for their manufactures within themſelves, and the crown has prudently prohibited the extraction of the latter, in order to encourage them, as we doubt not it would the former, did not the ſheep produce more than ſufficient for the ſubjects uſe. A patent for the making of cryſtal glaſs was granted on the thirtieth of January, 1720, to Don John Goyeneche, which ſtill continues; and the ſame gentleman undertook the cutting down, and conveying from the Pyrenees, maſts, and timber for ſhipping, which he ſtill performs, by having eſtabliſhed three works, in the higheſt and moſt craggy parts of thoſe mountains; one of them in the kingdom of Arragon, upon the mountains of Eſpuna; another in the ſame kingdom, in the valley of Heco, and upon the mountains of Oza; and the third in the kingdom of Navarre, in the vale of Roncal, and upon the mountains of Maze, Zurizabeiti, and Yzaizpeta, all being brought by land and water carriage into the river Ebro, for his catholick majeſty's navy. It is alſo owing to the induſtry of this great and uſeful man, that many fabricks of pitch and tar are eſtabliſhed in many parts of the kingdoms of Arragon and Catalonia, more eſpecially in the mountains of Tortoſa, where the great plenty of pines afford ſufficient matter for a very large encreaſe of theſe neceſſary commodities; and indeed moſt of the mountains in Spain are covered with theſe trees, and the extraction of theſe reſins ſo eaſy, that it is a matter of ſurpriſe any importation of it is permitted from other parts; yet we believe much more is brought in than made here, notwithſtanding what Don Geronimo de Uztariz (before quoted) aſſerts, that the manufacture of all kinds of rigging in Port-Royal is with hemp and tar of the Spaniſh growth. At Sada, in the kingdom of Galicia, cables, cordage, and ſail cloth are made, as this latter was, ſome years ago, by that good ſubject and conſummate ſtateſman the prince of Campo Florido, then viceroy of Valencia. The aforeſaid Don John de Goyeneche eſtabliſhed with his glaſs fabrick twenty-ſix looms for cloths, which manufactured fifty thouſand yards yearly for cloathing the troops; beſides others for ſoldiers hats, buff, and ſhamois leather, looms for weaving ſilk handkerchiefs, ribbons, and girdles; a diſtillery for brandy and hungary water. In Madrid has been ſet up a manufacture of tiſſues, lute-ſtrings, and other ſilks, in imitation of thoſe made at Lyons in France, and from whence moſt of the artificers have been drawn; without the gates of that metropolis has likewiſe been raiſed a fabrick of fine tapeſtry, ſimilar to thoſe of Flanders, under the direction of maſters and workmen from that country. The fabricks of fine cloths at Guadalazara, Valdemero, Alcoy, &c. are very conſiderable, and are undoubtedly greatly improved both in quantity and quality within a few years paſt; yet our abuvementioned author muſt excuſe our diſſenting from his determination in favour of the latter, when he aſſerts they are as fine as the Engliſh; for we cannot allow them to be even equal to the French, much leſs to what is undoubtedly their ſuperior; and we ſpeak this with due deference to Don Geronimo's judgment, which we revere in other particulars, though in this it ſeems ſomething biaſſed and prejudiced in favour of his country.

The Spaniards are well known to have excellent iron, and may whenever they pleaſe caſt very good cannon, ball, &c. at their ſounderies of Lierganes and Cavada, which are but at a ſmall diſtance from the dock yards of Guarnito and Santona. From the fabricks of Eugui, Azura, and Iturbieta, a ſupply of bombs, granades, ball, and grape ſhot, may be drawn, and gunpowder is made (all glazed) in ſeveral parts of the kingdom. In the forges of Placentia in Guipuzcoa, only three leagues diſtant from the ſea, is manufactured a conſiderable number of good fire-arms, ſo that they may eaſily be conveyed by water to any of the yards, as nails, anchors, and other iron works, proper for marine uſes, may be, their forges enjoying the ſame advantageous ſituation; hemp grows plentifully in ſeveral parts of Spain, and might eaſily be encreaſed, if the natives ſet about its cultivation, particularly in the plains of Granada, Murcia, and Valencia, where there are fine crops of it, and its price ſo reaſonable, that our aforementioned author ſays, a propoſal was made to furniſh the king with twenty-five thouſand quintals, at four dollars *per* quintal, clear of all charges.

The Royal Company of the Philippines.

The firſt aſſociation in this country was that now mentioned, whoſe charter was dated at Seville the twenty-ninth of March, 1733, with the following articles.

This company was eſtabliſhed to carry on a trade directly to the Philippines, and had a privilege, Art. I. To ſail to the ſaid iſles, and to trade there, and in the Eaſt-Indies, and on the coaſts of Africk, both on this, and on the other ſide of the Cape of Good Hope, and in all the ports where other nations have a free trade. Art. II. and III. This privilege is excluſive, and all former permiſſions given are hereby revoked. Art. IV. This company may hoiſt the king's arms in all their colours, have a ſeal, bear-



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ing the arms of Cadiz, to uſe in all their affairs. Art. V. The ſhips of this company ſhall pay no duties, being conſidered on the footing of the royal navy; and the charity for the ſeminary of St. Elme, and the admiſſion of youth for the ſtudy of navigation, ſhall be at the choice of the directors. Art. VI. As alſo the nomination of the maſters, carpenters, and caulkers, on condition however, that they be with the king's approbation. Art. VII. If the king ſells or freights any ſhips to the company, they ſhall be ſuch as it requires; and the price of the ſale or hire ſhall be agreed between the intendant and comptroller of the marine at Cadiz on the one part, and the directors of the company on the other. Art. VIII. IX. X. XI. and XII. They may build ſhips in any part of the king's dominions, or out of them; and if they buy them abroad, they may bring them to Cadiz, without paying duties, except on thoſe they re-ſell; and all the cordage, ſails, &c. ſhall enjoy the ſame exemption, as thoſe uſed immediately for the king's ſervice; and in caſe they want any thing from the royal arſenals, it ſhall be delivered them for its juſt value. The company may ſettle magazines wherever they pleaſe, which ſhall enjoy the privileges as the king's, and be viſited in like manner with theſe, on ſuſpicion of any fraud. The directors may nominate their officers from among any foreigners, provided that the captain and half the crew are Spaniards. Art. XIII. XIV. XV. and XVI. And the company may alſo name ſtrangers for their factors, who, as well as the officers, ſhall be ſubject to puniſhment if they do not exactly follow the directors orders. The king will grant the company ſome troops, if neceſſary; and if the ſhips of the ſaid company (which are prohibited going to America) are forced on that coaſt, they ſhall be regarded as men of war, and provided, at a reaſonable price, with all they want; and in caſe they have not ſufficient caſh to diſcharge the expence, they ſhall be ſupplied with it from the royal coffers, and the company ſhall reimburſe the king at Cadiz. Art. XVII. XVIII. XIX. and XX. The company may freely embark any merchandize and products, either of Spain or other countries, to ſell or truck; and they may alſo load five hundred thouſand dollars, more or leſs, on each ſhip, to employ in the purchaſe of goods; and in caſe any ſilver remains, they may truck it for gold, and on the extraction of the ſaid ſilver they ſhall pay no cuſtom, &c. The remaining articles, to the number of fifty-two, are concerning their cargoes, cuſtoms, &c.

*Concerning the Guipuſcoa Company.*

The province of Guipuſcoa, ſeeing their countrymen deſpoiled of the Caracca trade by foreigners, offered his Catholic majeſty, to equip for his and the nation's ſervice, ſome men of war, and to ſend them to the Caraccas, to facilitate the means of preventing the ſaid detriment, and ſecure the future advantages of that trade to themſelves; his majeſty admitted the offers, and granted the ſaid province an excluſive charter for that trade, on the following conditions.

1. That the province ſhould erect a company, and ſend yearly to the Caraccas, two ſhips of forty and fifty guns, loaden with the products of Spain, which ſhall proceed to the port of Guayoa, and being unloaded, ſhall go out and cruize on the coaſt, and take all ſhips and veſſels they ſhall find carrying on an illicit commerce, and may extend their cruize from the river Oronoko to the river de la Hacha, for which purpoſe they ſhall be furniſhed with a commiſſion from his majeſty.

2. That the two ſhips ſhall be loaded at St. Sebaſtian, or at Paſſage, and inſtead of the royal duties which they ſhould pay at Cadiz, they ſhall render to his majeſty an equivalent ſervice, and ſail directly from Guipuſcoa for the Caraccas.

3. That on returning with their cargo of cocoa, ſilver, gold, tobacco, ſarſaparella, hides, and other products of thoſe parts, they ſhall proceed to Cadiz; and after having been viſited, and the royal duties paid, they may tranſport to Cantabria ſuch part of their loading as they ſhall think proper, without ſuffering the conſiderable expence of delivering and re-ſhipping their goods.

4. That the prizes which they ſhall make in America, ſhall be divided one-third to the crew, and two-thirds to the company.

5. That the merchandize taken may be ſold at the Caraccas, on paying the king's cuſtoms. The ſhips taken, with their loadings of cocoa, and other goods, ſhall be regiſtered and ſent to Spain, and the ſhips that ſhall be deemed fit for cruiſers, may be equipped for that purpoſe.

6. That the company's factors, having any quantity of cocoa remaining, may ſend it to La Vera Cruz, in the barks appointed for the trade permitted to the inhabitants of the Caraccas.

7. That the factors ſhall be obliged to ſupply with goods, beſides the province of Venezuella, thoſe of Cumana, Margarita, and la Trinidad.

8. That the governor of the Caraccas ſhall be nominated judge, conſervador of the company and their dependancies, with a prohibition to all tribunals and miniſters to intermeddle, with a right of appeal to the council of the Indies.

9. That the ſaid ſhips ſhall be exempt from paying ſtrangers duties, &c.

10. That his majeſty will maintain the ſaid company under his royal protection, and make thoſe concerned in it, to enjoy all the rights and honours, that appertain to thoſe of his royal navy; and the ſhare which any one ſhall take in this commerce, ſhall not prejudice his honour, eſtate, or reputation, neither directly or indirectly; but, on the contrary, this ſhall be a new luſtre added to his gentility, his ſervices, his character, &c.

The ſaid company formed bye-laws, for their better government, to the number of twenty-four, which we excuſe adding as ſuperfluous here, and ſo the ſame reaſon ſhall omit mentioning the ſteps taken by the Dutch, by their miniſters at Madrid and Paris, to obtain a revocation from his Catholic majeſty of the ſaid company's patent.

*Particulars of Great Britain's Commerce with Spain.*

Our trade with this kingdom, being of great importance, we could wiſh we could ſay it ſtill continued in that flouriſhing and advantageous condition it was formerly carried on; but an aggregate number of events have happened within theſe fifty years, or ſince the emperor Charles II.'s reign, to alter the nature and manner of it, by its being loaded with higher and additional duties than it was in that prince's time; and the introduction of French commodities more encouraged, ſince a monarch of the houſe of Bourbon ſat on the throne. But what has given a ſtill greater blow to our ſaid trade, is his ſetting up a multiplicity of fabricks, for the manufacturing ſuch goods as the Spaniards were formerly ſupplied with principally from us: for though the favouring thoſe from France undoubtedly hurt us, we cannot think it did in the article of our Colcheſter bays, as the Britiſh Merchant ſeems particularly to intimate; for theſe ſtand as a remarkable inſtance of the invaluable quality of that fabrick, which hitherto no nation has been able to imitate; and Mr. King ſeems to be under another miſtake in regard to the value of theſe bays, when he ſuppoſes them once to have roſe from ſeventeen to twenty-four pence the Flemiſh ell, as they are never bought by meaſure, but by the piece; it being the Bocking bays (made indeed at Colcheſter as well as this place) only that are ſold by meaſure, and are only fit for the Portugal market, whilſt the Colcheſter bays are ſolely vendible in Spain; and the fineſt of them are ſtill in almoſt as much eſteem as ever in that country, though the poverty of the people diſabled them from going dreſſed in the ſame manner their more affluent condition permitted them; ſo that the generality are now obliged to content themſelves with the products of their own looms, ſet up in Arragon, &c.

His late majeſty Philip V. began before his death to encourage the manufactories of cloths, which had for many years been carried on in his kingdom, though to very little purpoſe, till the duke de Riperda (then prime miniſter) revived the eſtabliſhments, and improved them by introducing a great many clothiers from his own country (Holland) to whom his majeſty continued his protection, notwithſtanding the ſaid nobleman afterwards fell into diſgrace. And in order the better to promote his intentions, he granted the fabricators many privileges, and to animate them to an encreaſe and improvement, he wore them himſelf, clothed his troops with them, and prohibited the importation of any from abroad, which mandate was for ſome years obſerved with rigour; and though we never heard it was repealed, yet our cloths are now, and have been for ſome years paſt, admitted to an entry at Cadiz, as well as other ſorts of woollens that were included in the prohibition; but the quantity is ſmall in reſpect of what it formerly

was, and this commerce has entirely ceaſed in moſt other parts of Spain, where the diſpatch formerly was very conſiderable; and the principal part of what is now introduced there, as well of cloths as other woollens, ſerves for their tranſport trade to their American colonies, with the exception of our fine bays, beſt Sandford ells, and a few other fine goods, inimitable (as we before obſerved) by the French, which are ſtill uſed and wore by the Spaniards in Old Spain.

Don Ferdinand VI. their late king, ſtrictly followed his father's ſteps, and greatly improved on his ſchemes and maxims; ſo that manufactures of various ſorts are now ſettled in Spain, whereas his father only left that of cloth in being; and the late prince being leſs influenced by French counſels than his parent was, had naturally the good of his country more at heart.

We ſhall now proceed to give an account of the preſent ſtate of our trade with that country; but previous hereto, we hope it will be agreeable to our readers, that we inform them on what a footing our treaties with that crown have placed us, as ſome of them are in very few hands, though the knowledge of them may prove both inſtructive and advantageous.

The baſis on which the ſeveral treaties of commerce ſubſiſting between Great Britain and Spain are founded, is that concluded between the two crowns at Madrid, on the $\frac{13}{23}$ of May, 1667; and as this is indeed the ſubſtance of all the ſubſequent ones, we ſhall juſt give the heads of the articles immediately relative to trade.

Art. IV. Stipulates a free trade and commerce to the ſubjects on both ſides, as well by land as ſea, &c.

V. Agrees that no cuſtoms ſhall be paid in either kingdom by the ſubjects of the other, but ſuch as the natives pay.

VI. Tables or liſts of the duties ſhall be put up at the doors of the cuſtom-houſes, &c. that merchants may know what they have to pay, and not be impoſed on.

VII. Permits the Engliſh freely to import all kind of goods, without being enforced to declare to whom, and for what price they ſell them; nor ſhall they be moleſted for the errors of maſters or others, in the entry of the ſaid goods, nor obliged to pay duties for more than they land; and prize goods ſhall be eſteemed as Engliſh.

VIII. Grants leave for the Engliſh freely to carry Eaſt-India goods into Spain, and that they ſhall have all the privileges granted to the Dutch by the treaty of Munſter, 1648.

IX. And the privileges granted to the Engliſh reſiding in Andaluſia, 1645, to be general to all of that nation, reſiding or trading in any places whatſoever within his Catholick majeſty's dominions.

X. No ſhips appertaining to the Engliſh, navigating in the king of Spain's dominions, ſhall be viſited by the judge of contraband, or any other officer; nor ſhall any ſoldiers or armed men be put aboard them; nor ſhall the cuſtom-houſe officers of either part ſearch any ſhip, until they have landed all their cargo, or ſuch part of it as they intend; but in the interim officers may be put aboard (not exceeding three) to ſee that no merchandize be landed without paying duties, but this without any expence to the ſhip. And when the maſter ſhall declare his intention of landing his whole cargo, and ſhall have made his entry accordingly, and afterwards other goods unentered are found aboard, eight working days ſhall be allowed to work (to commence from the firſt day of delivering) to the end that the concealed goods may be entered, and confiſcation prevented; and if in the time limited, the entry be not minded, then the unentered goods only ſhall be confiſcated, and no other puniſhment inflicted.

XI. Agrees, that neither party ſhall be obliged to regiſter or pay cuſtoms for any other goods than thoſe they ſhall unload.

XII. Settles, that when thoſe goods which are landed and paid cuſtoms, are afterwards carried to ſome other part in the ſame dominions, they ſhall pay no new duties.

XIII. All ſhips may enter freely in any port or road of either prince, and depart when they pleaſe, without paying any duties for their cargoes, provided they do not break bulk.

XIV. In caſe the ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of either party, ſhall be met by men of war or privateers appertaining to the other party, theſe ſhall ſend their boat aboard the merchant ſhip, and be ſatisfied with examining his paſſports, without coming within gunſhot.

XV. If any prohibited goods ſhall be exported from either of the kingdoms, by the reſpective ſubjects of the one or the other party, only ſuch goods ſhall be confiſcated, without any farther puniſhment, except the delinquent ſhall carry out of his Britannick majeſty's dominions, the proper coin, wool, or fullers earth; or ſhall carry out of the dominions of the ſaid king of Spain, any gold and ſilver, wrought or unwrought; in either of which caſes, the laws of the reſpective countries are to take place.

XVII. No merchant, pilot, maſter of a ſhip, mariner, ſhips or merchandize, ſhall be embargoed or detained, by any general or particular order whatſoever.

XVIII. Merchants and ſubjects, of the one and the other king, may uſe all kinds of fire-arms for their defence, according to the cuſtom of the place.

XIX. The captains, officers, and mariners, of the ſhips belonging to either party, may not commence an action for their wages, nor may be received under any pretext whatſoever, into the ſervice or protection of either king; but if any controverſy happen between merchants and maſters of ſhips, or between maſters and mariners, the compoſing thereof ſhall be left to the conſul of the nation; though he who ſhall not ſubmit to this arbitrament, may appeal to the ordinary juſtice of the place.

XXI, XXII, and XXIII. Allows freedom of trade to places in amity or neutrality with either party, that they ſhall not be diſturbed therein, and that in this caſe if any contraband goods be found in them, they only ſhall be confiſcated, and no other.

XXIV. Shews what are contraband goods, which we have already deſcribed.

XXVI. All goods belonging to the ſubjects of either party, which ſhall be found laden on the ſhips of enemies, ſhall be confiſcated.

XXVII. The conſuls which ſhall hereafter reſide in any of the king of Spain's dominions, or the Spaniſh conſul reſiding in England, ſhall have, and exerciſe the ſame power and authority in the execution of his office, as any other conſul hath formerly had.

XXVIII. Secures the ſubjects on either ſide from being moleſted or diſturbed on account of their religion, ſo long as they give no publick ſcandal or offence.

XXIX. All merchandize ſhall be paid for in both countries only in ſuch coin as ſhall be agreed for.

XXX. And all merchants, factors, &c. of both nations ſhall enjoy their houſes, warehouſes, &c. during the time for which they have hired them, without any impediment.

XXXI. The ſubjects of the ſaid confederate kings ſhall employ thoſe advocates, proctors, &c. that they ſhall think fit; and they ſhall not be conſtrained to ſhew their books and papers, if it be not to give evidence, for the avoiding controverſies and law ſuits; neither ſhall they be embargoed, detained, or taken out of their hands upon any pretence whatſoever, and they may keep their ſaid books and accounts in whatever language they pleaſe.

XXXII. In caſe the eſtate of any perſon ſhall be ſequeſtred or ſeized on by any court of juſtice, within the dominions of either party, and any eſtate or debt happen to lie in the hands of the delinquents, belonging *bona fide* to the ſubjects of the other; the ſaid eſtate or debts ſhall not be confiſcated, but reſtored to the true owners.

XXXIII. The eſtates of thoſe who die in either country reſpectively ſhall be preſerved for the lawful heirs of the deceaſed.

XXXIV. The goods and eſtates of his Britannick majeſty's ſubjects, who ſhall die in Spain, without making their wills, ſhall be put into inventory, with their papers, writings, and books of account, by the conſul, or other publick miniſter, to be kept for the proprietors and creditors; and neither the Cruzada, nor any other judicatory whatſoever, ſhall intermeddle therein; which alſo in like caſe ſhall be obſerved in England, towards the ſubjects of the king of Spain.

XXXV. That a decent and convenient burial-place ſhall be granted and appointed, to bury the dead bodies of the Britiſh ſubjects, who ſhall die in Spain.

XXXVI. If any difference hereafter happen, between their Britannick and Catholic majeſties, ſix months ſpace



ſhall

ſhall be allowed their reſpective ſubjects, to withdraw their effects, without giving them in that time any moleſtation or trouble, or retaining their goods or perſons.

XXXVIII. The Engliſh and Spaniards to have reciprocally all privileges granted, or to be granted, to any other ſtranger.

Subſequent to the foregoing treaty many others have ſince been made, eſpecially after the late long war, at Utrecht, the thirteenth of July, and ninth of December, 1713, and another on the fourteenth of December, 1715, which laſt being ſcarce, and conſequently not eaſy to be obtained, we here inſert it *verbatim*, as it is not long.

*Treaty of commerce between Great Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid, the fourteenth of December*, 1715.

Whereas ſince the treaties of peace and commerce, lately concluded at Utrecht, the thirteenth of July, and the ninth of December, 1713, between his Catholic majeſty, and her late majeſty the queen of Great Britain, of glorious memory, there remained ſtill ſome differences about trade and the courſe thereof; and his Catholic majeſty and the king of Great Britain, being inclined to maintain and cultivate a firm and inviolable peace and friendſhip, in order to attain to this good end, they have by their two miniſters, underwritten, mutually and duly qualified, cauſed the following articles to be concluded and ſigned.

I. The Britiſh ſubjects ſhall not be obliged to pay higher or other duties, for goods coming in, or going out of the ſeveral ports of his Catholic majeſty, than thoſe they paid for the ſame goods in king Charles II.'s time, ſettled by ſchedules and ordonances of the ſaid king, or his predeceſſors: and although the Gracias, commonly called Pie del Fœrdo, be not grounded on any royal ordonance, nevertheleſs his Catholic majeſty declares, wills, and ordains that it be obſerved, now and hereafter, as an inviolable law; which duties ſhall be exacted and raiſed, now and for the future, with the ſame advantages and favours to the ſaid ſubjects.

II. His majeſty confirms the treaty made by the Britiſh ſubjects, with the magiſtrates of St. Andero in the year 1700.

III. His Catholic majeſty permits the ſaid ſubjects to gather ſalt in the iſle of Tortugas, they having enjoyed this liberty in the reign of king Charles the Second, without interruption.

IV. The ſaid ſubjects ſhall pay no where any higher or other duties, than thoſe paid by the ſubjects of his Catholic majeſty in the ſame places.

V. The ſaid ſubjects ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions and immunities whatever, which they enjoyed before the laſt war, by virtue of the royal ſchedules or ordonances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce made at Madrid, in 1667, which is hereby fully confirmed; and the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be uſed in Spain, in the ſame manner as the moſt favoured nation, and conſequently all nations ſhall pay the ſame duties on wool and other merchandizes coming in and going out by ſea. And all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions and immunities, that ſhall be granted and allowed to the ſaid ſubjects, the like ſhall be granted, obſerved, and permitted to the ſubjects of Spain, in the kingdoms of his majeſty the king of Great Britain.

VI. And as innovations may have been made in trade, his Catholic majeſty promiſes on his part to uſe his utmoſt endeavours to aboliſh them, and for the future to cauſe them to be avoided: in like manner the king of Great Britain promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours to aboliſh all innovations on his part, and for the future to cauſe them by all means to be avoided.

VII. The treaty of commerce made at Utrecht, the ninth of December, 1713, ſhall continue in force, except the articles that ſhall be found contrary to what is this day concluded and ſigned, which ſhall be aboliſhed and rendered of no force, and eſpecially the three articles, commonly called explanatory; and theſe preſents ſhall be approved, ratified, and changed on each ſide, within the ſpace of ſix weeks, or ſooner if poſſible. In witneſs whereof, and by virtue of our full powers, we have ſigned theſe preſents at Madrid, the fourteenth of December, in the year 1715.

(L. S.) M. de Bedmar.
(L. S.) George Bubb.

After this treaty affairs of ſtate and new embroils has occaſioned the making ſeveral others ſince the rupture in 1718, though they all proved ineffectual to prevent the war in 1739, which being now happily over, it is to be hoped the peace that has ſucceeded will remain eſtabliſhed for a long term, and her chearful ſmiles lull both nations into a forgetfulneſs of the paſt troubles and diſtreſſes, that war brings with it, more eſpecially to the mercantile part of them; and as the treaty concluded on this occaſion at Madrid, the fifth of October, N. S. 1750, not only ſettled a peace in general, but alſo in particular the diſputes depending between the two crowns, in regard to the Aſſiento contract; and as it is the laſt, and conſequently of moſt importance for our reader's government, we ſhall give them the articles of it, and with them finiſh this topic.

Whereas by the XVIth article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it has been agreed, between their Britannick and Catholic majeſties, that the treaty of the Aſſiento for the commerce of negroes, and the article of the annual ſhip, for the four years of non-enjoyment, ſhould be confirmed to Great Britain, upon the ſame foot, and upon the ſame condition, as they ought to have been executed before the late war; and the reſpective ambaſſadors of their ſaid majeſties having agreed, by a declaration ſigned between them on the $\frac{13}{24}$ June, 1748, to regulate at a proper time and place, by a negociation between miniſters, named on each ſide for that purpoſe, the equivalent which Spain ſhould give in conſideration of the non-enjoyment of the years of the ſaid Aſſiento of negroes, and of the annual ſhip, granted to Great Britain, by the Xth article of the preliminaries ſigned at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the $\frac{19}{30}$ April, 1748.

Their Britannick and Catholick majeſties, in order to fulfil the ſaid engagements of their reſpective miniſters, and to ſtrengthen and perfect more and more a ſolid and laſting harmony between the two crowns, have agreed to make the preſent particular treaty between themſelves, without the intervention or participation of any third power; ſo that each of the contracting parties acquires by virtue of the ceſſions, which that party makes, a right of compenſation from the other reciprocally: and they have named their miniſters plenipotentiaries for that purpoſe, viz. his Britannick majeſty, Benjamin Keene, Eſq; and his Catholick majeſty, Don Joſeph de Carvajal and Lancaſter, who after having examined the points in queſtion, have agreed on the following articles.

I. His Britannick majeſty yields to his Catholick majeſty, his right to the enjoyment of the Aſſiento of negroes, and the annual ſhip, during the four years ſtipulated by the XVIth article of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

II. His Britannick majeſty, in conſideration of a compenſation of 100,000 l. ſterling, which his Catholick majeſty promiſes and engages to cauſe to be paid either at Madrid, or London, to the royal Aſſiento company, within the term of three months at lateſt, to be reckoned from the day of ſigning this treaty, yields to his Catholick majeſty all that may be due to the ſaid company for ballance of accounts, or ariſing in any manner whatſoever from the ſaid Aſſiento; ſo that the ſaid compenſation ſhall be eſteemed and looked upon as a full and entire ſatisfaction on the part of his Catholick majeſty, and ſhall extinguiſh from this preſent time, for the future and for ever, all right, pretenſion, or demand, which might be formed in conſequence of the ſaid Aſſiento or annual ſhip, directly or indirectly, on the part of his Britannick majeſty, or on that of the ſaid company.

III. The Catholick king yields to his Britannick majeſty all his pretenſions or demands in conſequence of the ſaid Aſſiento and annual ſhip, as well with regard to the articles already liquidated, as to thoſe which may be eaſy or difficult to liquidate; ſo that no mention can ever be made of them hereafter on either ſide.

IV. His Catholick majeſty conſents that the Britiſh ſubjects ſhall not be bound to pay higher or other duties, or upon other evaluations for goods, which they ſhall carry into, or out of the different ports of his Catholick majeſty, than thoſe paid on the ſame goods in the time of Charles the Second, king of Spain, ſettled by the ſchedules and ordonances of that king, or thoſe of his predeceſſors. And although the favour or allowance, called *Pie del Fardo*, be not founded upon any royal ordonance, nevertheleſs

theleſs his Catholick majeſty declares, wills, and ordains, that it ſhall be obſerved now, and for the future, as an inviolable law; and all the above-mentioned duties ſhall be exacted and levied, now and for the future, with the ſame advantages and favours to the ſaid ſubjects.

V. His Catholick majeſty allows the ſaid ſubjects to take and gather ſalt in the iſland of Tortugas, without any hindrance whatſoever, as they did in the time of the ſaid Charles the Second.

VI. His Catholick majeſty conſents, that the ſaid ſubjects ſhall not pay any where higher, or other duties, than thoſe which his own ſubjects pay in the ſame place.

VII. His Catholick majeſty grants, that the ſaid ſubjects ſhall enjoy all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities whatſoever, which they enjoyed before the laſt war, by virtue of ſchedules, or royal ordonances, and by the articles of the treaty of peace and commerce made at Madrid in 1667; and the ſaid ſubjects ſhall be treated in Spain in the ſame manner as the moſt favoured nation, and conſequently, no nation ſhall pay leſs duties upon wool and other merchandizes, which they ſhall bring into, or carry out of Spain by land, than the ſaid ſubjects ſhall pay upon the ſame merchandizes, which they ſhall bring in or carry out by ſea; and all the rights, privileges, franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities, which ſhall be granted or permitted to any nation whatever, ſhall alſo be granted and permitted to the ſaid ſubjects; and his Britannick majeſty conſents that the ſame be granted and permitted to the ſubjects of Spain in his Britannick majeſty's dominions.

VIII. His Catholick majeſty promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours on his part, to aboliſh all innovations which may have been introduced into commerce, and to have them forborn for the future. His Britannick majeſty likewiſe promiſes to uſe all poſſible endeavours to aboliſh all innovations, and to forbear them for the future.

IX. Their Britannick and Catholick majeſties confirm by the preſent treaty the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and all the other treaties therein confirmed, in all their articles and clauſes, excepting thoſe which have been derogated from by the preſent treaty: as likewiſe the treaty of commerce, concluded at Utrecht in 1713, thoſe articles excepted, which are contrary to the preſent treaty, which ſhall be aboliſhed and of no force; and namely, the three articles of the ſaid treaty of Utrecht, commonly called explanatory.

X. All the reciprocal differences, rights, demands, and pretenſions, which may have ſubſiſted between the two crowns of Great-Britain and Spain, in which no other nation whatever has any part, intereſt or right of intervention, being thus accommodated and extinguiſhed by this particular treaty; the two ſaid moſt ſerene kings engage themſelves mutually to the punctual execution of this treaty of reciprocal compenſation, which ſhall be approved and ratified by their ſaid majeſties, and the ratifications exchanged in the term of ſix weeks, to be reckoned from the day of its ſigning, or ſooner if it can be done.

In witneſs whereof, &c.

Our exports now to Spain (including the Canary iſlands) are long, ſhort, and Spaniſh cloths, ſtuffs, bays, hats, perpets, ſilk and worſted hoſe, butter, cheeſe, leather, wrought iron, braſs, bell metal, linens plain and printed, pewter, tin, lead, ſhot, copper, ſail cloth, haberdaſhery wares, clockwork and watches, ſhoes, wrought ſilk, wrought plate, gunpowder, cordage, logwood, braziletto, ſilk mixed, and ſewing ſilk, glaſs, copperas, prints, train oil, toys, cabinet and ſhip-chandlery ware, wax, lanthorn leaves, flax, fans, wheat, beans, barley meal, thread, tobacco, canvas, cambricks, lawns, bed-ticks, ſugar, drugs, pimento, pepper, ſpice, ſtaves, brimſtone, deer ſkins, Eaſt-India goods, &c.

The imports from thence are wine, almonds, anniſeed, cumminſeeds, ſoap, oil, ſilk (before the extraction was prohibited) iron, wool, indigo, figs, raiſins, oranges, and orange-juice, lemons, cheſnuts, ſmall-nuts, pomgranates, olives, ſaffron, barilla, kelp, kid-ſkins, capers, umber, anchovies, ſpunges, wrought ſilk, cochineal, cork, whiſk brooms, and (formerly) brandies, which we believe may pretty near ballance that trade, *extra* of the corn and meal (which have lately been very conſiderable) and we think muſt be regarded as a ballance in our favour; but theſe being only accidental articles, are not to be reckoned as ſtaple commodities, nor placed on the credit ſide in this account of commerce, at leaſt in ſuch large quantities, as a loſt harveſt in that and the neighbouring territories obliged them to call for; we ſay, ſuppoſing their dearth to happen when an equal calamity has befel the other ſouthern corn countries; for when they can be ſupplied from Sicily, Sardinia, Naples, Turkey, Barbary, or the Eccleſiaſtical State, they always prefer thoſe ſolid grains before ours, as well on account of its yielding more flour, as becauſe their mills are ſet for grinding hard corn, which muſt be altered when a ſoft ſort is to ſupply the deficiency. We have not mentioned among the preceding imports, the article of plate, which is no ſmall one, and we think is a certain indication of the ballance of that trade being in our favour; and would certainly be much more ſo, were the cuſtoms on our goods collected in Spain according to the preceding treaties, which include and inforce the ſchedules granted the Engliſh by ſeveral ſucceſſive monarchs. But to ſhew that they are levied on a much higher valuation, and very differently from what is therein ſtipulated and agreed, we here add an account of the impoſts on merchandize, drawn up at Cadiz the 17th of February 1750, by a gentleman, whoſe capacity in mercantile affairs is exceeded by few; and this induces us alſo to ſubjoin his ſentiments, which pleaſe to take in his own words.

*Particulars of the impoſts on merchandize entered in the Cuſtom-Houſe at Cadiz.*

" Goods according to their different ſpecies pay eleven, five, ten, or four *per cent.* almoxarifaſgo goods charged with eleven *per cent.* Almoxarifaſgo pay duties as follows:

| Branches. | | Decimals. |
|---|---|---|
| N° 1 | 11 *per cent.* with $\frac{1}{4}$ in plate, which is $\frac{1}{8}$ part more | 0,12375 |
| 2 | 2 *per cent.* called *dos unos*, as foregoing | 0,0225 |
| 3 | 2 *per cent.* called *Boſſillo de la Reyna*, as above | 0,0225 |
| 4 | $1\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* with a premium of 5 *per cent.* | 0,01575 |
| 5 | $1\frac{1}{4}$ *per cent.* | 0,0125 |
| 6 | 4 *per cent.* called 1°, 2°, 3°, 4°, *uno de Alcavala* | 0,04 |
| 7 | $1\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* called *Donativo antiguo de la Cuida y Fortification* | 0,01500 |
| | Amount of the duties before the year 1686, being $25\frac{1}{3}$ *per cent.* | 0,252 |
| 8 | $1\frac{1}{3}$ *per cent.* with a premium of five *per cent. conſulado y longa* | 0,014 |
| | Amount of the duties upon the acceſſion of king Philip V. being $26\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* | 0,266 |
| 6 | $1\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* called *Donativo moderno de la Cuida* | 0,015 |
| | Amount of the duties before the late war, being $28\frac{1}{10}$ *per cent.* | 0,281 |
| 10 | 2 *per cent.* called *Sanidad* | 0,02 |
| | Amount of the duties actually levied, being $30\frac{1}{10}$ *per cent.* | 0,301 |

When the almoxariſaſgo is five *per cent.* the duties are as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| 5 *per cent.* with the quarter part in plate, which is $\frac{1}{8}$ part more | 0,05625 |
| N° 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, branches aforementioned added | 0,12825 |
| $4\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* additional alcavala on this article | 0,045 |
| Amount of the duties before the year 1686 being $22\frac{9}{20}$ *per cent.* | 0,2295 |
| N° 8 above-mentioned, added | 0,014 |
| Amount of the duties upon the acceſſion of king Philip, being $24\frac{7}{20}$ *per cent.* | 0,2435 |
| N° 9 above-mentioned, added | 0,015 |

Amount

| | |
|---|---|
| Amount of the duties before the late war, being $25\frac{1}{10}$ *per cent.* | 0,2585 |
| N° 10 above-mentioned, added | 0,02 |
| Amount of the duties actually levied, being $27\frac{85}{100}$ *per cent.* | 0,2785 |

Goods charged with ten *per cent.* almoxarifaſgo paid in the afore-mentioned manner, before the acceſſion of the late king Philip, $29\frac{975}{1000}$ *per cent.* and before the late war, $31\frac{475}{1000}$ *per cent.* and they muſt now pay $33\frac{475}{1000}$ *per cent.*

Goods charged with four *per cent.* almoxarifaſgo, paid before the acceſſion of king Philip $23\frac{225}{1000}$ *per cent.* and $24\frac{725}{1000}$ *per cent.* before the late war, and actually pay $26\frac{725}{1000}$ *per cent.*

In order to comprehend the calculation of theſe duties, here is a ſmall ſpecimen of the model of the Spaniſh book of rates, as it ſtood before the late war, and the innovations made in the valuation of ſome articles of your manufacture.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | Anaſcotes blancos la Pieza | 6000 | |
| 5 | Dichos negros la pieza | 5000 | |
| 11 | Bayetas de Inglaterra | 10000 | |
| 10 | Curtidos de Irlanda cada uno | 680 | |
| 11 | Duroys la pieza | 2000 | |
| 11 | Pannos finos de Inglaterra la pieza | 24000 | |
| 11 | Dichos entre finos | 17000 | |
| 11 | Dhos Comunes | 14000 | |
| 40 | White hunſcoats, they are now rated at | 7000 | |
| 40 | Block ditto | 6000 | |
| $\frac{1}{3}$ | Bays | 12000 | |
| $\frac{1}{3}$ | Iriſh hides | 1496 | |
| 40 | Duroys | 3000 | |
| 40 | Fine Engliſh cloths, (Var. now rated at | 1768 | each |
| 40 | Second cloths | 816 | ditto |
| 40 | Yorkſhire cloths | 510 | ditto |

The firſt column ſpecifies the almoxarifaſgo, the ſecond the ſpecies of goods, the third the value, rate, or aſoro, as called here; the fourth the abatement *per cent.* or gracia, called *pie de fardo.* Beſides that gracia, there is an abatement of twenty-five *per cent.* allowed by the king, called *la quarta tabla.* The duties are thus calculated, viz

100 pieces white hunſcoats entered in this cuſtomhouſe, forty deducted for the gracia, being forty *per cent.* as aſore-mentioned, ſixty pieces valued according to the aforo, or rate above-mentioned, at 6000 maravedis, make 36000, from which ſum deducting 900000, or the $\frac{1}{4}$ part for *la quarta tabla*, there remains 270000 maravedis. As the almoxarifaſgo is five *per cent.* and all the branches appertaining to it as a afore-mentioned, amounting to $25\frac{85}{100}$ *per cent.* before the late war, therefore 270000 at $25\frac{85}{100}$ *per cent.* are mars. 69795, which at ſixty-four mars. the value of each real plate, are R. Pla. $1090\frac{35}{64}$, the full amount of the duties on 100 pieces of white hunſcoats. But at preſent the aforo or valuation of white hunſcoats is at 7000 maravedis, whence $60 \times 7000 = 420000 -$ 105000 the quarta tabla $= 315000$ at $27\frac{85}{100}$ the actual duties *per cent.* are 87727,5 mars. at ſixty-four are R. Pl. $1370\frac{475}{640}$ the amount of the duties 100 pieces white hunſcoats muſt now pay. The difference is, R. Pl. $280\frac{125}{640}$ they now pay more than was levied before the late war, which is near $25\frac{3}{4}$ *per cent.* augmentation on the duties then eſtabliſhed.

In the treaty of commerce between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, concluded at Madrid the $\frac{13}{23}$ May 1667, the ſchedules and immunities granted to the Britiſh ſubjects trading to theſe ports are, we think, inſerted. If a new treaty be attempted, the ſaid ſchedules may be inſerted therein verbatim, to enforce the execution. The view of the Britiſh court, in the treaty concluded at Utrecht in 1713, ſeemed to be, that their merchandize ſhould not pay more duties than ten *per cent.* on their real value, to be aſcertained in a new book of rates, which was mutually agreed between the two courts to be formed. But the biſhop (we ſuppoſe the biſhop of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador and plenipotentiary, is here meant) did not underſtand duties, for the expreſſion in the ſaid treaty, "But it is to be underſtood that this is not to extend to the alcavalas, ciento, and millones," deſtroyed the whole purport of the treaty, and rendered the forming a new book of rates quite uſeleſs. The merchants verſed and knowing in the nature of the duties, did therefore ſollicit that the cuſtoms aforos ſhould remain on the ſame footing they were upon in king Charles the ſecond's time, though ſome articles were over-rated, which was accordingly executed by the treaty of Madrid, 1715. Since the late war the duties are augmented as afore-mentioned, and what is much more grievous, the aforo or valuation of the merchandize is greatly increaſed; wherefore our conſul at the head of this factory applied to our ambaſſador at Madrid, to ſollicit (if ſeemingly to him convenient) that the goods ſhould be diſpatched in the cuſtom-houſes in like manner as they were before the war: nothing favourable has reſulted, for the goods are charged upon the extravagant new footing. If the aforo or valuation of a few articles of the Britiſh products was leſſened, and the innovations, introduced ſince the war, were aboliſhed, the propoſed end of the Britiſh court, to pay no more than ten *per cent.* on the real value of the goods, may be accompliſhed, although no alteration be made in reducing or aboliſhing any branch of the duties actually levied; which appears to be the eaſieſt method, as an attempt to ſtrike off any of the branches of the duties might be powerfully reſiſted by thoſe to whom they were appropriated, or the managers thereof. Some inſtances are offered to make this matter more plain. A piece of bays (upon the medium of the value of the quality for this market) ſhipped in London, will not coſt, including the charges, above 3 l. 8 s. 9 d. which are equal to fifteen ducats, or a hundred and ſixty-five reals plate; each piece was rated before the war at 10000 maravedis; the gratia $\frac{1}{3}$, and $\frac{1}{4}$ for the quarta tabla, being deducted, and the duties at $28\frac{1}{10}$ *per cent.* as they then ſtood, being charged, each piece paid R. Pl. $22\frac{5}{31}$ which is $13\frac{1}{2}$ *per cent.* on the real value. Yet a piece of bays is now rated at 12000 mars. and the actual duties of $30\frac{1}{10}$ being charged after deducting the gracias, each piece muſt now pay R. Pl. $28\frac{7}{32}$, which exceeds ſeventeen *per cent.* on the real value. Whereas, if the aforo of bays was at 7000 mars. then each piece would pay as the duties now ſtand, R. Pl. $16\frac{57}{128}$, or only ten *per cent.* on the real value. In like manner other goods may be valued according to their regular and common coſt put aboard, and not at the price they are generally ſold for, becauſe the duties and charges on the ſale make a part of the price of ſale. If this idea be approved, a table for the rates of all goods imported from his majeſty's dominions may eaſily be framed, and formed ſo that the duties ſhall not exceed ten *per cent.* on their real value. The following is a ſpecimen of ſuch a table, viz.

| Almox. | goods. | the aforo. | the gratia. |
|---|---|---|---|
| 11 | Bays, each piece | 7000 | $\frac{1}{3}$ |
| 11 | Long ells, each piece | 2900 | 40 |
| 11 | Fine cloths, each piece | 24000 | 40 as before the war. |
| 11 | Second cloths, ditto | 17000 | 40 as before the war. |
| 11 | Yorkſhire cloth, ditto | 10000 | 40 |
| 11 | Eſtamenas, each piece | 6000 | 40 as before the war. |
| 5 | Broad camblets, ditto | 5000 | 40 |
| 5 | Hunſcoats, each piece | 5000 | 40 |
| 10 | Hides, each | 680 | $\frac{1}{3}$ as before the war. |
| | &c. | | |

Merceries according to invoice, &c.

SPAN, a meaſure taken from the ſpace between the thumb's end and the tip of the little finger, when both are ſtretched out.

The ſpan is eſtimated at three hands-breadths, or nine inches.

SPANGLE-MAKER. This buſineſs requires very little ingenuity or learning: ſpangles and plate-figures in embroidery are made of gold or ſilver wire, twiſted round, cut off in rings, and flatted upon a poliſhed anvil, with a punch tipped with poliſhed ſteel. Thoſe who perform this work are employed by the lace-men, and take about five pounds with an apprentice, who muſt work from five till eight; but five or ten pounds will enable him to ſet up for himſelf.

SPAR, in natural hiſtory, a ſhining ſtony ſubſtance, generally, though improperly, ſuppoſed to be compounded of cryſtal, incorporated with ſome mineral, earthy, ſtony, or metallic matter; frequently found in caves and grottos, and in the clefts of rocks, lead-mines, &c.

Spar is naturally pellucid, and is found in almoſt an infinite variety of forms; in ſome of which it retains its tranſparency and purity, in others it is more or leſs debaſed by an admixture of earth, and grows, accordingly, leſs

clear, till, from the marblue hue of ſome of the moderately debaſed kinds, it ſinks in ſome to a mere earthy appearance. The genuine and diſtinguiſhing characters of ſpar, in whatever form it occurs, are theſe; it will not produce fire when ſtruck againſt a ſteel, it ferments very briſkly with *aqua fortis*, and, when pure, is totally diſſolved by it, and is very readily calcined in a ſmall fire.

SPAWS, mineral waters ariſing out of the earth, tinged with nitre, ſulphur, allum, bitumen, copperas, or other mineral matter, in paſſing through the ſtrata thereof; and hence endued with ſome medicinal quality, cathartic, diuretic, emetic, alterant, or the like.

SPECIES, in commerce, are the ſeveral pieces of gold, ſilver, copper, &c. which, having paſſed their full preparation, and coinage, are current in public.

SPECTACLE-MAKER. Grinding the glaſs of ſpectacles is a branch of the optician's buſineſs; and the rims, &c. are made by other artificers. This, however, is one of the city companies; but for a farther account of this uſeful art, we ſhall refer our readers to the article OPTICIAN.

SPERMA-CETI, in pharmacy, a white flaky ſubſtance, prepared from the oil of a particular ſpecies of whale. The ignorance of the people who firſt uſed this medicine, gave it a name, which ſeemed to expreſs its being the ſemen of the whale, but it is, in reality, no more than a preparation of the oil with which that fiſh abounds.

Sperma-ceti is a fine, bright, white, and ſemi-pellucid ſubſtance, compoſed of a fine furfuraceous ſubſtance, formed into oblong flakes, very light, ſoft, and unctuous to the touch; inflammable, foluble in oil, but not in watery menſtruums; of ſcarce any ſmell, when freſh and fine, and of a ſoft, agreeable, and unctuous taſte. The largeſt, firmeſt, and whiteſt flakes of it, are to be choſen. It is liable to become rancid and yellowiſh in keeping, and the ſmaller fragments contract this bad quality ſooner than the larger.

The firſt knowledge the world ſeems to have had of ſperma-ceti, was the finding it ſwimming on the ſurface of the water in the northern ſeas: and we are not to wonder that people who knew no more of its origin, than what they were informed of by thoſe who found it ſo floating on the ſea, referred it to the mineral claſs, ſuppoſing it to be bitumen formed in the bowels of the earth, and thrown up from the bottom of the ocean, as was the opinion of Schroder, and others of his time. It was ſoon after diſcovered, however, that the head of a peculiar ſpecies of whale afforded a fatty ſubſtance, which, when boiled, and properly prepared, was analagous to this. And hence it was ſoon deduced, that the maſſes of it firſt found were of the ſame origin; that they had been, formerly, an oily matter in this fiſh, which getting looſe on the periſhing of the dead carcaſs, or by any other means, had been waſhed and bleached by the ſalt-water, and the ſun, into the form of which it was then found. The opinion of its being the ſperm or ſemen of the whale, was about as early as the firſt diſcovery that it belonged to that animal, and ſeems to have been formed merely on account of its whiteneſs.

The ſpecies of whale from the head of which ſperma ceti was firſt prepared, and to which it was long thought to be peculiar, is of the number of thoſe ranged in a peculiar genus by Artedi, under the name of *catadon*, from their having teeth in their under jaw. He has diſtinguiſhed this ſpecies by the name of *catadon fiſtula in cervice*, the toothed whale, with a pipe or opening for the diſcharge of water in its neck.

Sibbald, who had accurately examined the ſeveral ſpecies of whales, calls it *balœna major in inferiore tantum maxilla dentata*, *macro-cephala*, *bipinnis*; Cluſius, and many of the earlier writers, have deſcribed it under the name of *cete*, and the Dutch call it the pot-whale fiſh, and *trumpe*.

It grows to ſixty feet, or more, in length, and meaſures near forty feet round in the thickeſt part. It has a very large head, and the teeth in the lower jaw are forty-two in number; they are diſpoſed into two ſeries of rows, and are each as big as a man's thumb: it has no fin upon the back, and in its general ſhape and other particulars, it reſembles the other whales, having the tail placed horizontally, or tranſverſely to the body, not vertically, as in other fiſh, and the ſtructure of the internal parts wholly the ſame.

The ſperma-ceti of the ſhops was firſt made from the head of this fiſh; the oil obtained from its brain, and the diploe of the cranium, furniſhing all that we had of it; and hence the conſiderable price it long kept at. It was ſometime after found out, however, that any whale oil would do, as well as this, which occaſioned the price to fall conſiderably. At preſent it is made in England from whale oil of any kind, the ſettlings of our oilmen's larger veſſels particularly, which are boiled with a lixivium of German pot-aſh, or pearl-aſhes, till white and firm; and after ſeveral other meltings, and a thorough ſeparation of what ſaline particles might have got into the matter, it is, when cold, cut out with knives into the flakes we ſee it in. The proceſs is eaſy, but it requires care, and a nice inſpection towards the end: if not enough boiled, it is apt to turn yellow, and ſoon grow rancid.

Sperma-ceti is, therefore, oil of the animal kind, rendered very ſweet, and fit for internal uſe. Its virtues are emollient and pectoral; it is good in coughs, and other diſorders of the breaſt, and excellent in external applications, ſuch as liniments, and the like: it readily diſſolves in oil, or other fatty ſubſtances, for the latter purpoſes; and, for the former, it blends with the yolk of an egg, and after that mixture with an aqueous fluid, and makes a pleaſant emulſion.

SPICE, any kind of aromatic drug that has hot and pungent qualities, ſuch as pepper, nutmeg, ginger, cinnamon, and cloves; ſome alſo apply the word to ſeveral medicinal drugs brought from the Eaſt; as ſenna, caſſia, frankincenſe, &c.

For garbling ſpices 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 19. repealed, 6 *Ann. c.* 16.

Duty on ſpices imported, 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. made perpetual by 7 *Ann. c.* 7. and part of bank fund: and the ſurplus part of the aggregate fund, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12.

*Spicery*, viz. cinnamon, cloves, mace, and nutmegs, may be imported in Britiſh ſhips, whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Britiſh, from any parts beyond the ſeas; upon licenſe firſt had from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, or from the cuſtomer, or collector and comptroller of the port. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 3. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 6. 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 26. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 45. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 19. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 2.

The quantity, quality, and the port of importation, are to be expreſſed in ſuch licences; and if more be found than therein mentioned, it is forfeited. The package to be in caſks or bales, unleſs from the Eaſt-Indies; the bale of cinnamon to weigh net ſeventy pounds or upwards, and each caſk of nutmegs, cloves, or mace, three hundred pounds or upwards, upon forfeiture thereof. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 3. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 6. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 45. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 19. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 21. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

The licences are to be delivered up by the maſters at the entry of their ſhips, and annexed to the reports, with the marks and numbers of each caſk, bale, or parcel, and the quantity and quality indorſed on the back, upon forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 46. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 19. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 21. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Found on board any ſhip in ſmall parcels, packed in hogſheads, bales, or caſks, are forfeited. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 47. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 19. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 2.

Spice and pictures unſhipped, or laid on land, before payment of the branch N° 13, are forfeited without any compoſition whatſoever. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 4.

Additional duty, 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4. made perpetual by 7 *Ann. c.* 7. and part of bank fund: and the ſurplus part of the aggregate fund, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12.

New duties on ſpices, raiſins, and ſnuffs, 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 6.

The duties laid by 8 *Ann. c.* 7. made perpetual by 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. in order to be ſubſcribed in South-Sea ſtock.

Long pepper not chargeable with the farther new duty of one ſhilling and ſix-pence by 8 *Ann. c.* 7. 9 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 59.

Dirt in pepper, &c. to be deſtroyed, 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 45.

Spices packed in ſmall parcels forfeited, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 47.

Duties on ſpices aſcertained, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 17, 18.

Licences to import ſpices ſhall be delivered up at entering the ſhip, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 21.

SPIKE-

SPIKENARD, *nardus*. We ſhall here take notice only of two ſorts, the Celtic and the Indian. The former grows in many parts of Europe, and Mr. Ray ſays, as it agrees in kind with the valerian, ſo it has the ſame virtues. The latter comes to us from the Eaſt-Indies, Alexandria, &c. called by Reinerus *gramen*, *cyperoides*, *aromaticum*, *Indicum*, and is much more valuable than the other. It is eſteemed as an alexipharmic, being warm and ſpicy, and helpful to promote ſweating. Upon this account, it is an ingredient in the capitals and other diſpenſatory compoſitions of the ſame intention. It is likewiſe reckoned a good ſtomachic and ſtrengthener of the fibres, and diſpeller of wind and crude flatulencies. Quincy.

SPINNING, in commerce, the art or act of reducing ſilk, flax, hemp, wool, hair, or other matter into thread.

SPIRITS, or low wines, brought by ſea coaſtwiſe, without a certificate from the officer of exciſe where diſtilled, are forfeited: to be ſued for as any other forfeiture by the laws of exciſe. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 17. *See* ARRACK, BRANDY, *and* BOUNTY for regulations on exportation.

SPOUT, *or* WATER SPOUT, in natural hiſtory, an extraordinary meteor, or appearance at ſea, and ſometimes at land, very dangerous to ſhips, &c. called by the Latins *typho* and *ſopho*, and by the French *trompe*.

Its firſt appearance is in form of a deep cloud, the upper part whereof is white, and the lower black. From the lower part of this cloud hangs, or rather falls down, what we properly call the ſpout, in manner of a conical tube, biggeſt at top. Under this tube is always a great boiling and flying up of the water of the ſea, as in a jet d'eau. For ſome yards above the ſurface of the ſea, the water ſtands as a column, or pillar, from the extremity whereof it ſpreads and goes off, as in a kind of ſmoke. Frequently, the cone deſcends ſo low, as to touch the middle of this column, and continue for ſome time contiguous to it; though ſometimes it only points to it, at ſome diſtance, either in a perpendicular or oblique line. Frequently it is ſcarce diſtinguiſhable, whether the cone or the column appear firſt, both appearing all of a ſudden againſt each other. But ſometimes the water boils up from the ſea to a great height, without any appearance of a ſpout pointing to it, either perpendicularly or obliquely. Indeed, generally, the boiling or flying up of the water has the priority, this always preceding its being formed into a column. Generally, the cone does not appear hollow, till towards the end, when the ſea-water, is violently thrown up along its middle, as ſmoke up a chimney. Soon after this, the ſpout or canal breaks and diſappears; the boiling up of the water, and even the pillar, continuing to the laſt, and for ſometime afterwards; ſometimes till the ſpout form itſelf again, and appear a-new; which it ſometimes does ſeveral times in a quarter of an hour. M. de la Pyme, from a near obſervation of two or three ſpouts in Yorkſhire, deſcribed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, gathers that the water-ſpout is nothing but a gyration of clouds by contrary winds, meeting in a point or center; and there, where the greateſt condenſation and gravitation is, falling down into a pipe or great tube, ſomewhat like Archimedes's ſpiral ſcrew; and in its working and whirling motion, abſorbing and raiſing the water, in the ſame manner as the ſpiral ſcrew does; and thus deſtroying ſhips, &c. Thus, June the twenty-firſt he obſerved the clouds mightily agitated above, and driven together; upon which they became very black, and were hurried round, whence proceeded a moſt audible whirling noiſe, like that ordinarily heard in a mill. Soon after, iſſued a long tube or ſpout, from the center of the congregated clouds, wherein he obſerved a ſpiral motion, like that of a ſcrew; by which the water was raiſed up. Again, Auguſt the fifteenth 1687, the wind, blowing at the ſame time out of ſeveral quarters, created a great vortex and whirling among the clouds; the center whereof, every now and then, dropped down, in ſhape of a long, thin, black pipe, wherein he could diſtinctly behold a motion like that of a ſcrew, continually drawing upwards, and ſcrewing up, as it were, wherever it touched. In its progreſs it moved ſlowly over a grove of trees, which bent under it like wands in a circular motion. Proceeding, it tore off the thatch from a barn, bent a huge oak-tree, broke one of its greateſt branches, and threw it to a great diſtance. He adds, that whereas it is commonly ſaid, the water works and riſes in a column, before the tube comes to touch it; this is doubtleſs a miſtake, owing to the fineneſs and tranſpareney of the tubes, which do moſt certainly touch the ſurface of the ſea, before any conſiderable motion can be raiſed therein; but which do not become opake and viſible, till after they have imbibed a conſiderable quantity of water.

The diſſolution of water-ſpouts he aſcribes to the great quantity of water they have glutted; which by its weight impeding their motion, whereon their force, and even exiſtence, depends, they break and let go their contents; which uſed to prove fatal to whatever is found underneath.

A notable inſtance hereof we have in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, related by Dr. Richardſon: a ſpout in 1718 breaking on Emott-moor, nigh Coln, in Lancaſhire, the county was immediately overflowed; a brook, in a few minutes, roſe ſix feet perpendicularly high; and the ground whereon the ſpout fell, which was ſixty feet over, was tore up to the very rock, which was no leſs than ſeven feet deep; and a deep gulf made for above half a mile; the earth being raiſed on either ſide in vaſt heaps.

In Pliny's time, the ſeamen uſed to pour vinegar into the ſea, to aſſuage and lay the ſpout, when it approached them: our modern ſeamen keep it off, by making a noiſe with filing and ſcratching violently on the deck, or by diſcharging great guns to diſperſe it.

SPRING-TIDE. The time of ſpring-tides is always about three days before the full or change of the moon; but the top or higheſt, which is the ſpring-tide, is three days after the full or change; then the water runs higheſt with the flood, and loweſt with the ebb, and the tides run more ſtrong and ſwift than in the neaps. *See* TIDE.

SPUNGE, in natural hiſtory, a plant of ſo very ſingular a ſtructure, that many authors have ſuppoſed it merely a vegetable, but of an intermediate nature between that and the animal kind, and have ranked it among the number of an imaginary race of beings, which they call zoophytes. Spunge, however, is a genuine plant; nor is there in the creation any ſuch claſs of beings as zoophytes, or any creature that is partly plant, partly animal.

We meet with ſpunges, in the ſhops, often in the whole plant; ſometimes only in pieces of larger ones; in either caſe, it is of a perfectly irregular figure, and is only to be diſtinguiſhed by its texture, which is cavernous, like that of a honey-comb; by its elaſticity, which makes it, after paſſing into a very ſmall compaſs, immediately expand to its full bulk again, on taking away the preſſure; and by its property of imbibing, perfectly, a large quantity of water, and as readily parting with it again, on ſqueezing.

Spunge is to be choſen perfectly clean, and free from ſtones within, or from a cruſtaceous and hard matter without; of as pale a colour as may be, and with ſmall holes, and ſuch as is lighteſt.

The greateſt part of the ſpunge, we uſe, is brought from Aleppo and Smyrna. It grows in the Archipelago, at conſiderable depths, on the rocks about ſome of the iſlands there, and multitudes of people make a trade of diving for it. It is alſo common in the Mediterrannean, and many other ſeas, though in general, browner or yellower, and not ſo fine as that of the Archipelago.

It grows in large maſſes to rocks and ſtones, ſometimes to large ſhells; and ſometimes round, ſometimes flat, ſometimes hollow like a funnel.

It is one of the cryptogamiæ of Linnæus, one of the herbæ marinæ of Tournefort, and one of the herbæ imperfectæ of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed by all the botanical writers, under the name of *Spongia marina alba*, and *Spongia globoſa*, the white or round ſpunge. Diſtilled by a retort, it yields a large quantity of white milky phlegm, of a fiſhy ſmell; after this a large portion of an urinous reddiſh liquor, with a little of a dry, volatile, urinous ſalt, and a thick, browniſh, fetid oil. The remainder, in the retort, yields only a ſmall portion of a lixivial ſalt, and that not merely alkaline.

Spunge calcined to a blackneſs, and reduced to powder, has been lately brought into great uſe as a ſweetener of the blood, and a diuretic; ſome have pretended even to cure leproſies with it; and others have extolled it againſt the bite of a mad dog; but theſe are virtues leſs certainly known of it.

In the larger and coarſer pieces of ſpunge, there are often ſmall ſtones found imbedded in the ſubſtance of the matter, and yet, more frequently, a cruſtaceous matter gathered

gathered round the ſurface of certain parts of the plants; both theſe ſubſtances are called by the common name of *lapis ſpongiæ*, the ſpunge ſtone; and both are recommended as diuretics, and remedies againſt the ſtone and gravel.

*Pyrotechnical* SPUNGES, are made of the large muſhrooms, or fungous excreſcences growing on old oaks, aſhes, firs, &c. which being boiled in common water, then dried and well beaten, are put in a ſtrong lye prepared with ſalt-petre, and again dried in an oven. Theſe make the black match or tinder brought from Germany, uſed to receive and ſuſtain the fire ſtruck from a flint and ſteel, &c.

STACK *of Wood*, among huſbandmen, is a pile of three feet long, as many broad, and twelve feet high.

STAFFORDSHIRE produces corn, coals, free-ſtone, marble, alabaſter, copper, lead, and iron, of which latter, nails, and other ſmall wares, are made: Burton is famous for its ale; and this county does not contribute the ſmalleſt ſhare to the two thouſand ton mentioned under Derby and Nottinghamſhire to be ſent to London, beſides what its dairies furniſh for Yorkſhire, &c. as is obſerved in deſcribing Cheſhire.

STALACTITES, *or* STAGONITES, in natural hiſtory, a ſparry ſort of icicles, which often hang down from the tops or arches of grottoes and ſubterrannean caverns; and from the roofs of buildings, and capitals of pillars of ſuch places as are built over hot ſprings.

STAMP-DUTIES, a tax on proceedings in law, expired, 22 and 23 *Car.* 2. *c.* 9.

Grant of a ſtamp-duty, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. Continued by 5 *Ann. c.* 19. and made perpetual and part of the aggregate fund by 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. The ſecond ſtamp-duty, 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. A third, 12 *Ann. c.* 2. 9. *ſ.* 21. Another, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. Another, 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. Another, 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. Another, 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 36.

Exemptions from the ſtamp-duty, and the penalty leſſened, 6 and 7 *W.* 3. *c.* 12.

Proviſions to prevent frauds in the ſtamps, 1 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 22.

Admiſſions of freemen before 1 Dec. 1705, without ſtamps, made good, 4 *Ann. c.* 12. *ſ.* 8.

Attornies not to incur any penalty of the ſtamp-acts for default of the other party, 5 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 29.

Warrants of the chief juſtices in eyre exempted from ſtamp-duties, 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 74.

*The clauſes particularly relating to each inſtrument charged with ſtamp-duties, reduced to an alphabetical method.*

| | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Act of notary public | | | | |
| Action entered in an inferior court that holds plea of forty ſhillings, but iſſues no writ, or proceſs, or mandate, pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 32. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 3. |
| Adjudication in Scotland | 0 | 2 | 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100. |
| Adminiſtration, letters of eſtates above 20 *l.* value | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 19. |
| Exceptions in favour of common ſoldiers and ſeamen, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 6. 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 44. | | | | |
| Admiralty-ſentence, attachment and relaxation thereof | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 17. |
| Warrant, monition, or perſonal decree | 0 | 2 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 2 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 24. |
| Libel, allegation, depoſition, anſwer, ſentence, or final decree | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 36. |
| Admiſſion in a corporation, or company | 0 | 2 | 0 | 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 2. |
| Into an inn of court, or chancery, or matriculation | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 27. |
| And into inns of courts | 2 | 0 | 0 | 2 *Geo.* III. *c.* 36. *ſ.* 2. |
| To a fellowſhip of the college of phyſicians, or to any office of any court, not being an annual office under the value of ten pounds *per annum* | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. And 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 5. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 9, 10. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 10 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |
| Admittance to a copyhold eſtate. *See* COPYHOLD. | | | | |
| Advertiſement in weekly papers | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 101. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. |
| Printer not paying the duty in time, forfeits treble ſum | | | | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 118. |
| Advertiſement in periodical pamphlets, publiſhed at a greater interval than a week, pays | 0 | 2 | 0 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. |
| Affidavit, and copies thereof, pay | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 28, 29. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 2, 3. |
| Affidavit of plaintiff's cauſe of action pays as other affidavits | | | | 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 29. *ſ.* 2. |
| Exceptions in favour of affidavits concerning burying in woollen,—and thoſe taken before cuſtom-houſe officers, or juſtices of the peace, or commiſſioners for raiſing the king's duties, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 28. 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 2. And thoſe made for the allowance of duties on ſope uſed in the woollen manufacture, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 29, 30. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 16, 17. | | | | |
| What payable for affidavits of performance of quarentine, 9 *Ann. c.* 2. *ſ.* 6, 7. | | | | |
| Ale-licence. *See* LICENCE. | | | | |
| Allegation in the ſpiritual, or admiralty-court, and copy thereof, pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 36. |
| Almanack for one year printed on one ſide of paper, pays | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 23. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. |
| Other almanacks for one year, pay | 0 | 0 | 2 | 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 23. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 2 | 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. |
| Thoſe for more years pay for three years, 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 23. and 53. and the additional duty for every year, 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. | | | | |
| What book to be deemed an almanack, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 175. | | | | |
| One ſheet only needs be ſtamped, 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 26. | | | | |
| Proviſoes in favour of almanacks in bibles and common-prayer books, and ſaving the rights of proprietors of almanacks, 9 *Ann. c.* 25. *ſ.* 52, 53. | | | | |
| What ſecurity is to be taken for payment of the duty on paper delivered to the printers of almanacks, and what allowance is to be made for the copies of ſuch almanacks as ſhall be brought to the commiſſioners, 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 38. | | | | |

| | l. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Answer in court of equity pays | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 26. |
| Copy thereof | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 40. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 8. |
| Appeal from the court of admiralty, arches, or prerogative court of Canterbury or York, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 11. |
| And such appeal, and every appeal from the admiralty of Scotland, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |

For Writs of appeal. *See* WRIT.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Appearance on ſpecial bail pays | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 25. |
| On common bail, or without bail, | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. And 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 33. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 4 *Ann.* *c.* 12. *f.* 9. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 4. |

Penalty for not entering or filing an appearance within the time limited by the ſtatutes 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *f.* 33.

Apprentices, maſters pay 6d. in the pound for 50 l. or under, and one ſhilling for more, 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 32.

On pain of 50 l. 9 *Ann.* *c.* 21. *f.* 66. And double the duty, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *f.* 24.

The time of payment enlarged by ſeveral ſtatutes, 9 *Ann.* *c.* 21. *f.* 65. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 31. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *f.* 52. 7 *Geo.* I. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 20. *f.* 30. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 2. *f.* 38. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *f.* 24. 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *f.* 23. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 16. *f.* 5. 28 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *f.* 4.

Things given with apprentices, not being money, how to be valued, 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 45.

The indenture to bear date when executed, and to ſpecify the ſum given, on pain of double the ſum, 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 35.

And of the apprentice's being diſabled from following his trade, &c. 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 39.

And of the indenture's being no evidence, 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 43.

Within what time to be brought to the office and ſtamped, and the duty when to be paid, 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 36, 37, 38.

Penalties on non-payment of apprenticeſhips duties to be diſcharged on payment of double duties, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 45. *f.* 5.

Encouragement to apprentices paying the duty in the maſter's default, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *f.* 25. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 45. *f.* 5.

Proviſions in favour of indentures for binding poor children apprentices, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 30. 8 *Ann.* *c.* 9. *f.* 4. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 22. See ſtat. 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 46.

Aſſurance. *See* POLICY.

Aſſurance corporation bonds exempt from ſtamp-duties, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *f.* 8.

Attachment from the court of admiralty. *See* ADMIRALTY.

Attorney, what to pay for his admittance. *See* ADMISSION.

| | l. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Letter of attorney pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 37. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9. *f.* 1. |

Bail. *See* APPEARANCE.

Bail-bond may be aſſigned, but not ſued before it is ſtamped, 4 *Ann.* *c.* 16. *f.* 20.

Bank ſecurities exempt from ſtamp-duties, 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *f.* 39.

Barriſter. *See* DEGREES.

Batchelor of arts not chargeable with the duty of 40s. 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *f.* 3 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 51. 12 *Ann. ſt* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 22.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bill in equity pays | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *f.* 26. |
| Copy | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 40. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 8. |

Bills of exchange, or of ſees, or parcels, &c. pay nothing, 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 5. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 43.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bill of lading pays | 0 | 0 | 4 | 9 *Ann.* *c.* 23. *f.* 23. |

Bill of Middleſex. *See* WRIT.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Bond pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 37. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 6 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *f.* 1. |
| Brief for collecting charity, pays the ſingle duty of forty ſhillings — | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. 9 and 10 *W.* 3. *c.* 25. *f.* 69. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 22. |

Capias. *See* WRIT.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Cards per pack, pay | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 *Ann.* *c.* 23. *f.* 39. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *f.* 1. |

Certificate on degrees. *See* DEGREES.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Certificate on marriage, pays | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 21. *f.* 3. and 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 53. |

Proviſo in favour of ſeamens widows, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *f.* 2.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Certificates for drawbacks, pay | 0 | 0 | 8 | 9 *Ann.* *c.* 23. *f.* 23. |

Proviſo in favour of certificates concerning ſoap uſed in woollen works, 10 *Ann.* *c.* 19. *f.* 29, 30. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 16, 17.

Certificates for performance of quarentine, what to pay, 9 *Ann.* *c.* 2. *f.* 7.

Certiorari. *See* WRIT.

| | l. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Charter party in England, pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 37. |
| And in Great-Britain | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Cinque ports. *See* ADMIRALTY. | | | | |
| Circuit pardon pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3.<br>9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 3, 50.<br>12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Citation in eccleſiaſtical courts, pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 36. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *f.* 3. |
| Copy thereof | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 36. |
| Clare conſtat in Scotland pays | 0 | 2 | 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *f.* 100. |
| Clerks admittance. *See* ADMISSION. | | | | |
| Clerks indentures, are liable to the ſame duties as apprentices indentures, for which ſee APPRENTICE. | | | | |
| Cognitition of heirs in Scotland pays | 0 | 2 | 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *f.* 100. |
| Collation. *See* PRESENTATION. | | | | |
| Commiſſion eccleſiaſtical not otherwiſe charged, pays | 0 | 2 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 2 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 23. |
| Commiſſions of rebellion do not pay as letters patent | | | | 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *f.* 4.<br>12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Common Recovery. *See* WRIT. | | | | |
| Contract or other obligatory inſtrument, pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 37. |
| And if a deed | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Copy of a record or other proceedings at Weſtminſter pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 35. |
| Of a will | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 15. *f.* 41. |
| Copyhold ſurrenders, or copies, are neither within 5 *W.* and *M.* nor 9 and 10 *W.* III. 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *f.* 2. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 45. | | | | |
| But ſuch ſurrenders, copies and admittances except to the uſe of a will, or to a cuſtom right or tenant right eſtate, pay | 0 | 2 | 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *f.* 100.<br>12 *Ann. ſt.* 1. *c.* 2. *f.* 48. |
| Covenant. *See* WRIT. | | | | |
| County palatine and dutchy of Lancaſter letters patent, or exemplification of the ſame, pay | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Grants of profits under the ſeal of the ſaid dutchy or county pay | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 2. |
| Proceſs from counties palatine pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 13. |
| Cuſtom-right ſurrender to a copyhold. *See* COPYHOLD. | | | | |
| Debentures for draw-backs. *See* CERTIFICATES. | | | | |
| Declaration and copy pay | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 38. |
| Decree, or diſmiſſion of a court of equity | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10. *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 13. |
| Decree in the admiralty, or cinque ports. *See* ADMIRALTY. | | | | |
| *Dedimus poteſtatem.* See WRIT. | | | | |
| Deed inrolled, pays | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| Exempted from further duties by 9 and 10. *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 52. | | | | |
| Indentures, or deeds not otherwiſe charged, pay | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 and 6 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And unleſs they are made for binding pariſh apprentices | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 30. |
| And all deeds in Great Britain, not otherwiſe charged by 12 *Ann.* except bail-bonds and aſſignments thereof, and apprentices indentures of poor or charity children, and deeds in Scotland charged with the duty of 2 s. 3d. | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *f.* 1. |
| And if ingroſſed without being ſtamped, not to be evidence without payment of the further ſum of | 5 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 11. |
| And | 10 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 59 |
| Degree in the two univerſities, or inns of court, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3.<br>9 and 10. *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 51. |
| Exception in favour of batchelors of arts, 6 and 7 *W.* 3. *c.* 12. *f.* 3. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 51. | | | | |
| Demurrer in law and copy thereof pay | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 38, 39. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 9, 10. |
| In equity | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10. *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 38. |
| Copy thereof | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 25. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 39. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *f.* 8. |
| Depoſitions taken in the court of equity by commiſſion pay | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 26. |
| Depoſitions in Chancery (except paper draughts by commiſſion, before engroſſed) | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 8. |
| Copies of depoſitions, and depoſitions not taken by commiſſion, pay | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M.* c. 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 40. |

And

| | l. | s. | d. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 8. |
| Depoſitions in the eccleſiaſtical, admiralty, or cinque port courts, and copies thereof, pay | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 36. |
| Dice per pair pay | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *f.* 39. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *f.* 1. |
| Diſmiſſion. See DECREE. | | | | |
| Diſpenſation from the archbiſhop, or maſter of the faculties, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 8. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. f.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 24. |
| Donation. *See* PRESENTATION. | | | | |
| Drawback. *See* CERTIFICATE. | | | | |
| Eccleſiaſtical courts, inſtruments and proceedings. See the duties on the ſeveral inſtruments. | | | | |
| Entry of actions. *See* ACTION. | | | | |
| Entry of writs of error. *See* WRIT. | | | | |
| Exemplifications of letters patent. *See* GRANTS. | | | | |
| Exemplification under ſeal of any court, pays | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 2. *f.* 12. |
| Fine, *See* WRIT. | | | | |
| Grants by the king under the great ſeal of the dutchy or county palatine of Lancaſter, of any honour, dignity, promotion, franchiſe, or privilege, and exemplifications thereof, pay | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 2. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Grant of any ſum exceeding 100 l. under the great or privy ſeal, not directed to the great ſeal | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 4. |
| Every ſuch grant under the great ſeal of Scotland | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| And grant of office or employment above 50 l. *per annum* | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 5. |
| And every ſuch grant in Great-Britain, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Grant under the great ſeal, exchequer, dutchy county palatine, or privy ſeal, of lands in fee, or for years, or others grants of profits not particularly charged | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 6. |
| Habeas corpus. *See* WRIT. | | | | |
| Indentures. *See* DEEDS *and* APPRENTICES. | | | | |
| Inſtitution pays | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 14. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Inſtitution, or licence by the preſbyters in Scotland | 0 | 5 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 12. |
| Interrogatories in equity | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 26. |
| Copy | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 40. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *f.* 8. |
| Inventory exhibited in eccleſiaſtical, admiralty, or cinque port courts | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 36. |
| Copy thereof | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 36. |
| Judgment ſigned in any court at Weſtminſter | 0 | 2 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 2 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 22. |
| Kalendar. *See* ALMANACK. | | | | |
| Lading bill | 0 | 0 | 4 | 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *f.* 3. |
| Latitat | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 31. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *f.* 2. |
| Leaſe. *See* DEED. | | | | |
| Letters patent, letters of attorney and adminiſtration. *See* BRIEF, COUNTY PALATINE, GRANT, ADMINISTRATION, ATTORNEY. | | | | |
| Letters of mart | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 18. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| Libel and copy thereof pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 36. |
| Licence by an eccleſiaſtical court, or ordinary | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *f.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *f.* 14. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |
| By the preſbytery in Scotland, except to tutors and ſchoolmaſters | 0 | 5 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *f.* 21. |

Licence of marriage exempt from the duties granted by 9 and 10 *Will.*. III. *c.* 25. *f.* 53. Penalties for marrying without licence, or bans in England, 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 35. *f.* 1, 2, 3. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *f.* 176, 177, 178.

Or for being ſo married, 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 35. *f.* 4.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Licence for retailing wine | 0 | 4 | 0 | 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *f.* 23. |
| And where no other licence is taken out | 5 | 0 | 0 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *f.* 1. |
| Where a licence for retailing ale, &c. is taken out | 4 | 0 | 0 | 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *f.* 1. |
| Where a licence for retailing ſpirituous liquors is taken out | 2 | 0 | 0 | 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *f.* 1. |
| For retailing ale, &c. | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *f.* 23. |

Penalties on perſons taking recognizances of ſellers of ale without firſt cauſing ſtamp licences to be made out, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *f.* 56.

Licences for keeping alehouſes on the military roads in Scotland, exempted, 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *f.* 19.

Man-

Mandate. *See* WRIT.
Marriage licence or certificate. *See* LICENCE, CERTIFICATE.
Marſhal court. *See* PROCESS.

| | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Matriculation | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 27. |
| *Monition*, or perſonal decree in the admiralty, or cinque ports. *See* ADMIRALTY. | | | | |
| Monition, or citation in the eccleſiaſtical courts, and copies of them | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 36. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 3. |
| News-papers. *See* PAMPHLETS. | | | | |
| Niſi prius. *See* POSTEA. | | | | |
| Notarial act | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 37. |
| Novodamus in Scotland | 0 | 2 | 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100. |
| Officers at ſea pay the ſame as thoſe at land, 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 6. | | | | 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 36. |
| Orders. *See* RULES. | | | | |
| Original writs. *See* WRITS. | | | | |
| Original inſtruments of ſurrender, or reſignation of hereditable rights; original retour of ſervice of heirs, original ſaiſine; original inſtruments of ſurrender, or reſignation; ſervice or cognition of heirs in Scotland, pay | 0 | 2 | 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100. |
| Palatine. *See* COUNTY. | | | | |
| Pamphlets, and news-papers of half a ſheet or leſs, pay | 0 | 0 | $0\frac{1}{2}$ | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 101. |
| Larger than half, not exceeding one ſheet, pay | 0 | 0 | 1 | 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 14. |
| And | 0 | 0 | $0\frac{1}{2}$ | 3 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. |

Larger than one ſheet and not exceeding ſix in octavo, or twelve in quarto, or twenty in folio, pay two ſhillings for every ſheet in one printed copy, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 101.
Clauſes ſhewing how and under what penalties ſuch papers are to be ſtamped before they are printed, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 104, 105.
And printed copies to be brought to the office and entered, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 111.
And under what penalties, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 112, 113.
Pamphlets unfold, how to be cancelled, and the like number of ſheets ſtamped duty free to be exchanged for them, 10 *Ann. c.* 19, *ſ.* 114.
What news-papers ſhall not be deemed pamphlets, &c. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 13, 14, 15.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pardons of crime, or forfeiture, reprieve, or relaxation from fine, corporal puniſhment, or other forfeiture | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And all but circuit, or Newgate pardons, and every ſuch relaxation, &c. pay the farther ſums of | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 3. 50. |
| And if the relaxation be of a fine, &c. above 100 l. | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |

Parliament (acts of,) proclamations, forms of prayer, acts of ſtate, matters printed by either houſe of parliament, ſchool-books, books of piety, daily bills of goods exported and imported, and bills of mortality, are excepted, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 102.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Paſſport | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 37. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |
| Patents. *See* BRIEF, GRANT. | | | | |
| Phyſicians admittance to the college, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 9. |
| And | 2 | 0 | 0 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |
| Pleadings in law, and copy thereof | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 38, 39. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 9, 10. |
| Pleadings in equity | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 1 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 26. |
| And copies | 0 | 0 | 1 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 8. |

And all pleadings in law and equity are to be writ as uſual, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 15. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 64.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Policy of aſſurance in England, pays | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 37. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |
| And if within the bills of mortality | 0 | 2 | 4 | 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 67, 68. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. |

Clauſes for ſecuring the payment of the duties on policies of aſſurance, 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 71, 72, 73.
Policy to be made out within three days after the aſſurance, on pain of 100 l. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 44.
By *ſtat.* 5 *Geo.* III. *c.* 46. *ſect.* 4, 5. it is enacted, that from and after the fifth of July 1765, where the properties of more than one perſon, &c. in a ſhip or cargo, or both, ſhall be aſſured for upwards of 100 l. in the ſame policy, the policy is void, and the premium remains to the inſurer; and in like manner, in caſe of any additional aſſurance not duly ſtampt; provided any number may be aſſured on one policy, with five ſtamps of five ſhillings each.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Poſtea | 0 | 2 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 2 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 21. |
| Copy thereof | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 | 0 | 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 35. |
| Preſentation, collation, or donation to a benefice above the yearly value of 10 l. in the king's books, pays | 2 | 0 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| Probate of wills, except from common ſeamen or ſoldiers, pays | 0 | 5 | 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3, 6. |
| And | 0 | 5 | 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 19. 144. |

Proceſs. *See* WRIT.
Proctor's admittance. *See* ADMISSION.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Procuration | 0 | 0 | 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| And | 0 0 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 37. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |
| Proteſt | 0 0 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 37. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |

*Quo minus.* *See* WRIT.
Recognizance and Writs. *See* STATUTE.
Regiſter of Degrees. *See* DEGREES.
Rejoinder and Replication. *See* PLEADINGS.
Relaxation. *See* ADMIRALTY, PARDON.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Releaſe inrolled, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. |
| Common releaſes, pay | 0 0 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 37. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |

Reprieve. *See* PARDON.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Rules and orders in courts of Weſtminſter, and copies thereof | 0 0 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III *c.* 35. *ſ.* 34, 35. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 6, 7. |
| Saiſine in Scotland | 0 2 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100. |

Scotch inſtruments are not charged with ſtamp duties previous to the union, 5 *Ann. c.* 8. *Article* 10. 14.
Scotch inſtruments, what to pay, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100.

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|---|---|---|
| Scotch deeds, not charged with 2 s. 3d. pay | 0 0 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |
| Sentence in the eccleſiaſtical courts, and copies thereof, pay | 0 0 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 22. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 36. |

Sentence in the admiralty or cinque-ports. *See* ADMIRALTY.
Sewers proceedings pay nothing, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2, 9. and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 45.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| *Significavit* | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c. ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 5 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 16. |
| Sign manual to any beneficial warrant or order, except warrants or orders for the ſervice of the navy, army, ordinance, pay | 0 2 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 2 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 24. |
| And | 0 2 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |

South-ſea ſecurities, exempt from duties, 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 16. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 30. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 51.
Stannary proceedings exempt from ſtampt duties, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 45.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Statute-ſtaple merchant or recognizance, pay | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3.<br>9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 2. |
| And | 0 5 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 30. |

Proviſoes exempting recognizances before juſtices of peace, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 45.
Subpœna. *See* WRIT.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Surrender of grant, or office, inrolled, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3.<br>9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 52. |

Surrender of copyholds. *See* COPYHOLDS.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Surrender of heretable rights in Scotland, pays | 0 2 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100. |

Teſtimonial. *See* DEGREE.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Transfer of ſtock | 0 2 3 | 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 100. |
| And | 0 4 6 | 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 21. |

Warrant from juſtices of peace pays nothing, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 45.
Wine-licence. *See* LICENCE.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Writ of habeas corpus, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |

But is exempted from further duties, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 31, 56. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Writ of *certiorari*, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 5 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 15. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2. |
| Writ of appeal, except to the delegates, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 5 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 15. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2. |
| Writ of covenant for levying a fine, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |

But is exempt from further duties, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 31, 54. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Writ of entry for ſuffering a common recovery, pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |

But is exempt from further duties, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 31, 55. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Writ of error pays | 0 5 0 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 5 0 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 15. |
| Every other writ original, (except ſuch on which a *capias* iſſues) ſubpœna, bill of Middleſex, *latitat*, *capias*, *quo minus*, *dedimus poteſtatem*, and every other writ, proceſs or mandate of courts holding plea of forty ſhillings, pays | 0 0 6 | 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 31. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 2.<br>9 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 7. |
| And | 0 0 6 | 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 7. |

Writs of covenant, writs of entry, and writs of *habeas corpus* excepted, 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 7.

*Clauſes concerning the officers for the management of the ſtamp duties.*

Such officers how to be ſworn, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 12. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 60, 61. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 42. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 29. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 106, 122. and *c.* 26. *ſ.* 75. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 26. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 9.

And how to account, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 24.

What commiſſioners are to levy the duties granted by the ſeveral ſtatutes, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 48. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 48. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 103, 124. and *c.* 26. *ſ.* 77. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 23, 29. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 4. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 16, 17.

How to obey the orders of the treaſury, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 13. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 62. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 44. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 30. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 170. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 24.

And where to keep their head office, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 181.

How puniſhable for miſapplying or detaining the monies in their hands. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 11. and *c.* 23. *ſ.* 48. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 25.

And how to furniſh all parts of the kingdom with ſtamped vellum, &c. 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 13. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 62. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 35. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 116. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 20.

And how to mark the price ſet by the treaſury on ſtamped vellum, &c. 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 9. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 68. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 36. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 117.

And to ſtamp vellum, &c. without fee on payment of the duties, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 9. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 59.

And what allowance to make for prompt payment, 6 and 7 *Will.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 9. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 7. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 36. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 117. 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 27. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 6.

Judges to make orders at the requeſt of the commiſſioners for the better ſecuring the duties, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 12. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 60.

Such commiſſioners with a comptroller continued for ever, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 43. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 12.

Inſpectors in courts and offices, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 12. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 60.

And other inferior officers to be appointed by the commiſſioners, 5 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 21. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10. *Will.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 48. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 33.

Penalties on perſons hindering ſuch inſpectors from inſpecting books which may diſcover frauds, 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſect.* 28.

And on collectors detaining and miſapplying monies in their hand, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 45. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſect.* 14.

And on commiſſioners not duly paying monies into the exchequer, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 42.

And on officers ſtamping vellum, &c. before the duty is paid, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 10.

Salaries of the officers how to be paid out of the duties, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 22. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 66. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 33. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 5.

*General clauſes relating to and inforcing the payment of ſtamp duties.*

Stamps how to be provided and altered from time to time, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 7. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 36.

Suits of paupers excepted from duties, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 14. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 5.

Probate of wills of ſeamen and ſoldiers excepted, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 6.

And the alteration how to be proclaimed, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 67. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 33. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 110.

And the proclamation judicially taken notice of by the judges, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 180.

Vellum, &c. how to be marked with ſuch ſtamps, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 9. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 49. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 36. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 25.

And how on the alteration of the ſtamp, the parties that have vellum, &c. marked with the old ſtamp, are to be ſupplied with vellum, &c. ſtamped with a new ſtamp, without fee, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 16. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 65. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 32. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 109. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 8.

Inſtruments written on paper not duly ſtamped, ſhall be of no avail in law till ſtamped, and the penalties paid, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 11. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 59. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 27. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 105. and *c.* 26. *ſ.* 71. 12 *Ann. ſ.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 25. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 8.

Inſtruments and writing, charged with ſtamp duties, ſhall be writ as uſual, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 15. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 64.

Several matters charged ſeverally by 12 *Ann.* written on one piece of paper, &c. ſhall be charged ſeverally, 12 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 24.

Penalties on perſons writing inſtruments on paper, &c. not ſtamped, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 11. 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 7, 8. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 59. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 27. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *ſ.* 11. 12 *Ann. ſ.* 2. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 25. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 8.

Or writing a new inſtrument, &c. on ſtamp paper, &c. whereon a former was before written, or tearing off a mark from one writing with an intent to uſe it on another, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 2.

Or on putting ſome part of the writing charged with ſtamp duties either on, or as near the ſtamps as may be, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 5.

And on officers neglecting to enter or file actions, plaints, bails, appearances, admiſſions, or other proceedings, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 1, 3. 5 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 29.

Penalty of five pounds for ſelling unſtamped cards or dice, or uſing them in gaming houſes, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 162

Penalty on defacing the ſtamp on cards, and new ſpotting dice, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 55.

Penalty on not making out ale licences duly ſtamped, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 56. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 12.

Penalties in the ſtamp acts to relate to ſubſequent duties, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 56.

The day of ſuing out a writ ſhall be indorſed on the warrant, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 54.

Penalty on making inſurance without ſtamps, 11 *Geo* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 44.

Hawkers of unſtamped news papers to be ſent to the houſe of correction, 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 5.

Penalties how to be diſpoſed of, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 6. 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 37. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 119.

How to be mitigated by juſtices of peace, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 120, 173.

Proceedings before ſuch juſtices not to be ſuperſeded by *certiorari*, 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 174.

Proviſoes in favour of paupers, 5 *W.* and *M. c* 21. *ſ.* 14. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 63. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 7.

And of thoſe that write things without ſtamp on a book or roll licenſed by the commiſſioners, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 4.

Counterfeiting ſtamps or procuring paper to be marked with counterfeit ſtamps, &c. where felony, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 11. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ* 59. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 41. 9 *Ann. c.* 25. *ſ.* 34. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 115. and *c.* 26. *ſ.* 72. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 60. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 21. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 5. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 27. 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 17.

Stamp duties not to extend to licences by commiſſioners of excife, 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 25.

*Clauſes for the ſecurity of thoſe who advanced money on the credit of the ſtamp duties*

Such creditors how to be paid, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 17. &c. 8 and 9 *W.* III. *c.* 20. *ſ.* 12, 13. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 46, 47, 48. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15.

Stamp duties how appropriated, 9 *Ann. c.* 23. *ſ.* 54. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 125. 30 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 31.

Diſtinct accounts how to be kept of the payments, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 18, 19. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 40, 44. 5 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 7, 13, 14. 8 *Ann. c.* 9. *ſ.* 34. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 9, 10, 13. and *c.* 23. *ſ.* 31. 10 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 108. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 11. And regiſtered, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 21. *ſ.* 19. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 44. *ſ.* 44.

And paſſed annually, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 8.

And the arrears ſet *inſuper* on the parties chargeable therewith, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 9.

But not on any perſon not duly charged, on pain of treble damages, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 11.

The ſtock of paper and vellum, &c. to be ſet on the foot of the account, 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 2. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 10.

Clauſes concerning the continuance of ſtamp-duties, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Ann. ſtat.* 1. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 11, 12. 5 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 3, 4. 6 *Ann. c.* 5. *ſ.* 4, 6. and *c.* 17. *ſ.* 6.

And declaring them to be redeemable by parliament, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 47. and *c.* 44. *ſ.* 79. 6 *Ann. c.* 17. *ſ.* 6. 9 *Ann. c.* 21. *ſ.* 24.

STANDARD, in the general ſignification, is an enſign in war. And it is uſed for the ſtanding meaſure of the king, to the ſcantling whereof all the meaſures in the land are or ought to be framed, by the clerks of markets, aulnagers, or other officers, according to Magna Charta, and divers other ſtatutes: and it is not without good reaſon called a ſtandard, becauſe it ſtandeth conſtant and immoveable, having

having all measures coming toward it for their conformity. There is a standard of money, directing what quantity of fine silver and gold, and how much alloy, are to be contained in coin of old sterling, &c. and standard of plate, and silver manufactures. *Sat.* 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 17. *See* ALLOY, GOLD.

STANGATE CREEK. *See* BILLS *of Health.*

STANNARIES, signifies the mines and works where this metal is digged and purified: as in Cornwall, and other places. The liberties of the stannery-men granted by Ed. I. were abridged by the statute 50 Ed. III. And further, for the liberty of the stannery-courts, *see* 16 *Car.* I. *c.* 15. Of which courts there are four in Devon, and four in Cornwall. Labourers in the stanneries may recover their wages before justices of the peace. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 6.

STAPLE, comes from the *Fr. Estape*, i. e. *forum vinarium*, a market or staple for wines, which are the principal commodity of France; or rather from the *Germ. stapulen*, which signifieth to gather, or heap any thing together: in an old French book it is written *A Calais y avoit estape de la laine*, &c. i. e. the staple for wool: and with us it hath been a public mart appointed by law to be kept at the following places, viz. Westminster, York, Lincoln, Newcastle, Norwich, Canterbury, Winchester, Exeter, and Bristol, &c. A staple court is held at the wool staple, the bounds whereof begin at Temple Bar, and reach to Tuthill; in other cities and towns, the bounds are within the walls; and where there are no walls, they extend through all the towns; and the court of the mayor of the staple is governed by the law merchant in a summary way, which is the law of the staple. 4 *Inst.* 235. *See Stat.* 27 *Edw.* III.

The staple goods of England are wool, woolfells, leather, lead, tin, cloth, butter, cheese, &c. as appears by the statute 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 1. though some allow only the five first; and yet of late staple goods are generally understood to be such as are vendible, and not subject to perish, of any kind.

All staples suppressed, 2 *Ed.* III. *c.* 9. The stat. of the staple, 27 *Ed.* III. *stat.* 2.

Staples established in England, 27 *Ed.* III. *stat.* 2. *c.* 1. 38 *Ed.* III. *st.* 1. *c.* 7.

None of the king's subjects to export merchandise of the staple, on pain of death, 27 *Ed.* III. *stat.* 2. *c.* 3.

The staples to be governed by the law merchants, 27 *Ed.* III. *st.* 2. *c.* 8 and 19.

Writ of error of the judgments in the staple, 27 *H.* VI. *c.* 2.

The penalties in the ordinance of the staple not to incur till they are declared in parliament, 28 *Ed.* III. *c.* 13.

Justices to enquire of defaults against the ordinance of the staple, 31 *Ed.* III. *st.* 1. *c.* 7.

The jurisdiction of the mayor regulated, 31 *Ed.* III. *st.* 4. *c.* 9. 36 *Ed.* III. *c.* 7.

The staples removed from Calais and Middleburgh to England, 43 *Ed.* III. *c.* 1. 14 *Rich.* II. *c.* 1.

To be appointed in certain in parliament, 46 *Ed.* III.

Licence to export staple goods, 5 *Rich.* II. *st.* 2. *c.* 2.

Removed from Middleburgh to Calais, 12 *R.* II. *c.* 16.

Officers of the staple shall be sworn to the king, 14 *R.* II. *c.* 3.

Justices of the peace shall enquire of the weights of the staple, 14 *R.* II. *c.* 4.

No denizen shall export merchandizes of the staple, 14 *R.* II. *c.* 5.

The mayor, with the presence of one of the constables, may take recognizances, 15 *R.* II. *c.* 9.

No licence to be granted for export of staple goods to any place but Calais, 21 *R.* II. *c.* 17. 14 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 2. 27 *H.* VI. *c.* 2.

Ships to ballast with stones for the repair of Calais, 21 *R.* II. *c.* 18.

No staple goods to be exported to any place but Calais without licence, 2 *H.* V. *st.* 2. *c.* 6. 2 *H.* VI. *c.* 4 and 5. 10 *H.* VI. *c.* 7. except by merchants of Genoa, &c. 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 17, 19, 20.

All merchants may ship goods at Melcombe, for the staple at Calais, 6 *H.* VI. *c.* 6.

Merchants reforting to Norway, shall go to the Danish staple at North Bergen, 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 2. repealed 1 *H.* 8. *c.* 1.

Regulations of the staple, 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 18, 25.

Licences granted to the men of Newcastle and Berwick, to carry wool to other ports, repealed, 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 21.

Certain duties of moorage for the repairs of the works at Calais, 10 *H.* VI. *c.* 5.

Shipping staple goods in creeks, made felony, 11 *H.* VI. *c.* 14. goods laid on land to be so shipped, forfeited, 14 *H.* VI. *c.* 5.

Staple goods shall be shipped at the keys in the ports assigned, 15 *H.* VI. *c.* 8.

Exporting wools and fells elsewhere than to Calais, felony, 18 *H.* VI. *c.* 15.

Staple goods carried to other places by licence shall pay the same duties, 20 *H.* VI. *c.* 4.

Proportions of the price of staple goods to be coined, 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 18. 11 *H.* VI. *c.* 13. 14 *H.* VI. *c.* 2. 20 *H.* VI. *c.* 12.

The annual amount of the customs of the staple at Calais, 27 *H.* VI. *c.* 2.

Protections shall not be allowed in the courts at Calais, 1 *H.* VII. *c.* 3.

The officers of the staple prohibited from taking recognizance of any debts but of staple, 23 *H.* VIII. *c.* 6. *f.* 11. *See* STATUE STAPLE.

STARCH, a fecula or sediment, found at the bottom of vessels wherein wheat has been steeped in water, of which fecula, after the bran is separated from it, by passing through sieves, they form a kind of loaves, which being dried in the sun, or an oven, is afterwards broke in little pieces, and so sold.

The best is white, soft, and friable, easily broke into powder. Such as require very fine starch, do not content themselves like the starchmen with refuse wheat, but use the finest grain. The process is as follows.

*Method of making* STARCH *of wheat.* The grain, being well cleaned, is put to ferment in vessels full of water, which they expose to the sun when in its greatest heat, changing the water twice a day, for the space of eight or twelve days, according to the season. When the grain bursts easily under the finger, they judge it sufficiently fermented. The fermentation perfected, and the grain thus softened, it is put handful by handful into a canvas bag, to separate the flower from the husks, which is done by rubbing and beating it on a plank, laid across the mouth of the empty vessel that is to receive the flour.

As the vessels are filled with this liquid flour, there is seen swimming a-top a reddish water, which is carefully to be scummed off from time to time, and clean water put in its place; which, after stirring the whole together, is all to be strained through a cloth or sieve, and what is left behind put into the vessel with new water, and exposed to the sun for some time; and, as the sediment thickens at the bottom, they drain off the water four or five times, by inclining the vessel, but without passing it through the sieve; what remains at bottom is the starch, which they cut in pieces to get out, and leave it to dry in the sun; when dry, it is laid up for use.

STARCH *British*, for the drawback and regulations on exportation. *See* DRAWBACK.

Shipped for exportation, and afterwards relanded, is forfeited, or the value, besides the penalty of the bond. 10 *Ann. c.* 26. *f.* 26.

Or hair powder, found in any ship, waggon, &c. is seizable by officers of excise or customs, upon suspicion of its having been privately made, or clandestinely imported, or exported and relanded again after the duty hath been repaid. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *f.* 3.

Within ten days after seizure, the officer is to exhibit an information before three commissioners of excise, or two justices of the peace. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *f.* 3.

Upon information, the person in whose possession it is found, must make it appear that the duty hath been paid for the same, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the goods, with horses and package containing the same, and five pounds for every hundred weight; and the commissioners or justices are to proceed to give judgment accordingly. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *f.* 3.

Suspected to be privately making or concealed, may be searched for by the officers of excise or customs by day or by night (but if by night, in the presence of a constable or other peace-officer) by warrant from the commissioners of excise, or a justice of the peace. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *f.* 4.



Found

found privately making or concealed, is forfeited, with all materials and things in which it is contained, and the perſon privately making, or in whoſe poſſeſſion it is found, upon failure of proof that the duty has been paid, forfeits fifty pounds; and for obſtructing the officers fifty pounds. 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 4.

STARCH-MAKER. This buſineſs requires no great ingenuity or learning. Starch is moſtly made in the country; but there are ſeveral who make prodigious quantities within the bills of mortality. This buſineſs is chiefly managed by labourers, who have from nine to fifteen ſhillings a week; and therefore it is not prudent to put a boy apprentice to it, unleſs he has a good proſpect of becoming maſter; which will require between five hundred and a thouſand pounds.

STATIONER. This term was originally applied ſolely to the bookſellers; who, before the uſe of printing, had their ſtations or ſtalls for the felling of manuſcripts: but the buſineſs of the ſtationer is now confined to thoſe who deal in unprinted paper. It requires no great abilities, nor any other education but writing a good hand, and the knowledge of arithmetic. The wholeſale ſtationers generally deal in nothing but paper, and either have mills, which they let out to the paper-makers, whom they keep conſtantly employed, or contract with paper-makers for what they want. This paper they ſell by wholeſale to the bookſellers, authors, printers, and others.

There are others who join the buſineſs of vellum-binder to that of the ſtationer, and ſell paper both by wholeſale and retail. Theſe alſo ſell all ſorts of ſhop-books, bound in parchment or vellum, either ruled or unruled; pocket-books, copy-books, memorandum-books, letter-caſes, pens, ink, wafers, ſealing-wax, ink glaſſes, ink-ſtandiſhes, pounce-boxes, with all the apparatus of writing.

The wholeſale ſtationer takes fifty or a hundred guineas with an apprentice; and thoſe only in the retail way about twenty pounds. The former give from twenty to fifty pounds a year to a journeyman beſides his board; but the latter ſeldom keep journeymen. In ſhort, the wholeſale ſtationer cannot ſet up with leſs than one thouſand pounds; but he who deals only in the retail way, may ſet up with fifty pounds.

STATUARY, *Statuaria*, a branch of ſculpture employed in the making of ſtatues.

Statuary is one of thoſe arts wherein the ancients ſurpaſſed the moderns: indeed it was much more popular, and more cultivated among the former than the latter. *See* SCULPTURE.

Statuary is alſo uſed for the artificer who makes ſtatues. Phidias was the greateſt ſtatuary among the ancients, and Michael Angelo among the moderns.

The ſtatuary and ſculptor are generally joined together; as the ſame perſon cuts figures in relief, and forms ſtatues. The youth deſigned for this buſineſs ought to have a natural genius for theſe fine arts, which ſhould be cultivated by his being early put to the beſt maſters in drawing; and to improve his taſte he ſhould have a liberal education. Among the languages, Italian ought to be his chief ſtudy, as he muſt perfect himſelf in Italy: for when he has ſerved his time to the moſt eminent ſtatuary here, it may be for his advantage to ſpend two or three years at the academies in Rome or Venice; and to viſit the cloſets of the curious: but this is now leſs neceſſary than it was ſome years ago; as we have two or three artiſts in this way who are an honour to their country: however, the youth of true genius will ſpare no labour to obtain the higheſt degree of perfection.

The maſter ſtatuary firſt draws his deſign upon paper, and from thence forms a model of clay or wax, from whence the workman blocks out the figure in ſtone or marble; and the maſter, or the fineſt hand in the houſe, finiſhes the principal parts of the work, and the inferior workmen the reſt. The maſters take one hundred guineas and upwards with an apprentice; but there are ſome who ſcarcely deſerve the name of ſtatuaries, who take an apprentice with only ten pounds. The journeymen are encouraged according to their abilities; a fine hand being paid from forty ſhillings to three pounds a week; and it will require from two hundred to two thouſand puunds to ſet up maſter.

There are ſtatuaries who caſt only in metal; they have a model of clay, made with all the proportions of the deſigned figure; from this model the mould is made, into which they run the metal. The metal figures are not however caſt all at once, but in different parts; the trunk of the body in one part, and the limbs in another; all which are afterwards ſoldered together.

STATUTE STAPLE, is a bond of record, acknowledged before the mayor of the ſtaple, in the preſence of all or one of the conſtables: to this end, ſays the ſtatute, there ſhall be a ſeal ordained, which ſhall be affixed to all obligations made on ſuch recognizances acknowledged in the ſtaple; this ſeal of the ſtaple is the only ſeal the ſtatute requires to atteſt this contract; but it is no more under the power or diſpoſal of the mayor, than that appointed by the ſtatute merchant; for though the ſtatute appoints him the cuſtody of it, yet it is in ſuch a manner that he cannot affix it to any obligation without their conſent, it being to remain in the mayor's hands, under the ſecurity of their own ſeals. 2 *Rol. Abr.* 446. *Stat.* 27 *Ed.* III. *c.* 9.

To underſtand a little of the original and conſtitution of the ſtaple, and the advantage the nation had by this eſtabliſhment, we muſt obſerve, that the place of reſidence, whither the merchants reſorted with their ſtaple commodities, was antiently called Eſtaple, which ſignifies no more than mart or market; and this was formerly appointed out of the realm, as at Calais, Antwerp, &c. and other ports on the continent, which were neareſt to us, and whither the merchants might with ſafety coaſt it. 4 *Inſt.* 238.

But beſides theſe ſtaple ports appointed abroad, there were others appointed at home, whither all the ſtaple commodities were carried in order to their exportation, ſuch as London, Weſtminſter, Hull, &c. this was found to be of great uſe and conſequence to the prince in particular, and to the intereſt and credit of the nation in general; for at all theſe ſtaple ports were the king's cuſtoms eaſily collected, and were by the officers of the ſtaple, at two ſeveral payments, returned into the exchequer; beſides, at theſe ſtaples, all merchants goods were carefully viewed and marked by the proper officers of the ſtaple; and this neceſſarily avoided the exportation of decayed goods, or ill wrought manufactures, and conſequently fixed a ſtamp of credit on the merchandizes exported, which, upon the view always anſwered the exportation of the buyer. *Malines's Lex. Mer.* 337, 338. *See* 27 *Ed. c.* 1.

The ſtaple merchandizes, according to lord Coke, are only wool, wool-fells, leather, lead and tin; others butter, cheeſe, and cloths; but whatever they were, the mayor and conſtables had not only connuſance of all contracts and debts relating to them, but they had likewiſe juriſdiction over the people, and all manner of things touching the ſtaple; this power was given them, leſt the merchants ſhould be diverted and drawn from their buſineſs and trade, by applying to the common law, and running through the tedious forms of it, for a determination of their differences, and for the greater encouragement of merchants, that they might have all imaginable ſecurity in their contracts and dealings, and the moſt expeditious method of recovering their debts, without going out of the bounds of the ſtaple. 4 *Inſt.* 238. *Malines's Lex. Mer.* 337. 27 *Ed.* III. *c.* 8.

By this it appears, that this ſecurity was only deſigned for the merchants of the ſtaple, and for debts only on the ſale of merchandizes brought thither; yet in time, others began to apply it to their own ends, and the mayor and conſtables would take recognizances from ſtrangers, ſurmizing it was made for the payment of money for merchandizes brought to the ſtaple; to prevent this miſchief, the parliament in 23 *Hen.* VIII. reduced the ſtatute ſtaple to its former channel, and laid a penalty of forty pounds on the mayor and conſtables who ſhould extend the benefit of the ſtatute to any but thoſe of the ſtaple; but though the ſtatute of 23 *Hen.* VIII. deprived them of this benefit, yet it framed a new ſort of ſecurity, to be uſed *ad libitum* by all men, known by the name of a recognizance on 25 *Hen.* VIII. or a recognizance in the nature of a ſtatute ſtaple, ſo called, becauſe this act limits and appoints the ſame proceſs, execution, and advantage, in every particular, as is ſet down in the ſtatute ſtaple. *Co. Lit.* 290.

A recognizance therefore in nature of a ſtatute ſtaple, as the words of the act declare, is the ſame with the former, only acknowledged under other perſons; for as the ſtatute runs, the chief juſtices of the King's-bench and Common-pleas, or in their abſence, out of term, the mayor of the ſtaple at Weſtminſter, and the recorder of London jointly together, ſhall have power to take recognizances for payment of debt in the form ſet down in the ſtatute; in this, as in the former caſes, the king appoints a ſeal to atteſt the contract, which the ſaid juſtices ſhall have the keeping of, and the ſaid mayor and recorder, another of the ſame print and faſhion; and every obligation made and acknowledged before either of the juſtices, or the mayor and recorder, muſt be ſealed with the ſeal of the conuſor, with the king's ſeal, and with the ſeal of the chief juſtice, or the mayor and recorder before whom it is taken, who are likewiſe obliged to ſubſcribe their names; beſides this, the clerk of the recognizance, (who is appointed for this purpoſe by the king) or his deputy, ſhall make and write all obligations thus acknowledged, and inroll them in two ſeveral rolls indented, one whereof ſhall remain with ſuch of ſuch juſtices, or with the mayor and recorder that takes the recognizance, and the other with the clerk, who is farther obliged, at the requeſt of the conuſee, his executors or adminiſtrators, to certify ſuch obligation into chancery under his ſeal. *Co. Lit.* 290. a. 4 *Inſt.* 238. 2 *Roll. Abr.* 466. *Ca. Ent.* 12.

STAVANGER, a very poor place in Norway, moſtly inhabited by ſhip-maſters, who are chiefly employed in carrying fiſh from Bergen and the adjacent ports, coaſtwiſe, and ſome ſmall matter to the Belt.

STAY-MAKER. This buſineſs requires ſome genius, but no extraordinary education. The boy who is to be put apprentice to a ſtay-maker ought however to be naturally polite, to be poſſeſſed of a tolerable aſſurance, and eaſy addreſs, and the power of keeping ſecret thoſe defects which it is frequently his buſineſs to conceal, by bolſtering up a fallen hip, or diſtorted ſhoulder. The materials in ſtays are tabby, canvaſs, and whalebone. The ſtay-maker takes the lady's ſhape, if it be a fine one, as nicely as he can; and where it is uneven or deformed, endeavours to conceal every defect; he cuts out the tabby and canvaſs by the ſhape in quarters, which are given out to be ſtitched by women, who are able to earn only five or ſix ſhillings a week. After this, having prepared the whalebone, he thruſts it between the rows of ſtitching, which requires a good deal of ſtrength, and is the niceſt part of ſtay-making. The ſtays being boned are looſely ſewed together, and fitted on the lady, when, if they anſwer according to expectation, they are bound, the braiding laid along the ſeams, the lacing put down the ſtomacher, and finiſhed ſo as to be fit for the lady's uſe. The maſters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will have the common wages of a taylor, by working as a journeyman; or, if he has fifty or ſixty pounds, he may ſet up for himſelf.

STEEL, a kind of iron refined, and purified by the fire with other ingredients, which renders it whiter, and its grain cloſer and finer than common iron.

Steel, of all other metals, is ſuſceptible of the greateſt degree of hardneſs, when well tempered; whence its great uſe in the making of tools and inſtruments of all kinds.

The method of making ſteel has been uſually kept as a ſecret; and at preſent there are but very few ſteel-makers in England. The ancient method was, to keep ſlender bars of iron ignited, for ſeveral hours, in a melted mixture of iron and vitreſcible ſand; then taking out the bars, and forging them, and immediately plunging them, whilſt hot, into cold water: afterwards forging them again, till they would eaſily ſnap, and appear white, and of a cloſe texture, or ſteel-grain, when broke.

The preſent method is, to ſtratify a large number of ſlender iron bars with powdered charcoal, and fill a furnace with them, in the form of a long cheſt; then keeping up a ſtrong fire, but ſo as not to melt the iron, for two or three days together. And thus the bars are at length, when the furnace is cold, taken out, unaltered in their external form: but they may be bliſtered according to the pleaſure of the operator, by uſing quicklime along with the powdered charcoal.

The whole ſecret of making ſteel ſeems to depend upon excluding the air from the iron to be wrought upon; accordingly if a large ball of iron be kept ſo hot, for ſome time, that its external ſurface ſhall melt and run like water, the internal part of the ball will at the ſame time be converted into true ſteel. And hence appears the true reaſon why certain knots, or ſpindles of iron, are ſometimes found, in the middle of caſt work, ſo hard that no tool will touch them. The art of caſe-hardening is a leſs degree of ſteel-making, and practiſed by baking razors, files, knife-blades, &c. in a kind of oven, ſtratified with powdered charcoal, hoofs, horns, and the like, ſo as to exclude the air; and thus, by baking, to give a coat of ſteel to inſtruments ſome depths below their ſurface.

STEELYARD, *or* STILYARD, in mechanics, a kind of balance, called alſo *ſtatera Romana*, or the Roman balance, by means whereof, the gravity of different bodies is found by the uſe of one ſingle weight. *See* BALANCE.

*Spring* STEELYARD, is a kind of portable balance, ſerving to weigh any matter from about one to forty pounds.

It is compoſed of a braſs tube, into which goes a rod; about this is wound a ſpring of tempered ſteel in a ſpiral form. Over this rod are the diviſions of pounds, and parts of pounds, which are made by ſucceſſively hanging on to a hook, faſtened to the other end, one, two, three, four, &c. pounds.

Now, the ſpring being faſtened by a ſcrew to the bottom of the rod, the greater weight is hung on the hook, the more will the ſpring be contracted, and conſequently a greater part of the rod will come out of the tube; the proportion of which greater weights are indicated by the figures appearing againſt the extremity of the tube.

STEERAGE, the act of ſteering. The word is alſo uſed for a place in ſhips under the quarter deck, and only parted from the great cabbin by a bulk-head.

STEERING, in navigation, the directing a veſſel from one place to another by means of a helm and rudder.

STERLING was and is the epithet for ſilver money current within this realm; and took its name from this, that there was a pure coin ſtamped firſt in England by the Eaſterlings, or merchants of Eaſt-Germany, by the command of king John, and accordingly Roger Hoveden *parte poſter. ſuor. annal. fol.* 377. writes it Eſterling. *See* the ſtatute of purveyors, *c.* 13. By the ſtatute 31 Ed. I. the penny which is called the ſterling, round, and without clipping, weighs thirty-two grains of wheat, well dried, and twenty pence make an ounce, twelve ounces a pound, and eight pounds a gallon of wine, and eight gallons a buſhel, which is the eighth part of a quarter. 17 *Ed.* II. *c.* 19. The word is not yet out of uſe; for though we ordinarily ſay lawful money of England, yet in the mint, and the like, they ſay ſterling money. When it was found convenient in the fabrication of monies, to have a certain quantity or proportion of baſer metal to be mixed with the pure gold and ſilver, the word Sterling or Eſterling was then introduced, and has ever ſince been uſed to denote the certain proportion or degree of fineneſs, which ought to be retained in the reſpective coins.

STETIN, which is the capital of Lower Germany, has the greateſt ſhare of the trade of it, although it has other ports, as Stralſund, Wolgaſt, and Colberg (this laſt in the territories of his Pruſſian majeſty) where ſome is tranſacted, yet but little in compariſon with that of the firſt mentioned city; which is ſeated on the four branches of the river Oder that preſerves its name, and which falls into the Baltick about eight or ten miles from it. Ships cannot go up to the city, but are generally unloaded at Stenwert, or Wolgaſt, from whence the goods are carried in boats.

At Stetin are to be met with, not only the products of Pomerania, but alſo thoſe of Sileſia, and the marquiſate of Brandenburg, brought there by the Oder, which partly croſſes them, and conſiſt chiefly in grain, ſhips maſts, wood, hides, coarſe wools, honey, flax, and Sileſia linens: their imports are, ſpice, ſilks, woollens, a large quantity of ſugar, many herrings, twelve to fifteen hundred laſts of French ſalt, a few wines, leſs brandies, and (as elſewhere) a good fund of rixdollars. *See* POMERANIA.

STEWARD of a ſhip, is a perſon in ſubordination to the purſer, who is entruſted with all his affairs, in regard to the ſhip, and iſſues daily the proviſions to the crew. His place

of abode is the ſteward-room,' which is in the orlop, and joins to the bread-room and gunners ſtore-room.

STILE. *See* BILLS *of Exchange*, BISSEXTILE, CALENDAR.

STIRLING, *or* STRIVELING, is very fertile both in corn and graſs, which feeds and fattens large flocks of ſheep and black cattle. Its rivers very plentifully ſupply it with ſalmon, as its mines do with peat and coals; at Stirling there is a very conſiderable manufacture of ſerges and ſhalloons, which in make and dye are very good, and proves a great ſupport to the poor people employed in it, as they are thereby enabled to live very comfortably.

STOCKHOLM. *See* SWEDEN.

STOCKINGS. That part of the clothing of the leg and foot which immediately covers their nudity, and ſcreens them from the cold.

Anciently, the only ſtockings in uſe were made of cloth or milled ſtuff ſewed together; but ſince the invention of knitting and weaving ſtockings of ſilk, wool, cotton, thread, &c. the uſe of cloth ſtockings is quite out of doors.

The modern ſtockings, whether wove or knit, are a kind of plexus's formed of an infinite number of little knots, called ſtitches, loops, or maſhes, intermingled in one another.

Knit ſtockings are wrought with needles made of poliſhed iron, or braſs wire, which interweave the threads, and form the maſhes the ſtocking conſiſts of.

This operation is called knitting; the invention whereof it were difficult to fix preciſely, though it is attributed to the Scots on this ground, that the firſt works of that kind came from thence. It was added, that it was on this account, that the company of ſtocking-knitters, eſtabliſhed at Paris, 1527, took their patron St. Fiacre, who is ſaid to be the ſon of a king of Scotland.

*Woven* STOCKINGS, are ordinarily very fine. They are manufactured on a frame made of poliſhed iron; the ſtructure of which is very ingenious, but, withal, exceeding complex, ſo that it is very difficult to deſcribe it well, by reaſon of the number and diverſity of its parts; nor is it even conceived without much difficulty, when working before the face.

The Engliſh and French have greatly conteſted the invention of the ſtocking-loom: but, waving all national prejudices, the fact ſeems, that a Frenchman firſt invented this uſeful and ſurpriſing machine; who, finding ſome difficulties in procuring an excluſive privilege, which he required to ſettle himſelf in Paris, came over into England, where his machine was admired, and the workman rewarded according to his merit.

The invention thus imparted to the Engliſh, they became ſo jealous hereof, that for a long time it was forbid, under pain of death, to carry any of the machines out of the iſland, or communicate a model thereof to foreigners. But as it was a Frenchman firſt enriched our nation with it, ſo a Frenchman firſt carried it abroad, and by an extraordinary effort of memory and imagination, made a loom at Paris, on the idea he had formed thereof in a voyage he had made to England. This loom firſt ſet up in 1656, has ſerved for a model of all thoſe ſince made in France, Holland, &c. *See* FRAME, SILK.

STOCKING-FRAME-MAKER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs requires no extraordinary learning. It is an ingenious branch of the ſmithery; but the greateſt difficulty is in tempering the large ſprings upon which the work moves, and making the ſtock needles, which ought alſo to be properly tempered. It is very profitable to the maſter, who takes about ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have the common wages of a ſmith, by working as a journeyman; or with ſomewhat leſs than one hundred pounds, he may ſet up maſter.

STOCKING-WEAVER. This is a buſineſs that requires ſome ingenuity; but no great ſtrength, nor is any education neceſſary, beſides that proper for all tradeſmen. The principal things the apprentice has to learn, is to know how to mark a clock, or point on a ſheet of point-paper, to repreſent it properly on the ſtocking, and to rectify any little diſorders that may happen to that curious engine the ſtocking-frame. The workmen are paid for every pair of ſtockings, according to the materials of which they are made, and their degree of fineneſs. The maſters work for the hoſiers, who commonly furniſh the worſted, or thread; and take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, if capable of making the beſt ſilk or cotton hoſe, will be able to earn from twelve to eighteen ſhillings a week; out of which he muſt pay the maſter one ſhilling and ſix-pence a week for the uſe of his frame: but if he is only able to make coarſe worſted ſtockings, he will not get with the cloſeſt application above nine or ten ſhillings a week, out of which he muſt pay for the uſe of his frame. However, if a perſon buys a frame, he may ſave this deduction from the price of his labour; and if he can purchaſe a ſmall number of them, which will coſt him about fifteen pounds each, he may employ journeymen, and have all the profits of a maſter.

STOCKING-TRIMMER *and* PRESSER. This buſineſs requires neither ingenuity, ſtrength, nor learning. He receives the hoſe after they are ſeamed, legs them, and fits them for the ſhop. He takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, with a little money, may eaſily ſet up for himſelf.

STOCK-JOBBING *and* STOCKS. Contracts relating to ſtocks where made void, and the premium to be reſtored. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 1, 10, 11. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. Bills for diſcovery of ſuch contracts, &c. how to be anſwered. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 2.

And the plaintiff to give ſecurity to anſwer coſts. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 3.

Stocks ſold for a certain day, and not paid for according to agreement, may be ſold to any other perſon, and the ſeller recover damages. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 6.

And the buyer may purchaſe the like quantity, where the ſeller refuſeth to transfer the ſtock ſold, and ſhall recover damages. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 7.

Penalties on perſons ſelling ſtock which they are not poſſeſſed of, and on brokers negociating ſuch contracts. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 8.

Or not entring contracts. 7 *Geo.* II. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 9. *See* INSURANCE.

STONE *of* WOOL ought to weigh fourteen pounds; yet in ſome places it is more; and in others it is but twelve and a half. A ſtone of wax is but eight pounds, nor is the ſtone of beef at London any more.

STORAX. There are two kinds of ſolid ſtorax in the ſhops: the one is called ſtorax in the cane; and the other red ſtorax. The firſt is a ſolid, reſinous ſubſtance, compoſed of white reddiſh grains, of a warm and not ungrateful taſte, and of a moſt fragrant ſmell. This eaſily melts in the fire, and readily catches flame. It was formerly brought from Pamphilia, incloſed in reeds, from whence it had its name.

The red ſtorax, or ſtorax in the lump, is a concrete reſinous ſubſtance, of a yellowiſh red or browniſh colour, ſometimes interſperſed with white grains, reſembling in ſmell and taſte the former ſtorax. Of this ſort there has been ſome lately to be met with in the ſhops, under the name of ſtorax in the tear.

There is ſtill another ſubſtance called ſtorax, of a red colour, and an agreeable ſmell, much like the foregoing. This is manifeſtly compoſed of ſome kind of wood raſped into a coarſe powder, and mixed up, probably, with ſome of the foregoing ſtorax ſoftened by art.

There are two kinds alſo of liquid ſtorax mentioned in authors. The firſt is a ſoft, reſinous, grey-coloured ſubſtance, ſuppoſed to be compounded of ſtorax, reſin, oil, and wine, beat up together, with water, into a proper conſiſtence. The other is the juice of a tree, called by the Turks and Perſians, cotter-mallos, which grows in the iſland Cobros in the Red-Sea; the makers of this commodity yearly clear off the bark of the tree, and boil it in ſea-water, to the conſiſtence of bird-lime; then repeating the decoction, ſtrain it from the powdered bark, and ſend it to Mocca: but this kind is rarely found among us.

Storax is both an excellent pectoral and cephalic. It mightily thickens and ſoftens ſharp rheums, and cures the coughs and irritations thence ariſing. It is good in almoſt all diſtempers of the breaſt, and makes a very good ingredient in apozems, if care be taken to boil them in a cloſe veſſel, for it gives an agreeable flavour, and very much conduces in all ſuch intentions. A ſyrup may be made of it

it not at all inferior to that of the balſam of Tolu, if not better; becauſe its parts ſeem not quite ſo ſubtile and volatile, and therefore will not be ſo much waſted in boiling. There is a compound ſtill in the college diſpenſatory, which is pretty much uſed in the ſhops that takes its name from it. This is frequently uſed too among cardiacs and alexipharmics, and is, therefore, in moſt of the capital medicines. It certainly warms and ſtrengthens the ſtomach, and contributes to perſpiration. It is likewiſe uſed in ſome uterine diſtempers both inwardly and outwardly in ſuffumigations; in which caſes it is ſaid to be a great reſtorative and ſtrengthener.

STORES *of* WAR. Embezzling ſtores of war to twenty ſhillings made felony. 31 *Eliz. c.* 4.

Penalties of embezzling naval ſtores. 16 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. 19 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 23. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 3.

Penalty of having ſtores with the king's mark. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 41. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 3.

Not to hinder the lending ſtores to any merchant ſhip in diſtreſs. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 8.

Treaſurers, &c. may ſearch ſhips. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 5.

Commiſſioners of the navy, &c. may commit perſons counterfeiting their hands. 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 6.

Encouragement for raiſing naval ſtores in the plantations. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 10. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 30. And in Scotland. 12 *Ann. ſt.* 1. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 2. 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. 2 *Geo.* 2. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 12.

Plantation pitch and tar to be clean. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 16. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 2. 25 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 3.

Juſtices may mitigate the penalty of concealing ſtores, or cauſe offenders to be whipped. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 4.

Juſtices of aſſize and quarter-ſeſſions may hear and determine offences relating to ſtores. 17 *Geo.* II. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 10.

Pre-emption of ſtores imported in neutral ſhips, given to the commiſſioners of the navy, during the war. 19 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36.

Embezzling ſtores, &c. excepted out of general pardon. 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 32.

No bounty ſhall be paid on any tar, acording to 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. unleſs each barrel contain thirty-one gallons and one half. 33 *Geo.* II. *c.* 35. *ſ.* 3.

Encouragement for the importation of naval ſtores from America, continued to 29th of September, 1771. 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 11.

STORMAR, *and* DITHMAR, *or* DITMARSH, are two diſtricts neareſt the Elbe. This country is for the moſt part low and rich, of a fat ſoil like many places in Holland, and ſimilar to thoſe alſo in its fertility and embelliſhments; theſe countries likewiſe are benefited by the neighbourhood of Hamburgh and the river they lie near.

STOVE-GRATE-MAKER. This is a buſineſs that requires great ingenuity. The ſtove-grate-maker, who is a kind of ſmith, makes a great variety of theſe grates; ſome of which are of curious workmanſhip, poliſhed to great perfection; he alſo makes all kinds of iron and ſteel fenders, neatly poliſhed, pokers, fire-ſhovels, and tongs: he has the braſs-work from the founders, and fixes it on. Thoſe of this trade take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; the journeymen, who are able to perform the moſt curious work, have extraordinary wages; and the reſt are paid as common ſmiths. It will require from fifty to one hundred pounds to ſet up a young man in this buſineſs.

STOWAGE, is that place or part where goods are laid, or the money that is paid for ſuch a place.

STRAIGHT, STREIGHT, *or* STRAIT, in hydrography, a narrow ſea, or gut ſhut up between lands on either ſide, and affording a paſſage out of one great ſea into another.

STRAND, any ſhore or bank of a ſea or river. An immunity from cuſtom, and all impoſition upon goods or veſſels by land or by water, was uſually expreſſed by ſtrand and ſtream: as king Henry II. to the church of Rocheſter. So the ſame prince granted to all tenants and traders within the honour of Wallingford, that — by water and by land, by wood and by ſtrand. Hence the ſtreet in the weſt ſuburbs of London, which lays next the ſhore or bank of the Thames, is called the Strand.

STRATA, in natural hiſtory, the ſeveral beds or layers of different matters whereof the body of the earth is compoſed.

The ſtrata include all the layers of earths, minerals, metals, ſtones, &c. lying under the upper tegument or ſtratum, the turf, or mould.

The time when theſe ſeveral ſtrata were laid was doubtleſs at the creation; unleſs with ſome great naturaliſts, as Steno, Dr. Woodward, &c. we ſuppoſe the globe of the earth to have been diſſolved by the flood.

At that time, ſays Dr. Derham, whenever it was that the terreſtrial globe was in a chaotic ſtate, and the earthy particles ſubſided, then theſe ſeveral beds were repoſited in that commodious order in which they are now found; and that, as is aſſerted, according to the laws of gravity, the lower ſtill heavier than the upper.

But Dr. Leigh, in his natural Hiſtory of Lancaſhire, ſpeaking of the coal-pits, denies the ſtrata to be according to the laws of gravitation, obſerving that the ſtrata are firſt a bed of marle, then free-ſtone, next iron-ſtone, then coal, or channel-mire, then ſome other ſtrata, then coal again. This determined Dr. Derham to make a nicer inquiry into the matter: accordingly, in 1722, he cauſed divers places to be bored, laying the ſeveral ſtrata by themſelves, and afterwards determined very carefully their ſpecific gravity. The reſult was that, in his yard, the ſtrata were gradually heavier and heavier, the lower and lower they went; but, in another place in his field, he could not perceive any difference in the ſpecific gravities.

Acquainting the royal ſociety therewith, their operator, Mr. Hawkſbee, was ordered to try the ſtrata of a coal-pit, which he did to the depth of thirty ſtrata: the thickneſs and ſpecific gravity of each whereof, he gives us in a table in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, and from the whole makes this inference, that it evidently appears the gravity of ſeveral ſtrata are in no manner of order, but purely caſual, as if mixed by chance.

STRIKE, *or* STRYKE, a meaſure containing four buſhels, two of which make a quarter.

A ſtrike of flax is as much as can be hackled at one handful.

STRIKE is alſo a ſea word variouſly uſed. When a ſhip in a fight is taken, hawling down the enſign and jack is called ſtriking; or when merchant-ſhips meet with men of war, and lower their ſails half maſt, as a mark of reſpect, they are ſaid to ſtrike, meaning they yield or ſubmit. When a topmaſt is to be taken down, or when any thing is lowered into the hold, the ſame term is uſed; and alſo, when a ſhip touches ground in ſhoal water, they ſay ſhe ſtrikes.

STUC, *or* STUCCO, in building, a compoſition of white marble, pulverized, and mixed with plaiſter or lime, the whole ſifted and wrought up with water, to be uſed like common plaiſter. This is what Pliny means by marmoratum opus, and albarium opus.

STUCCO-WORKER. This is an ingenious art, that requires taſte, and ſome ſkill in drawing, with the knowledge of geometry, and particularly of menſuration. Stucco is a particular kind of mortar, compoſed of ſtone, lime, and ſand. Mouldings and other ornaments are formed by laying on the mortar to the height of the deſigned figures, and then running a mould of wood over them of the ſhape of the intended decorations. Theſe mouldings are ſometimes wrought in the manner of carved-work, by the hand of the ſtucco-worker; and ſometimes flowers and ſcrowles are formed from moulds, and ſtruck on, as the nature of the work requires, which are afterwards improved and embelliſhed by the artiſt. This art is now carried to great perfection. The maſters take from ten to twenty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will be able to earn from three ſhillings to a crown a day, or with fifty pounds may ſet up maſter; though ſome employ five hundred pounds in trade.

STUFF, in commerce, a general name for all kinds of fabrics of gold, ſilver, ſilk, wool, hair, cotton, or thread, manufactured on the loom; of which number are velvets, brocades, mohair, ſattins, taffeties, cloths, ſerges, &c.

Stuff is particularly uſed for certain kinds of ſlight woollen ſtuffs, uſed principally for linings and women's wear; as linſeys, rateens, &c.

STUFF.

STUFF-SHOP. The boy, who is to he put apprentice to a perſon who keeps one of theſe ſhops needs no other abilities, nor any other education, than that neceſſary for every other retail tradeſman. Theſe ſhop-keepers ſell all ſorts of ſtuffs, whether for men or women's wear; alapines, ſhalloons, callimancoes, &c. There are many of them wholeſale dealers, who join to this trade that of being Norwich factors: but the greateſt number are retail traders, who differ from the mercers, in dealing only in ſtuffs, as the others deal ſolely in ſilks. The wholeſale dealers take from fifty to two hundred pounds with an apprentice; give a journeyman twenty or thirty pounds a year, and his board; and require one thouſand pounds to ſet up as maſter. On the other hand, the retail traders take about twenty or thirty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have much the ſame wages as thoſe given by a wholeſale dealer; or may ſtock a ſhop with about three hundred pounds.

STURGEON, may be imported, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 24. The king, where intitled to ſturgeon, 17 *Ed.* 2. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 11.

SUBLIMATE, a chemical preparation, the baſis whereof is mercury or quick-ſilver. *See* MERCURY.

SUBSCRIPTION, the ſignature put at the bottom of a letter, writing, or inſtrument.

SUBSCRIPTION, in the Engliſh commerce, is uſed for the ſhare or intereſt which particular perſons take in a public ſtock or trading company, by writing their names, and the ſhares they require in the books or regiſter thereof.

SUBSCRIPTION, in the commerce of books, ſignifies an agreement to take a certain number of copies of a book going to be printed; and a reciprocal obligation of the bookſeller or publiſher to deliver the ſaid copies on certain terms.

SUBSIDY, ſignifies an aid, tax, or tribute, granted by parliament to the king, for the urgent occaſions of the kingdom, to be levied of every ſubject, according to the rate of his land or goods, after four ſhillings in the pound for land, and two ſhillings and eight-pence for goods. No hiſtory mentions that the Saxon kings had any ſubſidies after the manner of ours at preſent; but they had both levies of money and perſonal ſervices towards the building and repairing of cities, caſtles, bridges, military expeditions, &c. which they called Burghbote, Brigbote, Herefare, Heregeld, &c. But when the Danes harraſſed the land, king Ethelred ſubmitted to pay them for redemption of peace ſeveral great ſums of money yearly. This was called Danegeld, for the levying of which every hyde of land was taxed yearly at twelve-pence, lands of the church only excepted, and thereupon it was after called hydagium, and that name remained afterwards upon all taxes and ſubſidies impoſed upon lands; for ſometimes it was laid upon cattle, and then was termed hemgeld. The Normans called theſe ſometimes taxes, ſometimes tallages, otherwiſe auxilia and ſubſidia. The conqueror had theſe taxes, and made a law for the manner of their levying them, as appears in *Emendationibus ejus, pag.* 125. *ſect. volumus & firmiter*, &c. Many years after the conqueſt they were levied otherwiſe than now, as every ninth lamb, every ninth fleece, and every ninth ſheaf. 14 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 20. Of which you may ſee great variety in Raſtall's Abridgment, tit. Taxes, Tenths, Fifteenths, Subſidies, &c. And 4 Inſt. fol. 26. and 33. Whence we may gather there is no certain rate, but as the parliament ſhall think fit. Subſidy is in our ſtatutes ſometimes confounded with cuſtoms. 11 *H.* IV. *c.* 7. *Cowell, dit.* 1727.

A fifteen granted for Magna charta, and the Charta de Foreſta. *M. C.* 9 *H.* III. *c.* 37.

The ninth fleece, &c. granted, 14 *Ed.* I. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 20.

No aid to be taken but by aſſent of parliament. 14 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 1.

Application of the revenue enacted in parliament. 14 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 1. 5 *R.* II. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 3.

The penalties of the ſtatutes of labourers given to the people in aid of their ſubſidies. 23 *Ed.* III. *c.* 8.

Subſidies granted. 31 *H.* VI. *c.* 8. 11 *H.* VII. *c.* 10.

A ſubſidy of four ſhillings in the pound granted by the clergy of the province of Canterbury. 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 23. *See* CUSTOMS.

SUFFERANCE *inwards and outwards.* *See* KAY.

SUFFOLK, is a great dairy county, and ſends yearly to London forty thouſand firkins of butter upon an average, which is ſhipped at Ipſwich and Woodbridge, and ſome few from Aldborough; beſides which it makes about ten thouſand firkins more, that are ſold at Colcheſter, and other parts of Eſſex. Of the cheeſe it produces, a thouſand tons (a little more or leſs) are annually brought to town, with which the royal navy is ſerved; ſome part is ſold into Kent and Suſſex, and the reſt to ſhipping, &c. as none is eaten in London; a great deal is ſent directly from hence to Newcaſtle, as ſome is alſo from that city. The navy in time of war takes yearly for victualling from ten to twelve thouſand firkins of butter, and about five or ſix hundred tons of Suffolk cheeſe, though in time of peace the conſumption is not above one fourth of either. The land ſorces are fed with Cheſhire, Warwick, or Glouceſterſhire cheeſe, of which between eighty and a hundred tons were iſſued *per annum* in the late war. This county is very fruitful in cattle, and feeds great multitudes of ſheep, notwithſtanding which the conſumption of wool is ſo great in its fabricks, as to oblige the manufacturers to ſeek an additional ſupply from Lincolnſhire: cloths are made at Sudbury, and variety of ſtuffs at Stow-market; alſo ſays and perpets, beſides large parcels of linen; and its products are corn, hemp, and fullers earth.

SUGAR, *ſaccharum*, a very ſweet agreeable ſubſtance, extracted from a kind of canes, or reeds, growing in great plenty in both the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies.

Sugar is properly the eſſential ſalt of the ſugar-cane, as tartar is of the grape. It is, while in its crude or unrefined ſtate, a coarſe, fattiſh, oleaginous matter, of a browniſh or greyiſh colour, with a caſt of a reddiſh or orange-colour, among it; and of a very ſweet, but ſomewhat, diſagreeable taſte. When it has been purified and refined by frequent ſolutions, and by other means, it becomes of a pure, bright, white, gloſſy, and cryſtalline colour, conſiderably hard, and of a much pleaſanter, though leſs intenſely ſweet taſte.

The plant which produces it, is one of the triandria digynia of Linnæus, and one of the herbæ graminifoliæ of Ray. It is deſcribed, by Piſo, under the name of viba and tachomura; by Cæſalpinus, under the name of canna millea; and by others, under that of arundo ſaccharifera, and calamus ſaccharinus. Its root is think, jointed, and creeping, very ſucculent, and furniſhed with numerous fibres: its ſtalk grows to eight or nine feet high, and is two or three inches, or more, in thickneſs; it is jointed like the root; its ſurface is ſmooth and gloſſy; its colour is a greeniſh yellow; the leaves are long, narrow, and of a yellowiſh green; the top of the ſtalk is ornamented with a panicle, or cluſter of arundinaceous flowers, two or three feet in length, much branched, knotted, or jointed, all along to their ends. It grows ſpontaneouſly in many parts of the Eaſt-Indies, in the Canary iſlands, and in ſome of the hotter parts, of America; but its produce is ſo advantageous, that it is not left to thoſe places, but is propagated in many other parts of America. It loves a moiſt and rich ſoil, and will grow much larger in ſuch a one, than in more barren ground. Piſo aſſures us, that in the province of Ria de la Plata, the ſugar-canes grow wild, and riſe to an enormous height; and that, during the great heats, they exſudate, in ſeveral parts, a white chryſtalline ſugar.

They propagate the ſugar-cane, by planting it in the ground in furrows, dug parallel for that purpoſe, the cuttings are laid level and even, and are covered up with earth; they ſoon ſhoot out new plants from their knots or joints; the ground is to be kept clear, at times, from weeds, and the canes grow ſo quick, that in eight, ten, or twelve months, they are fit to cut for making of ſugar from them. The manner of doing it is thus: They cut off the reeds at one of the joints near the roots; they are then cleared of the leaves, and tied up in handfuls, and ſent to the mills, which are worked either by water or by cattle. The reeds are here bruiſed and preſſed, and their juice is ſqueezed from them; this is extremely ſweet, and is to be boiled without loſs of time into ſugar, for, if it ſtands much more than twenty-four hours, it grows four, and is wholly ſpoiled for the making of ſugar.

The

The juice is carried by pipes into large boilers, where it is kept boiling, more or leſs fiercely, for a whole day together; a great deal of ſcum is ſeparated in this boiling: after the juice is let out of the veſſel, it is received into another, in which it is boiled more briſkly, and ſcummed from time to time with a large kind of ſpoon, pierced through with holes to let the liquor through, while it retains the ſcum and foulneſs ſeparated from it in boiling. Towards the end of this boiling, they throw into it a ſtrong lixivium of wood-aſhes, with ſome quicklime among it; this greatly promotes the ſeparation of the foulneſs that yet remains among it; and, after it has boiled ſome time with this addition, they ſtrain it off. The fœces left in the cloths make a kind of wine, when fermented properly with water. The ſtrained liquor, which is now tolerably clean, is let into a third boiler, in which it is boiled down to the conſiſtence of ſugar, over a very briſk fire, the people who attend it continually ſtirring and ſcumming it.

Great caution is to be uſed that the boiling matter does not riſe over the ſides of the veſſel, which would be of very dangerous conſequence: they prevent this by taking up quantities of the boiling matter with a ladle, lifting it up high, and letting it run in again, and by now and then adding a ſmall piece of butter, or fat of ſome kind, which takes down the bubbling almoſt inſtantaneouſly. They are very careful that no lemon-juice, or any other acid of that kind, comes near the veſſels, a very ſmall admixture of that being ſufficient to keep the matter from granulating. When the liquor is boiled enough, which is known by its concreting, on throwing a ſpoonful of it up into the air, it is then let out into a fourth veſſel, under which there is a very gentle fire, only kept up that it may have leiſure to granulate; when it has begun to granulate, it is let out of this laſt boiler into a kind of conic earthen veſſels, open at both ends; the wideſt aperture is placed upwards, and the ſmaller end downwards, its aperture being ſtopped with a wooden plug. It is left in theſe veſſels twenty-four hours to concrete; after this the veſſels are removed into ſugar-houſes, and are there arranged in regular order, with a veſſel of earthen-ware under each; the plug is then taken out of the bottom aperture of each, and they are left in this condition for about forty days, that all the thick liquor, or melaſſes, may run from them. After they have ſtood thus long to drain of themſelves, a quantity of clay is diluted, with water, into a thin paſte, and this is poured on the top of every parcel of ſugar in the veſſels, ſo as to cover it two or three inches deep. This water, by degrees, quite leaves the clay, and penetrating into the maſs of ſugar, runs through it, and carries off more yet of this foul thick liquid with it, into the veſſels placed underneath to receive it.

When the clay is quite dry, it is taken off; and the firſt preparation of the ſugar being now finiſhed, they ſhake it out of the veſſels, and, cutting it into lumps, which are of a dirty, browniſh, or greyiſh colour, they put it up in hogſheads, and other caſks, under the name of grey or brown ſugar. The ſugar, in this ſtate, ought to be dry not unctuous, and to have no taſte of burning: the liquor which has run from the ſugar, in ſtanding, is boiled to a conſiſtence, and ſold under the name of melaſſes, or treacle; this affords, by fermentation, a very clear and good ſpirit.

The coarſe ſugar is afterwards refined to various degrees of purity by new ſolutions, and is ſold at different prices, and under different names, according to the degree of purity it is brought to.

A pound of ſugar purified to the higheſt degree, and diſtilled in a retort, yields firſt about half an ounce of a limpid, inſipid phlegm, without ſmell; and after this comes over a liquor, at firſt limpid and colourleſs, afterwards reddiſh, and, finally, of a empyreumatic ſmell, in quantity not leſs than ſix ounces, this is partly of an acid, partly of an alkaline and urinous taſte; after this comes over a thick and reddiſh oil, in quantity about three drachms; and then more than an ounce of a brown oil of a thicker conſiſtence. The remainder in the retort, calcined and lixiviated, yields a drachm of a pure alkaline ſalt.

Sugar is a true ſalt, and when perfectly pure, after ſolution, it concretes into regular cryſtals; theſe are of a priſmatic figure, and conſiſt of eight plain ſurfaces, into two of which the oppoſite baſes are equal and parallel, the reſt are parallelograms. In its natural ſtate, it manifeſts not the leaſt token of any thing, either acid or alkaline. It is inflammable, in a great degree, burning with a very briſk white flame. It diſſolves with the utmoſt readineſs, in all aqueous menſtruums, but very difficultly in ſpirituous or oily liquors: mixed with water, it, after a time, ferments, and acquires a vinous flavour; and at this time an inflammable ſpirit, like that of wine may be drawn from it in a conſiderable quantity.

The juſt proportion to this fermentation is ſeven pounds of water to one of ſugar, and to this a ſpoonful of yeaſt is to be added; it is then to be ſet in a moderately warm place, or have a gentle heat any way communicated to it; the veſſel it is in ſhould be nearly, but not entirely full, and it ſhould be cloſe ſhut: a few hours ſtanding, in this ſtate, ſets it to fermenting, and this ſoon grows very briſk, and continues three or four weeks, more or leſs, according to the quantity of the liquor, and the heat of the place. At the end of this time the liquor will be found to have acquired the ſtrength of wine, and a taſte like that of mead. And if the fermentation be continued, it ſoon after loſes the taſte and quality, becomes acid, and is a vinegar, equal, in all reſpects, to that of wine. Sugar was known to the ancients; Dioſcorides and Galen called it *ſaccharum*, and Theophraſtus *mel in arundinibus*, honey in reeds. Arrian alſo calls it *mel arundineum*, and Œgineta *ſal Indicus*, Indian ſalt. Notwithſtanding, however, that the ancients were all acquainted with ſugar, they did not bring it into common uſe as we do. All their writers, however, mention it as a thing known. Strabo ſays, that Indian honey, as he calls it, was produced without bees. Lucan ſpeaks of the honey-juice of reeds, and Varro tells us, that a ſweet juice was expreſſed from the Indian reeds, and was equal to honey. Seneca tells us of honey found in reeds, in India, and is in ſome doubt whether it was a honey-dew, as they ſuppoſed manna to be, or whether it was the genuine products of thoſe reeds. The Greeks indifferently called the ſugar of thoſe times by the names of honey ſalt, and ſugar.

Dioſcorides makes it a kind of honey, and ſays, that, beſides the common honey, there was another ſort called *ſaccharum*, which was found in reeds, in Arabia and the Indies, and was, like a ſalt, hard and brittle under the teeth. Pliny, alſo, agrees, that there were ſugar-canes in Arabia, which produced ſugar like thoſe of the Indies; but that it was inferior to that of India.

We find by all their accounts, that they knew the ſweet juice of theſe reeds, and that they alſo, ſometimes, had ſent over to them concreted granules of real ſugar, which had exſudated from the reeds, and dried in the ſun to a hardneſs; theſe were the pieces of ſugar which Dioſcorides mentions, as crackling under the teeth. And others tell us they were of the ſize of a pea, or at the moſt of a horſe-bean. It is plain, however, that they knew nothing of the art of making ſugar by boiling the juice.

As plain as it appears that the ancients not only knew ſugar, but knew alſo it was produced from reeds, it does not yet appear, however, whether they knew the very ſpecies or reed which we now cultivate, and call the ſugar-cane, or not. It is very certain, that there are other plants which may be called canes and reeds, and which produce ſugar, in the Indies, as well as this: the bambu cane, in particular, is remarkable, not only for producing ſugar, but for having it exſudate and concrete in granules on its ſurface, though in no great quantity. The Indians call this *ſaccharum* manna, but they do not boil its juice.

Salmaſius, from Varro and ſome of the ancients, talking of the Indian ſugar-cane, as growing to the height of a moderate tree, ſeems poſitive, that the bambu was the only kind they knew; but though it may appear evidently enough from this, that they knew the bambu, it does not appear hence that they did not alſo know the common ſugar-reed of our times; which, indeed, it ſeems, is in ſome meaſure, proved that they did, by Lucan's calling it the *tenera arundo*, a term no way applicable to the bambu.

The native ſugar, or the concreted juice of the ſugar-cane produced by mere exſudation, and hardened on its bark, was more frequent in the ancient times than now, becauſe older and larger reeds are more diſpoſed to produce it. It was alſo more carefully collected, when there was no other to be had; but now that the canes are cut down at a year's growth, and the ſugar produced in ſuch infinitely greater quantities by boiling, it is not wonderful that little

ment of the charges of procuring this act, and of the principal and intereſt of the money borrowed, and the expence of putting this act in execution, ſhall be employed in lengthening the preſent pier, and in purchaſing or procuring leaſes of any grounds, as aforeſaid, to build any other piers, keys, walls, or jettees on, and in erecting the ſame, and in doing ſuch other works for the improvement of, and the depthening, cleanſing, and preſerving the ſaid river, &c. as the commiſſioners, &c. ſhall from time to time direct.

If by the building of any pier, or other works, and the different direction thereby given, to the ſea and tide flowing into the river, &c. the keys and grounds of any perſon ſhall be beat down, overflowed, or otherwiſe damnified, the commiſſioners, &c. out of the monies ariſing by this act, ſhall cauſe ſuch keys to be repaired, or rebuilt, and the land to be effectually ſecured againſt ſuch ſea and tide, within twelve months after any ſuch accident; and ſhall likewiſe cauſe to be paid to the proprietors of lands and grounds, or to ſuch other perſons as ſhall make proof of any damages done by them, in the execution of this act, ſuch ſums as ſhall be aſſeſſed by a jury, &c.

SUPERCARGO, a perſon employed by merchants to go a voyage, and overſee their cargo or lading, and diſpoſe of it to the beſt advantage. *See* FACTORS.

SURATE. There is no place in the Mogul's dominions, and it may be added in all the Indies, more celebrated for trade than this. It is ſeated on the river Tapi, or Tapta, to which Souali (lying ſix leagues from its mouth) is properly the port, the river being unnavigable for large veſſels up to the city, which obliges the merchants to unload their goods here, and ſend them deſigned for Surate by barks or waggons there. This city was taken by the troops of the Engliſh Eaſt-India company in the year 1759, and ſtill continues ſubject to that company.

Thoſe intended for other parts remain at Souali in warehouſes built with boards, which each nation has here, till opportunities offer for ſending them to their deſtined ports. Souali is a ſort of encampment upon a point of land, or peninſula, formed by the ſea and the river's mouth, which is very commodious for a market to furniſh the ſailors with refreſhment on their arrival; this camp conſiſts only of ſmall huts, made with reeds, bamboes, &c. ranged in form of ſtreets, during the fine monſoon, where the natives plant their little ſhops, filled with fruits, &c. to the great convenience of the new comers, and leaves no inconſiderable advantage to the inhabitants, no village being near, and the European companies magazines a league to the north of this bamboe town.

The houſes of the Europeans here are ſpacious and magnificent, of which the Engliſh are thoſe who make the beſt figure; and the goods brought here for Europe, are cotton thread, wool, and cloths; and of theſe latter, are ſhipped both white and ſtained; many ſorts of ſilk ſtuffs, plain, ſtriped, &c. with and without ſilver and gold, painted and printed linens, raw ſilks, indigo of three ſorts, carpets of ſilk and wool, others all ſilk, with ſilver and gold, aloes, ſapan wood, coffee, Maldivian cauries, (ſo neceſſary for the Guinea trade) incence, ſaltpetre, borax, gum lack, myrrh, terra-merita, red bole, muſk, bezoar, and ſometimes ambergreaſe, pearls, diamonds, and other leſs precious ſtones.

The commodities of this place fit for the trade to Mocha, coaſts of the Red ſea, and the Arabia Felix, are coarſe linen, white, blue, and black. Thoſe for Bender-Abaſſi and Baſſora in the Perſian gulph, are white linens, coarſe and fine, with a few blues and blacks. Thoſe for Sumatra, and all the kingdom of Achem, Java, and Macaſſare, linens blue and black, of which many more fine than coarſe. For the Philippines, all ſorts of linens, coarſe and fine, white and ſtained, carpets, and ſilk ſtuffs. In fine, opium, for the coaſts of Malabar, and the other places in India, from whence the pepper comes, as there is nothing better to truck againſt that ſpice.

As the greateſt part of the merchants, brokers and Indian manufacturers, are naturally given to cheating in ſeveral ways, the Europeans who deal with them ſhould always be on their guard, and carefully examine the quality, weight, meaſures, &c. of every thing they buy.

Two ſhips ſail yearly from Surate for the conveniency of the Mahometans, who go in pilgrimage to Mecca, but they are commonly as much loaden with goods for the Mogul's account, as the pilgrims; and their returns are ſo rich, as to make part of the trade of the Europeans, for the commodities of Arabia Felix.

The Turks of Aden and Mocha alſo ſend an annual ſhip to Surate, whoſe cargo is for account of the grand ſeignior. And it is at this place that the Engliſh and Dutch commonly make their loadings for Perſia, the Red ſea, and Arabia Felix; and here alſo the Perſian merchants embark with the goods for the ſame places, on which they make great profits.

Very conſiderable negociations are made from hence, and ſome other parts of India, by way of exchange, and we ſhall therefore mention the premiums they are commonly agreed at, with this remark, that they are not ſo fixed, but that they occaſionally riſe and fall as in Europe.

The exchange from Labor to Surate is generally from 7 to 7½ *per cent.*

From Janabat and Agra 4 to 5.

From Amadabath 1 to 1 ¼.

From Bengal, Patna, Caſembaſar, and Ougli, 8 to 9.

From Golconde, and the neighbouring parts, 5 to 6.

And for Goa, 4 *per cent.*

SURGEON. The genius and natural abilities proper to form an excellent ſurgeon, differ but little from thoſe required in a phyſician. The youth deſigned for this ſecond and more certain branch of the noble art of healing, ought to have a ſound judgment, a quick apprehenſion, and a good memory. He ſhould have a determined and reſolute mind, a ſteady and light hand, ſtrength of body, and a tender and compaſſionate heart: qualifications that ſeldom meet in the ſame perſon. His education ought to be liberal; in particular, he ſhould not only be a ſpeculative, but a practical anatomiſt; he ſhould viſit our hoſpitals with the greateſt care; and not only attend every operation of importance, but obſerve and take minutes of the preparatory ſteps, and of thoſe taken in the progreſs of the cure: the experience he thus gains he ſhould improve by travelling and viſiting other hoſpitals.

There are two methods of educating a ſurgeon, one is, giving the youth an univerſity-education, then ſending him to hear anatomical lectures, and to attend ſome of the moſt noted hoſpitals for a ſeaſon or two; after which he viſits Paris, and returns home a ſurgeon: but the ſecond method is the moſt common; which is, after the youth has learnt Latin and ſome Greek, he is bound to a ſurgeon of good practice for ſeven years; at the expiration of which he turns out a ſurgeon; but both theſe methods are defective: however, this laſt method, together with the ſtudy of anatomy, and the viſiting of foreign hoſpitals, not as an idle ſpectator, but as one determined to ſeize every opportunity of improvement, is the moſt eſſential means of becoming a good ſurgeon. The ingenious and the humane young gentleman will reaſon deliberately on all the various methods of practice, and will diſcover which will give leaſt pain to the patient, and moſt ſpeedily procure a cure: he will rejoice more at having it in his power to ſave a limb, than at his being able to cut it off with the greateſt dexterity; and no proſpect of lengthening his bill, or bringing more money into his pocket, will induce him to have recourſe to amputation, when he can heal without it. This honour, juſtice, religion, and every principle of humanity require; and this will in the end be the ſureſt means of obtaining at once inward ſatisfaction, and all the external bleſſings of wealth. The ſums given with an apprentice are from twenty guineas to an hundred: but though it requires no great ſum to buy a ſet of inſtruments, &c. yet the youth ſhould have a fortune to ſupport him like a gentleman, till he becomes known, and renders his merit conſpicuous; and he may haſten this knowledge by freely and generouſly giving relief to thoſe who are unable to pay him.

None to practiſe phyſic or ſurgery in London, unleſs admitted by the biſhop, or by the dean of St. Paul's, 3 *H.* VIII. *c.* 11.

Surgeons diſcharged of pariſh offices and juries, &c. in London, 5 *H.* VIII. *c.* 6.

The ſurgeons incorporated with the barbers, 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 42.

Surgeons ſhall have their names over their doors, 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 42. *ſ.* 3.



Privileges

Privileges granted to ſurgeons, 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 42.

The ſurgeons company in London ſeparated from the barbers, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15.

Surgeons of the army to be examined by examiners appointed by the ſurgeons company. 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 9.

SURGEON'S INSTRUMENT-MAKER. The boy who deſires to be of this buſineſs ſhould be ingenious; but is under no neceſſity of having any more than the common education of a tradeſman. The ſurgeon's inſtrument-makers keep ſhop, and employ their journeymen and apprentices in making various kinds of knives, ſciſſars, lancets, ſaws, trepans, probes, biſtoras, ſtapulas, &c. They take from five to twenty pounds with an apprentice; and a journeyman who is eſteemed a good hand either in forging or finiſhing theſe curious inſtruments, may earn fifteen or twenty ſhillings a week; or with one hundred pounds may ſet up in this buſineſs, which is very profitable to a maſter. Many of this trade alſo ſell all ſorts of cutlery goods.

SURREY, being very barren in the middle, affords but few products or manufactures, though it is ſaid that ſome broad cloth, mixt or medleys, are made at Ryegate, and ſome kerſies at Guildford and in its neighbourhood. Iron is found of the ſame quality with that of Suſſex; and it is on a hill near Mickleham that box grows in greater plenty than in any one ſpot in Europe beſides.

SURVEYOR *of the Navy*. An officer whoſe buſineſs is to know the ſtate of all ſtores, and ſee the wants ſupplied; to ſurvey the hull, maſts, and yards of ſhips; to audit the boatſwains and carpenters accounts, &c.

SUSSEX yields great quantities of iron, chiefly uſed in founderies for cannons, bombs, &c. and it has ſome manufactories of glaſs. Its products are cattle, wool, and corn, more eſpecially oats, of which its crops are incredibly great. The Engliſh ortelan (or wheat ear) is peculiar to this county; and a Suſſex carp, Arundel mullet, Chicheſter lobſter, and an Amerly trout, are ſo peculiarly noted for their excellence, as to challenge a remark in every treatiſe on this ſhire.

SUTHERLAND, including STRATHNAVERN, tho' a northern province, is more fruitful in corn and paſturage than could be expected from its ſituation; it abounds with fiſh, fowl, ſheep, black cattle, goats and deer; here is one ſort of bird peculiar to the country, which is called *knag* by the natives. This ſhire abounds with lakes and ſmall rivers, in which are ſometimes found pearls of great value; as alſo in ſilver, iron, and coal mines, quarries of freeſtone, &c. but all very much neglected: Strathnavern is part of the county, and being very mountainous, produces but little corn, yet is very abundant in all ſorts of cattle, as its lakes and rivers are in fiſh, more eſpecially ſalmon; they have iron alſo here, and both this and the other part of the ſhire export very conſiderable quantities of ſalt beef, hides, deer and ſheep ſkins, tallow, butter, cheeſe, cod, ſalmon, wool, &c.

SWABBER, *or* CAPTAIN SWABBER, in a man of war, is a perſon appointed to ſee the ſhip cleaned by a gang of the lazieſt and refuſe of the foremaſt men, who are under ſubjection to him.

SWABIA, the circle of, in Germany, is bounded on the north with the Palatinate and Franconia; on the ſouth with Tyrol and Swiſſerland; on the weſt with Alſace; and on the eaſt with Bavaria.

Its air is healthy, and the ſoil generally fruitful; for though ſome parts are mountainous and woody, yet the hills afford mines of ſilver, copper, and other metals, and the foreſts much pine and fir timber, beſides great ſtore of game, and good breeds of horſes, black cattle, and ſheep; and other parts yield great ſtore of corn, wine, and flax. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in making linen cloth, of which they export great quantities. Its chief rivers are the Danube and Nechar, but great part of it is alſo watered by the Rhine.

The uſual diviſion of it is as follows, viz.

*The marquiſate of Baden.* This country, which is one of the fineſt in Germany, is extended along the eaſtern banks of the Rhine, having the Palatinate on the north, the Black Foreſt on the eaſt, Alſace on the weſt, and Swiſſerland on the ſouth. It is very populous, and fruitful in corn and wine, but chiefly in hemp, which they ſell to the Dutch and Flemings: they have, alſo, in ſome places, agate, which they poliſh and export.

The chief towns here are only of note on account of their baths, for which they are much frequented.

*Ortnan* is ſeparated by the Rhine, on the weſt, from Alſace, has the Briſgaw on the ſouth, the margraviate of Baden on the north, and the dutchy of Wirtemberg on the eaſt.

*The Briſgaw* lies on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, which divides it from Alſace; betwixt Ortnan on the weſt, and the principality of Furſtemberg on the eaſt.

*Friburg*, is a large populous city, on the river Threiſem: here are famous lapidaries for poliſhing the granates, jaſpers, and other precious ſtones that are found in Lorrain, and the neighbouring countries.

The territory of *Suntgaw* has Montbeliard on the weſt, Upper Alſace on the north, the biſhopric of Baſil, and mount Jura, the principality of Porentrue, and the Franche Comte, on the ſouth, and the canton of Baſil on the eaſt. The country, though mountainous, abounds with vines, and great quantities of its corn are tranſported to Swiſſerland, Lombardy, Lorrain, &c. There are no towns of any note for trade, neither in this territory, nor in the county of Montbeliard, nor the biſhopric of Baſil.

The biſhopric of *Conſtance* lies on both ſides of the lake of that name, and on the borders of Swiſſerland.

*Conſtance*, the capital, is a populous rich place, and has a conſiderable trade, by means of its lake, and the neighbourhood of the Rhine.

*Uborlingen* ſtands on the lake of Conſtance; it has a good haven, from whence barges are ſent with wine and fruits to Conſtance, and other cities on the lake, to the great gain of the inhabitants, who are very induſtrious and frugal.

*Salmanſweiler*, is a ſmall town, but has a good trade in corn.

*Buckhorn* has a good trade with the neighbouring countries, by the lake.

*Lindaw* ſtands on the north bank of the lake, by means of which, and the Rhine, it lies ſo convenient for trade, that it is called the Venice of Swabia. Part of the city is built on an iſland in the lake, to which there is a wooden bridge: this part is moſtly inhabited by fiſhermen, watermen, and weavers. This place is ſo conſiderable a ſtaple for goods of divers nations, and its market is ſo frequented by merchants for eight or nine leagues round, as well as others from a great number of towns, that it is ſaid near fifteen hundred load of merchandize enters every week at the gate near to the main land. The traders both of Swabia and Bavaria amaſs great quantities of corn, ſalt, iron, and copper here, which they ſell to the Swiſs and Griſons; and every Saturday vaſt ſtores of wheat and wine are brought here by the lake, from Hegow and Tergow; as alſo an incredible quantity of butter and cheeſe is brought from Bregent, and the mountains of Swiſſerland, Appenzel, and the Griſons, beſides fiſh and fruits of all ſorts, and variety of other merchandize, from the neighbourhood, and from the northern countries, and which paſs through Nuremberg and Augſburg, for Italy.

*Wangen* ſtands on the river Arg, which falls into the ſame lake, and is noted for a trade in paper and flax, and for the beſt ſickles, which are made here in great numbers, and ſent all over the empire.

*Birbock* ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful valley, ſurrounded with hills. The great trade of this town conſiſts in fuſtians; ſo that of all the trading companies, the weavers are moſt numerous.

*Leuthirk*, on the river Eſeach, is a ſmall town, but the inhabitants have a good trade in corn, flax, and linen cloth, of which they make great quantities.

*Kempten*, on the Algow, is one of the ancienteſt cities in Germany. The trade of this place is weaving and whitening linen cloth, which, with its being on the road to Italy, and by the Swiſſers bringing ſalt from Tirol, makes it one of the richeſt cities in Swabia.

*Memmingen* has a good manufacture and trade in linen, cotton, ſtuffs, and paper, which laſt is reckoned the beſt in Germany.

*Augſburg*, the metropolis of Swabia, ſtands near the confines of Bavaria, at the conflux of the rivers Lech and Werdach, which fall into the Danube twenty-five miles below it. It is one of the biggeſt and moſt beautiful cities in Germany. Its trade, at preſent, beſides the bank of

commerce, and the Tirol wines, with which it almoſt wholly ſupplies Germany, conſiſts in goldſmiths wares, clocks, and ivory, with which, and all kinds of toys, not inferior to thoſe of Nuremberg, it furniſhes Germany, Poland, and the north of Europe; but even in ſeveral of theſe things, the Engliſh artizans have, of late years, excelled, and ſerved ſeveral foreigns countries, to the great detriment of both Augſburg and Nuremberg, which had, for ſeveral centuries, been in poſſeſſion ot this trade.

*Ulm* ſtands on the Danube, which here begins to be navagable: it is a great and very populous city, here being a great number of hands employed in the manufactures of ſtuffs, linen, cotton, and fuſtians; in dreſſing leather, and in the iron and other manufactures, as well as clock-work; by which this is become one of the richeſt cities in Germany.

*Nordlingen*, the capital of a county, or diviſion of its name, ſtands on the river Eger. The principal trade carried on here is in linen cloth and dreſſed ſkins. There is a conſiderable yearly fair here the week after Eaſter, to which merchants bring goods from very remote countries, and return with the manufactures of this.

*Wirtemberg Dutchy*, in that called Lower Swabia, is bounded on the north by part of Franconia, the archbiſhopric of Mentz, and the palatinate of the Rhine; on the eaſt by the county of Oetingen, and ſeveral other petty ſtates of Swabia; on the ſouth by the Danube; and on the weſt by the marquiſate of Baden, and the Black Foreſt. It is reckoned the largeſt dominion in the circle of Swabia; and there are few countries in Germany ſo fruitful, it abounding with all ſorts of corn, beſides paſture. Its mountains are full of mines and vineyards, and its vallies of cattle; but being ſurrounded with the Palatinate, Franconia, and Alſace, that are altogether as fertile, the Wirtemberghers have hardly any export for their commodities.

*Eſſingen*, on the Neckar, is a place of ſome trade, and noted for good baths.

*Hailbron*, ſtands in a pleaſant fruitful country, on the ſame river, and has a good trade, and ſeveral fairs.

The principal trade of Gemund is in beads, which they ſend abroad.

*Halle* ſtands amongſt rocks and mountains, on the river Coacher, and owes its riſe to its ſpring of ſalt, which, tho' not ſo white or piquant as other ſalt, is carried to Nuremberg.

SWAN, is a noble bird of game, and a perſon may preſcribe to have game of ſwans within his manor, as well as a warren or park, 17 *Rep.* 17, 18. None ſhall keep a game of ſwans unleſs he have lands of the yearly value of five marks, 22 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 6. Perſons taking their eggs out of the neſt, &c. how puniſhed, 11 *Hen.* VII. *c.* 17. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 27. *ſ.* 2.

SWEDEN. Although this kingdom has always furniſhed Europe with its ſuperfluous products, it was nevertheleſs regardleſs of trade, till queen Chriſtina both protected and encouraged it, by the advantages ſhe granted to and procured for this nation; which till her reign ſeemed entirely to neglect commerce, either by having its attention drawn off, through its natural propenſity to war, or the effect of ſloth and ignorance, which it would not be at the pains of removing; but the cruelty of the duke of Alva made many to eſcape from the Low Countries, and take ſanctuary here, to which fugitives Sweden owes the major part of the knowledge it has acquired in trade; and their eſtabliſhment was ſo ſucceſsful, as to encourage a great number of Walloons to tranſport themſelves here, whoſe language and religion ſtill ſubſiſts, in thoſe places where they firſt ſetled.

They erected forges and other conveniencies for caſting of cannon, as alſo for the manufacturing of iron wire, and other works of this metal, copper and braſs, which their deſcendants continue to this day; but notwithſtanding all this, the navigation of the Swedes was but trifling, till their aforeſaid princes, on concluding a peace with Denmark in 1644, obtained from that crown a conceſſion, that all the ſhips, and other effects of her ſubjects, ſhould pay nothing on paſſing the Sound; ſince which the Swedes have greatly encreaſed in ſhipping, and in the late war were the principal carriers of Europe. The chief articles of Sweden's exports, conſiſt in copper, iron, pitch, roſin, maſts, boards, &c. In exchange of which, it takes from foreign parts ſalt, wine, brandy, draperies and other ſtuffs; tobacco ſugars, ſpice, paper, (of which they hardly conſume yearly two thouſand reams in all the country) linen, vinegar, fruits from Provence, ſome mercery, and diverſe other commodities.

The trade which the Swedes have with Portugal, is that which they can leaſt be without, as the ſaid kingdom chiefly ſupplies them with the great quantities of ſalt they uſe; though their commerce with England yields them much more profit in taking off near half their products, and bringing them almoſt two-thirds more of their value in ſilver than in goods; and indeed, the balance is here greatly againſt us, and might eaſily be remedied by the frequently propoſed means, of encouraging a ſupply from our own American ſettlements. The leaſt of their commerce is tranſacted with France, as this rather ſerves to feed their vanity, than ſupply their needs, and conſume but very little of the country's manufactures or growths.

It is at Stockholm, that almoſt all the traffick of Sweden is negociated; foreigners not having the liberty to trade in the Bothnic bay, nor the ſubjects of his Swediſh majeſty to bring their goods only to this, the capital, whoſe port is deep and ſecure, though the coming in, and going out, long and dangerous.

The Swedes themſelves tranſport the beſt part of their commodities, in their own ſhips, to Holland, Spain, and Portugal, and ſome few proceed to France, to load wine, brandy and ſalt. But the Engliſh and Dutch are the people who carry on the greateſt trade with this country; the firſt by their woollens, and the latter with their ſpices; though that of the Dutch is however the moſt conſiderable, eſpecially ſince they have in ſome meaſure rendered themſelves maſters of the copper mines, and of the pitch and tar made there, by the great loans they advance to the farmers of the former, and to the merchants of the other materials ſo neceſſary to navigation, inſomuch that theſe commodities are to be met with almoſt as cheap at Amſterdam as Stockholm.

Strangers are permitted to deliver their goods at Stockholm without paying any cuſtoms but in proportion as they ſell, and may, if they find no vent here, reload them for another market, on the payment only of half *per cent.* duty.

The merchandiſe we import from thence, are pitch, tar, hemp, flax, furs, iron and copper. As to the copper, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that its purchaſe is always made with ready money; and that this is better effected in winter than ſummer, as in this latter ſeaſon it is only to be had at ſecond hand, ſo that conſequently in the former, it may be procured beſt and cheapeſt. The Swedes in return take from us, broad cloth, fine ſtuffs, and ſome other woollens, wrought iron and braſs, horological works, paper, pepper, tin, herrings, drugs, &c.

The cultivated lands of this kingdom are fertile enough, though the major part have but little depth; barren ſoils manured with the burnt aſhes of the trees that grow here, often produce a very abundant crop, without any other tilling or improvement, than the bare covering of the ſeed. If the inhabitants were induſtrious beyond what meer neceſſity forces them to, it would not be difficult for them to raiſe a ſufficiency of grain, at leaſt to ſupply their wants; but by their miſmanagement they cannot ſubſiſt without ſupplies from Livonia and other parts of Germany, bordering on the Baltic, which however are of no ſervice to the poor people, who live diſtant from theſe commercial reliefs, and are obliged in a dearth, to grind the grain of beech trees bark, and make it into bread.

The wool which their ſheep produce, is extremely coarſe, and can only ſerve to make cloathing for the peaſants; their horſes are ſmall, eſpecially in the dutchy of Finland, but they are hardy, ſtrong and vigorous; here are a quantity of ſavage animals, of which the natives hunt and eat the bears, elks, deer, &c. and take the wolves, foxes, wild cats, and ſome others, for their furs.

The principal lakes of Sweden, are the Weter, Wener, and the Meler, which, with many others, are not ill provided with fiſh, ſuch as ſalmon, pike, perch, tench, trout, eels, and ſeveral other ſorts unknown elſewhere; here is, above all, an infinitude of ſtreamlings, a fiſh ſmaller than a herring, which are ſalted in barrels, and diſtributed all over the country: and beſides theſe, the North-Bottom, or the bay that ſeparates Sweden from the dutchy

of Finland, is ſo abundant in ſeals, that a large quantity of oil is extracted from them, and tranſported to diverſe places. In the lakes of Finland, vaſt numbers of jacks are taken, of which ſome are ſalted, and others dried, and afterwards ſold to very good advantage.

Among the mines of this kingdom there is one of ſilver, which is about one hundred and forty-five braces deep, and yields, after great labour and trouble, near the value of twenty thouſand crowns of fine ſilver yearly, though this is not above four *per cent.* profit. The profundity of the copper mine does not exceed eighteen braces; it is of a great extent, but ſubject to damage from time to time, by the falling in of the vault, which however is not all loſs, as the mineral procured from the rubbiſh makes ſome amends, though the detriment of this occurrence is always conſiderable. The copper that is annually extracted from this mine produces about two hundred thouſand French livres, of which the king has one-fourth part, beſides twenty-five *per cent.* on all the ore carried away uncleanſed; and he has the preference of all the ſilver to take it at one-fourth part leſs than its worth.

The mines and forges of iron are here alſo very numerous, eſpecially in the mountainous parts, where there are commodious water-falls to turn the mills, ſo that beſides the iron uſed in this country, there is yearly exported for near the value of three hundred thouſand livres. At Stockholm, and the caſtle of Jencopingh, near the frontiers of Denmark, are large magazines filled with this metal, brought from Oerbro in Nervia, as opportunities offer, and of which they are continually making all ſorts of fire arms. For what regards theſe mines, there is beſides the inferior courts, and officers eſtabliſhed in many places, a general one, called the College of the Mines, which has its ſeſſions, or aſſemblies at Stockholm, of which the preſident of the treaſury is generally the chief, aſſiſted by a vice-preſident, and other aſſeſſors; the laws are in this more exact and circumſtantial, than thoſe for any other affairs, and juſtice is commonly adminiſtered here with a great deal of care.

This nation has no ſettlements in America, though the great Guſtavus Adolphus had projected a company for the other Indies; and this letters patents given on this occaſion the fourteenth of June, 1626, are yet extant, by which he invited his ſubjects to an engagement in it; but the wars which rendered him ſo famous, and wherein he ſacrificed his life in the arms of victory, hindered the execution of his ſcheme, which died with him, as it is not known that any of his ſucceſſors followed it, at leaſt it was never till lately put in execution; it is true, that in the reign of Chriſtina his daughter, (ſo known and celebrated for her love of the Belles Lettres, and her abdication of the Swediſh crown) her ſubjects attempted ſome ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, where they ſent a colony, and called their eſtabliſhment New Sweden, and the city they built there Chriſtina; but this laſted not long, as they were drove out by the Dutch; and no other eſtabliſhments have been made, or charters granted, either in Aſia or America, till the fourteenth of June, 1731, when his Swediſh majeſty founded a company, by letters patents in favour of Henry Koning, and his aſſociates, whoſe chief end was to commence and regulate a navigation and trade, to certain parts and places in the Eaſt-Indies, where the other powers of Europe had not acquired any juriſdiction or particular right of trade. This patent gives the ſaid company a liberty to ſail to, and trade in all places beyond the Cape of Good-Hope, where other nations have a free commerce, for the ſpace of fifteen years, but they are not to extend their trade to any port belonging to other European princes or ſtates without their leave. The ſhips employed in this trade ſhall always ſail from Gottenburgh, and return there to unload; and the company ſhall pay the king and crown, during the ſaid fifteen years, a hundred dalers ſilbermunt per laſt, for every veſſel they employ and load for the ſaid traffic, according to their ſize: for which purpoſe they ſhall be meaſured before their departure from Gottenburgh, and this impoſt to be paid in Carolins in ſpecie, ſix months after their return; and the company ſhall alſo pay for the goods they ſhall bring from the Eaſt-Indies, two dalers ſilbermunt *per* laſt, in lieu of the city duties. The company may fit out what number of ſhips they think proper, on condition that they be bought or built in Sweden, and furniſhed there with all the neceſſary materials, provided ſuch ſhips and materials are to be had there; but if not, the company has liberty to procure them where moſt convenient, only to regard benefiting the fabricks, products, and manufactures of Sweden if poſſible. The ſaid ſhips ſhall carry the Swediſh merchant colours, and be provided with commiſſions ſigned by his majeſty, and paſſports from Algiers. The company may employ in their trade what funds they judge convenient, and raiſe them either by ſubſcription, or otherwiſe, as they think proper; they may alſo put aboard their veſſels what guns and ammunition they ſhall want; all ſorts of merchandize and products, ſilver coined, or otherwiſe, excepting the ſpecies of the country, bearing the arms of his majeſty and Sweden; and in like manner may bring back, unload, and ſell, whatever goods they will. The ſhips ſhall not be ſtopt from ſailing, or hindered coming into port on their return, on any pretext whatſoever. The wood and materials which the ſaid company ſhall tranſport from one part of Sweden to another, or from any foreign place, for the conſtruction or refitting of their ſhips, ſhall be exempt from all duties, as their neceſſary proviſions and ſtores ſhall be; provided that after their declaration at the cuſtom-houſe, and put under lock and key in the company's warehouſes till the time of their embarking, they pay the cuſtom-houſe one-eighth *per cent.* recognition. But for the products and fruits of Sweden, wherewith the ſhips may be loaden for India, they ſhall pay the cuſtomary duties, according to the tariff, as alſo thoſe of the city. The ſtopping of the goods brought home, on carrying from the ſhips to the magazines, or from one city to another, is prohibited, after payment of thoſe before ſtipulated to the king. The captains ſhall, for the diſcipline of their ſailors and ſoldiers, have the ſame authority, as commanders of the king's ſhips, though they ſhall conform to the company's inſtructions in every particular relative to their navigation and trade, provided they are in nothing contradictory to this preſent grant. None of the equipage of the ſaid ſhip ſhall be forced into the king's ſervice, nor that of any other whatſoever: but it is not permitted to employ other ſoldiers or ſailors who have deſerted his majeſty's ſervice. They have a faculty to arreſt (by the magiſtracy of the place) all ſoldiers or ſailors who ſhall have run away, before the time elapſed, that they had engaged for. The ſhips having delivered, and ſold their homeward-bound cargoes, the purchaſers ſhall pay no export or any other duties, whether they ſend the goods to ſome other port in Sweden, or directly to a foreign one, except one-eighteenth *per cent.* called recognition. The direction of the company ſhall always conſiſt of at leaſt three perſons of experience and probity, who are to be either born or naturalized in Sweden, and reſidents there; and the ſaid company may make ſuch regulations as they ſhall judge convenient, provided they are not contradictory to the articles of this preſent privilege. The company may appoint what number of ſupercargoes, officers, ſailors, ſoldiers, &c. they ſhall deem neceſſary, whether natives or foreigners, which latter ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges as Swediſh ſubjects; or the ſtock of ſtrangers, or others intereſted and engaged in the ſaid company, ſhall not be arreſted on any pretence whatſoever; and his majeſty will naturalize all ſuch as ſhall apply for it, according to their quality and condition. If it happens that the company, or thoſe employed by them, be moleſted, ill uſed, or hindered in their trade by any one, or in any part of the world whatſoever; his majeſty grants them full power to obtain ſatisfaction, and do themſelves juſtice by every convenient means, and to repulſe all violence; regarding thoſe as pirates and public enemies who offer it, his majeſty willing that the ſaid power be expreſsly inſerted, in all the commiſſions he ſhall ſign; and if, contrary to all expectation, the ſaid ſhips ſhould be attacked or taken, his majeſty after having examined the injury done them, and found that they had in nothing acted contrary to the firſt article of this charter, will grant them his protection, and ſufficient power to obtain juſtice, and an entire indemnity, either by way of reprifals, or in the ſpeedieſt manner poſſible. All other ſubjects are prohibited during the ſaid term, to carry on any trade to the Eaſt-Indies, on penalty of his majeſty's diſpleaſure, and confiſcation of their ſhips, effects, &c. His majeſty promiſes to change or augment

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the privileges contained in the preſent, if it ſhall be found neceſſary, for the promotion of the ſaid commerce. Given at Stockholm at the ſenate, &c.

SWEEP-WASHER. Thoſe of this buſineſs, which is a very profitable one, purchaſe the ſweepings of all the workers in gold and ſilver, and alſo refiner's aſhes. Theſe aſhes, or duſt, are well waſhed from their impurities; then put in a veſſel into which quickſilver is poured, and by conſtantly ſtirring it about, the mercury attracts whatever metal is in the duſt: when they fancy the quickſilver has done its office, it is taken out and waſhed, and then diſtilled from the other metals which are left at the bottom, and being melted together in a lump, are carried to the refiner, who knows how to ſeparate them. There are but few maſters in this way; and thoſe take no apprentices, but uſe labourers to do their work. A maſter may ſet up with fifty dounds.

SWEETS, penalty of concealing ſweets, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 16.

To what duties liable, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 3. 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 2, 3, 4. 5 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 5.

What to be deemed ſweets, and who the makers thereof for ſale, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 5.

Sweets not to be removed without a permit, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 22.

A leſs duty laid on ſweets, and extended to made wines, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17.

Wines of Britiſh grapes exempted, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 7.

Made wines not to be retailed without licence, 10 *G.* II. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 10.

Retailers of ſweets or made wines to take out licences, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 7.

SWINE *or* HOGS, ſhall not go unringed in woods, 35 *H.* VIII. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 17.

Forfeiture for keeping ſwine in London, &c. 2 *W.* and *M. ſeſs.* 2. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 20. 8 and 9 *W.* III. *c.* 37. *ſ.* 4. *See* CATTLE.

SWITZERLAND. The Swiſs, ſo famous for their candour, fidelity, and bravery, are alſo equally celebrated for the trade which the principal cities of their cantons tranſact with ſtrangers. The ſituation of their country between France, Germany and Italy, joined to the profound peace they bave always enjoyed, and to the facility of tranſportation, by means of the rivers Rhine and Rhône that flow from their territories, occaſions their traffic with thoſe ſtates, and the Low Countries, to be very conſiderable, eſpecially in the time of war, between the powers who poſſeſs them. By the Rhine, Switzerland has a communication with the ocean; by the Rhône with the Mediterranean; and it may be ſaid, that it even makes the communication of the two ſeas; ſince that of the Rhone may be gone up as far as Seyſſel, ſeven leagues from Geneva, where the goods embarked for Morges, are tranſported to Yverdun, and from thence go by water, even to Holland; there being a canal of communication between Morges and Yverdun begun, and which may be finiſhed at a ſmall expence.

Within land, the tranſportation of goods from one place to another is eaſily performed by means of the rivers with which it abounds, notwithſtanding the mountains croſs the country in many places.

Switzerland is in no lack of any commodity neceſſary to the ſupport of life; wood, corn, wine, cattle, ſheep (whoſe wool may be employed in making cloathing) and flax, are here in great abundance; ſo that ſalt in part is their only want; but the Tirol, Franche-Compte, and Bavaria, are forward to furniſh it, ſo that this article is not an object of commerce, being one of the revenues of the ſtate, who alone manage this buſineſs, and ſell this commodity at a very moderate price: ſometime ſince a mine of rock ſalt was diſcovered near Aigle in the canton of Berne, on the frontiers of Valay; but this, at moſt, can only furniſh one third of what is neceſſary for the country of Vaud.

France furniſhes towards the general imports of this country, ſalt from Franche-Compte; wine from Burgundy; gold, ſilver, and ſilk manufactures from Lyons; and many light woollen ſtuffs, made in the provinces bordering on the cantons.

It has from Germany all ſorts of mercery, and particularly from Nuremberg a great quantity of hard-ware; and hides from Frankfort.

Italy, eſpecially Piedmont, ſends it ordinary ſilks, organzines, and fleurets ſpun, unſpun, or raw; and Holland ſupplies it with cloth, ſerges, flannels, callimancoes, painted linens, muſlins, cambricks, cotton, ivory, dying and medicinal drugs, ſpice, tea, chocolate, whalebone, Ruſſia hides, and India ſilks.

If we examine what Switzerland imports from foreign parts, eſpecially from France, it will be found that it is luxury, more than neceſſity, obliges it to have recourſe there; ſo that ſome cantons, convinced of this truth, and perſuaded that good magiſtrates ought to endeavour as much as is dependant on them to eradicate this vice, have enacted ſumptuary laws, prohibiting jewels, and the uſe of all gold and ſilver in their furniture, or on their cloaths; ſilks of an exceſſive price, and even the entry of foreign wine, is ſeverely forbidden in the canton of Berne, which laws are regarded as a means to hinder the coin from going out of the country.

The commodities which either the growth or manufacture of Switzerland produce, are various, according to the different genius of the natives in their reſpective ſituations, which may be ſeen deſcribed in their alphabetical order.

SWORD CUTLER. The profits ariſing from this buſineſs are very conſiderable to the maſter; but it requires no extraordinary judgment, nor any uncommon learning or bodily ſtrength, in the youth who is to be put apprentice to it. The ſword-cutler frequently deals in the goods ſold by the common cutler; but he is here to be conſidered as only concerned in mounting ſwords, making ſcabbards, &c. The blades are not always made by the ſword-cutler; for thoſe called by this name frequently do no more than mount them. The handles, if of plate, are made by a claſs of ſilver-ſmiths who make nothing elſe; and, if of braſs, by the founder. The ſword-cutler has ſome relation to the ſmith, as he uſes the file and the hammer in putting on his hilts; and to the ſhoe-maker, as he uſes the awl in finiſhing the ſcabbards. Thoſe of this buſineſs keep ſhop, and take about twenty pounds with an apprentice, who, when out of his time, may earn about fifteen ſhillings a week; or, with about two hundred pounds, may ſet up for himſelf.

Sword-hilts, ſilver ſword-hilts may be exported, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 28.

SYMPATHETIC INKS, are ſuch as can be made to appear and diſappear very ſuddenly, by the application of ſomething which ſeems to work by ſimpathy.

Of theſe we have ſome very curious inſtances and experiments, given us by Lemery and Mr. Boyle, to the following effect. 1. To two or three parts of unſlaked lime put one of yellow orpiment, powder and mix the two, adding fifteen or ſixteen times as much water as there was orpiment; ſtop up the vial with a cork and bladder, and ſet it in warm embers. Shake the vial now and then for five hours, and warily decant the clear part, or rather filtrate it. In the mean time, burn a piece of cork thoroughly, and, when well inflamed, quench it in common water, or rather in brandy. Being thus reduced into a friable coal, grind it with fair water, wherein gum arabic has been diſſolved, and it will make a liquor as black as the common ink.

While theſe are doing, diſſolve in three times as much diſtilled or ſtrong vinegar, over warm embers, a quantity of red lead, or of *ſaccharum ſaturni*, in thrice the quantity of water, for three or four hours, or till the liquor have a ſweet taſte. This liquor will be as clear as common water.

The liquors thus prepared, write any thing on paper with this laſt ſort, dry it, and nothing will appear. Over the place, write what you pleaſe with the ſecond liquor; it will appear as if written with common ink: when dry, dip a ſmall piece of razor ſponge in the firſt liquor, rub it over the written place, and tbe black writing will vaniſh; and that wrote with inviſible ink, appear black and legible.

Again, take a book four or five inches thick, and on the firſt leaf write any thing with the laſt liquor: turn to the other end of the book, and rub there with a rag, dipped

ped in the firſt liquor, on that part, as near as you can gueſs, oppoſite to the writing; and leave alſo the rag there, clapping a paper over it; then nimbly ſhutting the book, ſtrike four or five ſmart ſtrokes thereon with your hand, and, turning the other ſide uppermoſt, clap it into a preſs, or lay it under a good weight for a quarter of an hour, or even half the time: then will the writing done with the inviſible ink be found black and legible. 2. Diſſolve white or green vitriol in water, and, writing with the ſolution, nothing will appear. Boil galls in water, and dip a linen rag in the decoction, and with it rub the place before writ, and it will appear black and legible. Rub it over again with ſpirit of vitriol, or its oil, and the writing will diſappear again: rub it over again with oil of tartar *per deliquium*, the letters will appear again, but of a yellow colour.

SYRUP, SYRUPUS, *or* SIRUPUS, in pharmacy, is a liquid form of medicines prepared of decoctions, juices, or infuſions, preſerved by means of honey or ſugar, and reduced to ſuch a conſiſtence, that a drop let fall on a marble does not ſpread.

Syrups, like all other officinal preparations, may be made to anſwer various intentions, and, conſequently, may be either of a cooling, heating, drying, inciding, expectorating, incraſſating, diuretic, ſudorific, lithontriptic, alexiterial, or corroborating quality, according to the different virtues of the ſeveral ingredients of which they are prepared.

General rules for the making of ſyrups.

1. The ſugar employed for making ſyrups made without coction, ſhould firſt be boiled with water to a candy conſiſtence; obſerving to clarify it with the white of eggs, and by deſpumation. But the whiteſt and pureſt ſugar, and ſugar candy, do not require this labour. The ſugar thus prepared ought afterwards to be powdered, that it may diſſolve the eaſier.

2. Though a double weight of ſugar, in proportion to the liquor, may be required in making ſuch ſyrups; yet a leſs proportion will generally ſuffice. Firſt, therefore, diſſolve only an equal quantity of ſugar; then, by degrees, add a little more in powder, till it remain undiſſolved at the bottom, to be afterwards incorporated by the gentle heat of a water bath.

3. Acid ſyrups, or thoſe made with the juices of fruits, ſhould not be put into copper veſſels, unleſs ſuch as are tinned.

4. What ſhould be obſerved of decoctions in general, is alſo to be underſtood of decoctions for ſyrups. The vegetables, uſed either for decoctions or infuſions, are to be moderately dried, unleſs they are expreſly required freſh gathered.

5. Syrups made by coction are to be clarified with the white of eggs, except diacodium; which, therefore, requires the pureſt ſugar.

The ſolutive and purging ſyrups ought rather to be made of brown ſugar.

# T.

## TAC

T A conſonant, and the nineteenth letter in the alphabet, among the ancients was uſed as a numeral letter, ſignifying 160.

When a daſh was added a-top thus, $\overline{T}$, it ſignified 160,000.

TABBY, in commerce, a kind of coarſe taffety watered. It is manufactured like the common taffety, excepting that it is ſtronger and thicker both in the woof and warp.

TABBYING, the paſſing a ſtuff under the calendar, to make a repreſentation of waves thereon, as on a tabby.

TABELLION, a notary public, or ſcrivener allowed by authority to ingroſs and regiſter private contracts and obligations.

TACAMAHACCA is a ſolid reſinous ſubſtance, brought from New Spain: it is ſaid to be collected likewiſe in certain other provinces of America, and in the iſland of Madagaſcar. There are two ſorts of it to be ſometimes met with. The beſt is called tacamahacca in ſhells: this is a concrete reſin, ſomewhat unctuous and ſoftiſh, of a pale yellowiſh or green colour, collected in a kind of ſhells made from the rind of certain fruits of the gourd kind, and covered over with leaves: its ſmell is exceeding fragrant and delightful, approaching to that of lavendar and ambergreaſe; its taſte, reſinous and aromatic. This ſort is very rarely to be met with: that commonly found in the ſhops is in ſemi-tranſparent grains or globes, of a whitiſh, yellowiſh, browniſh, or greeniſh colour, of a fragrant ſmell, approaching to that of the foregoing, but leſs grateful. Tacamahacca crumbles at firſt between the teeth, but when chewed a little, ſticks together.

## TAL

Tacamahacca is greatly recommended by ſome in diſorders of the breaſt and lungs; at preſent it is very ſeldom uſed internally, but externally it is in repute for ſoftening tumours, and mitigating pain. It is ſpread on leather, and laid behind the ears, for the tooth-ach, and to ſtop defluxions on the eyes; and to the navel, to relieve women in hyſteric complaints. Applied in the ſame manner to the region of the ſtomach, it is ſaid to aſſiſt digeſtion, diſpel flatus's, and promote the appetite. It is alſo an ingredient in ſome of the compoſitions of the ſhops.

TACKLE, *or* TACKLING, in navigation, includes all the ropes or cordage of a ſhip, whereby the ſails, &c. are managed.

TACKLES, are more particularly uſed for ſmall ropes running in three parts, having at one end a pendant with a block faſtened to them, or elſe a lannier; and at the other end a block and hook to hang goods upon that are to be hoiſted on board the ſhip, or out of her. There are ſeveral kinds of theſe tackles; as the boat tackles, ſerving to hoiſt the boat in and out, commonly called the yard and ſtay tackles. Loof tackles, for the aſſiſtance of the weather ſhrouds to keep the maſt from ſtraining in bad weather: Gunner's tackles, with which the ordnance is managed, &c.

TAEL, called by the Chineſe, Leam, is a ſmall weight of China, equal to one ounce and two dragmes. *See* CATI, MACE, *and* CONDORIN.

TAFFETY, in commerce, a kind of fine, ſmooth, ſilken ſtuff, having uſually a remarkable luſtre or gloſs.

TALC, *or* TALK, in natural hiſtory, a ſhining, ſqua-

France, Sarrafins, or Sarrafinois. It is fuppofed that the Engliſh and Flemiſh, who were the firſt that excelled in making tapeſtry, might bring the art with them from ſome of the croiſades or expeditions againſt the Saracens.

Be this as it will, it is certain, thoſe two nations, eſpecially the Flemiſh, were the firſt who ſet on foot this noble and rich manufacture in Europe, now one of the fineſt ornaments of palaccs, churches, &c.

And therefore, if they may not be allowed to be the inventors, they have at leaſt the glory of being the reſtorers of this ſo curious and admirable art, as gives a kind of life to wools and ſilks in no reſpect inferior to the paintings of the beſt maſters.

It was late before the French applied themſelves to tapeſtry. The firſt eſtabliſhment of that kind was under Henry IV. in the year 1607, in the Fauxbourg of St. Michael; but this fell with the death of that prince. This manufacture was revived in the time of Lewis XIV. by the care and addreſs of the great monſieur Colbert, to whom the eſtabliſhment of the gobelin is owing, a royal tapeſtry manufacture, which has produced works in this kind, ſcarce inferior to the fineſt Engliſh or Flemiſh tapeltry, either as to the deſigns, the colours, or the firmneſs.

Tapeſtry-work is diſtinguiſhed by the workmen into two kinds, viz. that of high and that of low work; though the difference is rather in the manner of working than in the work itſelf, which is in effect the ſame in both, only the looms, and conſequently the warps, are differently ſituated.

Thoſe of the low warp being placed flat and parallel to the horizon, and thoſe on the contrary of the high warp erected perpendicularly. The Engliſh anciently excelled all the world in the tapeſtry of the high warp, and they ſtill retain their former reputation, though with ſome little change; their low warps are ſtill admired: but as for their high ones, they are quite laid aſide by the French.

The French have three conſiderable tapeſtry manufactures beſides that of the gobelins; the firſt at Aubuſſon, in Auvergne; the ſecond is at Fellatin, in the Upper Marche; and the third at Beauvais.

They were all equally eſtabliſhed for the high and the low warp; but they have all laid aſide the high warp, excepting the gobelins.

There are admirable low warps in Flanders, generally exceeding thoſe of France: the chief and almoſt only Flemiſh manufactures are at Bruſſels, Antwerp, Oudenard, Liſle, Tournay, Bruges, and Valenciennes.

At Bruſſels and Antwerp, they ſucceed both in human figures, in animals, and landſkips; and that both with regard to the deſigns and the workmanſhip.

At Oudenard, their landſkips and animals are good, but their human figures bad. Liſle, and the other cities named, come behind Oudenard.

The French manufactures of Felletin do tolerably well in the landſkips, Aubuſſon in figures, and Beauvies in both.

The uſual widths of tapeſtries are from two ells to three ells Paris-meaſure.

*The manufactures of* TAPESTRY *of the high warp.* The loom wherein it is wrought, is placed perpendicularly; it conſiſts of four principal pieces, two long planks or cheeks of wood, and two thick rollers or beams.

The planks are ſet upright, and the beams acroſs them, one at the top, and the other at the bottom, at about a foot diſtance from the ground.

They have each their trunnions, by which they are ſuſpended in the planks, and are turned with bars.

In each roller is a groove from one end to the other, capable of containing a long round piece of wood, faſtened therein with hooks. The uſe of it is to tie the end of the warp to.

The warp, which is a kind of worſted, or twiſted woollen thread, is wound on the upper roller; and the work, as faſt as wove, is wound on the lower.

Within ſide the planks, which are ſeven or eight feet high, fourteen or fifteen inches broad, and three or four thick, are holes pierced from top to bottom, in which are put thick pieces of iron, with hooks at one end, ſerving to ſuſtain the coat ſtave: theſe pieces of iron have alſo holes pierced, by putting a pin in which the ſtave is drawn nearer or ſet further off; and thus the coats or threads are ſtretched or looſened at pleaſure.

The coat-ſtave is about three inches diameter, and runs all the length of the loom; on this are fixed the coats or threads, which make the threads of the warp croſs each other. It has much the ſame effect here, as the ſpring-ſtave and treddles have in the common looms.

The coats are little threads faſtened to each thread of the warp, with a kind of ſliding knot, which forms a kind of maſh or ring. They ſerve to keep the warp open for the paſſage of broaches wound with ſilks, woollens, or other matters uſed in the piece of tapeſtry.

In the laſt place, there are a number of little ſticks of different lengths, but all about an inch diameter, which the workman keeps by him in baſkets, to ſerve to make the threads of the warp croſs each other, by paſſing them acroſs: and that the threads thus croſſed may retain their proper ſituation, a packthread is run among the threads, above the ſtick.

The loom being thus formed, and mounted with its warp, the firſt thing the workman does, is to draw on the threads of this warp, the principal lines and ſtrokes of the deſign to be repreſented on the piece of tapeſtry; which is done by applying cartoons, made from the painting he intends to copy, to the ſide that is to be the wrong ſide of the piece, and then with a black-lead pencil following and tracing out the contours thereof on the thread of the right ſide; ſo that the ſtrokes appear equally both before and behind.

As for the original deſign the work is to be finiſhed by, it is hung up behind the workmen, and wound on a long ſtaff from which a piece is unrolled from time to time, as the work proceeds.

Beſides the loom, &c. here deſcribed, there are three other principal inſtruments required for working the ſilk or the wool of the woof within the threads of the warp; theſe are a broach, a reed, and an iron needle.

The broach is made of a hard wood, ſeven or eight inches long, and two thirds of an inch thick, ending in a point with a little handle. This ſerves as a ſhuttle; the ſilks, woollens, gold, or ſilver to be uſed in the work, being wound on it.

The reed or comb is alſo of wood, eight or nine inches long, and an inch thick on the back; whence it grows leſs and leſs to the extremity of the teeth, which are more or leſs apart, according to the greater or leſſer degree of fineneſs of the intended work.

Laſtly, the needle is in form of the common needle, only bigger and longer. Its uſe is to preſs cloſe the wool and ſilks, when there is any line or colour that does not fit well.

All things being prepared for the work, and the workman ready to begin, he places himſelf on the wrong ſide of the piece, with his back towards the deſign; ſo that he works as it were blindfold, ſeeing nothing of what he does, and being obliged to quit his poſt and go to the other ſide of the loom, whenever he would view and examine the piece, to correct it with his preſſing needle.

To put any ſilk, &c. in the warp, he firſt turns and looks at the deſign, then taking a broach full of the proper colour, he places it among the threads of the warp, which he brings croſs each other with his fingers, by means of the coats or threads faſtened to the ſtaff; this he repeats every time he is to change his colour.

Having placed the ſilk or wool, he beats it with his reed or comb; and when he has thus wrought in ſeveral rows over each other, he goes to ſee the effect they have, in order to reform the contours with his needle, if there be occaſion.

As the work advances, it is rolled upon the lower beam; and, when he has thus wrought, they roll it upon the lower beam, and unroll as much warp from the upper beam as ſuffices them to continue the piece; the like they do of the deſign behind them.

When the pieces are wide, ſeveral workmen may be employed at once.

We have but two things to add; the firſt is, that this high warp tapeſtry goes on much more ſlowly than the low warp, and takes up almoſt twice the time and trouble.

The ſecond is, that all the difference that the eye can obſerve between the two kinds conſiſts in this, that in the low

low warp, there is a red fillet about one twelfth of an inch broad, running on each ſide from top to bottom; which is wanting in the high warp.

*The manufacture of* TAPESTRY *of the low warp.* The loom or frame wherein the low warp is wrought, is much like that of the weavers; the principal parts thereof are two ſtrong pieces of wood, forming the ſides of the loom, and bearing a beam or roller at each end: they are ſuſtained at bottom with other long pieces of wood, in manner of treſſels; and, to keep them the firmer, are likewiſe faſtened to the floor with a kind of buttreſſes, which prevent any ſhaking, though there are ſometimes four or five workmen leaning on the beam at once.

The rollers have each their trunnions, by which they are ſuſtained; they are turned by large iron pins three feet long.

Along each beam runs a groove, in which is placed the wich, a piece of wood of above two inches diameter, and almoſt the length of the roller: this piece fills the groove intirely, and is faſtened therein from ſpace to ſpace by wooden pins.

To the two wiches are faſtened the two extremities of the warp, which is wound on the further roller, and, the work as it advances, on the nearer.

Acroſs the two ſides, almoſt in the middle of the loom, paſſes a wooden bar, which ſuſtains little pieces of wood, not unlike the beam of a balance: to theſe pieces are faſtened ſtrings, which bear certain ſpring-ſtaves, wherewith the workman by means of two treddles under the loom, on which he ſets his feet, gives a motion to the coats, and makes the threads of the warp riſe and fall alternately.

Each loom has more or fewer of theſe ſpring-ſtaves, and each ſtave more or fewer coats, as the tapeſtry conſiſts of more or fewer threads.

The deſign or painting the tapeſtry-man is to follow, is placed underneath the warp, where it is ſuſtained from ſpace to ſpace with ſtrings, by which the deſign is brought nearer to the warp. The loom being mounted, there are two inſtruments uſed in working of it, viz. the reed and the flute.

The flute does the office of the weaver's ſhuttle: it is made of a hard poliſhed wood three or four lines thick at the end, and ſomewhat more in the middle, and three or four inches long. On it are wound the ſilks or other matters, to be uſed as the woof of the tapeſtry.

The comb or reed is of wood or ivory; it has uſually teeth on both ſides; it is about an inch thick in the middle, but diminiſhes each way to the extremity of the teeth; this ſerves to beat the threads of the woof cloſe to each other, as faſt as the workman has paſſed and placed them with his flute among the threads of the warp.

The workman is ſeated on a bench before the loom, with his breaſt againſt the beam, only a cuſhion or pillow between them; and in this poſture ſeparating with his fingers the threads of the warp, that he may ſee the deſign underneath; and taking a flute, wound with the proper colour, he faſtens it among the threads, after having raiſed or lowered them by means of the treddles, moving the ſpring-ſtaves and coats.

Laſtly, to preſs and cloſe the threads of the ſilk or yarn, &c. this place he ſtrikes each courſe (i. e. what the flute leaves in its paſſing and coming back again) with the reed.

That which is very remarkable in the manufacture of the low warp, and which is common to it with the high, is, that it is all wrought on the wrong ſide; ſo that the workman cannot ſee the right ſide of his tapeſtry, until the piece is finiſhed and taken out of the loom.

TAR, or TARR, a groſs pitchy liquor iſſuing from the trunks of old pines or firs.

When theſe trees are on the turn, and only fit for burning, they cut off the bark all around next the root, and through theſe inciſions there continues flowing, for a conſiderable time, a blackiſh liquor, which is the tar. When this ceaſes, it is a ſure ſign the pine is dead, and only fit for the fire. The uſe of tar is for coating and caulking ſhips, and many other intentions at ſea. *See* NAVAL STORES.

TARE *and* TRET, in commerce, any defect, waſte, or diminution in the weight, the quantity, or the quality of goods.

*Tare* is more particularly uſed for an abatement, or deduction in the price of a commodity, on account of the weight of cheſts, caſks, bags, frails, &c.

TARE, *or* TARRE, money of the Malabar coaſt, is a ſilver coin worth ſix deniers Tournois; ſixteen of them make one fanan, which is a ſmall piece of gold worth eight French ſols.

TARIF, *or* TARRIF, book of rates, a table or catalogue drawn uſually in alphabetical order, containing the names of ſeveral kinds of merchandize, with the duties or cuſtoms to be paid for the ſame as ſettled by authority, and agreed on between the ſeveral princes and ſtates that hold commerce together.

TARNISHING, a diminution of the natural luſtre of any thing, eſpecially a metal.

Gold and ſilver, when tarniſhed, reſume their brightneſs, by ſetting them over the fire with certain lies. Copper and pewter, &c. that are tarniſhed, recover their luſtre with tripoli and pot-aſhes.

TARPAULIN, *or* TARPAWLING, a piece of canvas well pitched and tarred over to keep off the rain or ſalt-water from any place. The term is alſo uſed in deriſion to a perſon bred at ſea, and educated in the mariners art.

TARTANE, a kind of bark uſed for fiſhing and carriage: they are fluſh fore and aft, and commonly uſe oars. They are numerous in the Mediterranean: they have only a main-maſt and a mizen: their ſails are triangular. When they put up a ſquare ſail, it is called a ſail of fortune.

TARTAR, is the eſſential ſalt of wine, or of the juice of the grape, thrown off to the ſides of the containing veſſel, after the liquor has undergone a compleat vinous fermentation. It appears of two different colours, white and red, according to the wine it is obtained from: the red ſort is generally looked upon as leſs pure and more earthy than the white. Of either ſort, ſuch as is clean, ſolid, ſomewhat tranſparent, having its outſide covered over with ſhining cryſtals, is preferable to ſuch as is porous, opaque, droſſy and leſs bright. This ſubſtance, though truly ſaline, is ſcarcely at all acted upon by cold water; and the cryſtals, or purified tartar, require twenty-four times their weight of boiling water to diſſolve in. The ſolutions of both the tartars paſs the filter colourleſs, and ſhoot in the cold into white ſemi-tranſparent cryſtals. All ſuch earths as are ſoluble in vinegar, render tartar more readily ſoluble in water. Hence the refiners are ſaid to uſe a ſaponaceous earth to promote its ſolution, which may occaſion ſuch an alteration, as to render the better ſorts of white tartar preferable, on many occaſions, to the common cryſtals, or cream of tartar. Lime-water is an active menſtruum with regard to theſe ſalts, and may be ſo managed as to diſſolve half its own weight. Fixed alkaline ſalts, mixed with a ſmall portion of water, are ſtill more powerful diſſolvents, and may be made to take up near three times their own quantity. Tartar expoſed to the fire in cloſe veſſels, yields firſt an aqueous liquor, then a weak acid one, which is followed by a dark coloured empyreumatic oil; a light ſpongy coal remains, which being burnt to aſhes, affords a large portion of fixed alkaline ſalt. Pure tartar, taken in a doſe, not exceeding an ounce, in fine powder, proves a gentle, though effectual purgative in many caſes. Angelus Sala relates, that he was cured of an habitual colic, by purging himſelf, a few times, with two drams of this ſalt, although he had tried many other medicines to no purpoſe.

TARTARY. The Tartars are at preſent maſters of a third part of Aſia, and their country (commonly called Great Tartary, to diſtinguiſh it from the Leſſer, which is in Europe) is ſituated between ſeventy-five and an hundred and fifty degrees of longitude, and from thirty-eight to fifty-two degrees of north latitude, theſe people now poſſeſſing all the north of Aſia, and at preſent divided into three different nations, viz. the Tartars, properly ſo called; the Calmoucks, and the Moungales; for though all thoſe Pagans that are diſperſed about Siberia, are without doubt deſcended from the Tartars, yet they are not now conſidered as a part of them, but regarded as a ſavage people. The Tartars, particularly ſo named, inhabit the weſtern parts towards the Caſpian ſea, and are all Mahometans; the Calmoucks are in the middle of Great Tartary; and the Moungales near the Oriental ſea, but both idolaters. The firſt are ſubdivided into many branches; and the

Moungales into tribes, or branches of tribes: and Great Tartary does not belong to one ſovereign only (as many have believed) but is poſſeſſed by the czar of Muſcovy, the emperor of China, and by many petty chans, or princes, who reign over large provinces.

This vaſt country is under the fineſt climate in the univerſe, and of an extraordinary goodneſs and fertility; but as it is one of the higheſt tracts of inhabited land, it wants water in many parts, though waſhed by nine principal rivers, viz. the Amur, Schingal, Selinga, Jeniſca, Amu, Kheſell, Jaick, Irtis, and the Oby, and therefore is only cultivated on their borders, and this but juſt where neceſſity drives the inhabitants to; for the Calmoucks and Moungales never uſe any agriculture, and only live on what their cattle produce them; and their vagabond life is owing to their want of farming, which conſtrains them to change their habitations in conformity to the ſeaſons, occupying the northern country in the ſummer, and the ſouthern in the winter.

And Great Tartary has this particularity, that it produces no trees of any height, except towards the frontiers, and there only in ſome few places; for all that are found in the heart of the country are only ſhrubs, not exceeding man's height; but in recompence hereof, the mountains furniſh the natives with a large quantity of wild goats, white bears, black foxes, ermines, ſables, and gluttons (a fleſh-eating animal, a little ſmaller than a wolfe) whoſe furs, with rhubarb, ginſeng root, ſilk, wool and muſk, conſtitute the trade of the northern, eaſtern, and ſouthern part of the country; but the Tartars which inhabit the weſt, on the borders of the Caſpian ſea, regard all trade as a matter beneath them, and glory in robbing the merchants who paſs through their territories, or at leaſt exact ſo on them, as to make them loſe all deſire of returning among them; and indeed, all theſe Mahometan Tartars live on the rapine and ſpoil, which they pillage from their neighbours, whether in peace or war; in which they are very different from the Calmoucks and Moungales, who, although they are Pagans, live quietly on the products of their flocks, and offend no one, unleſs they are firſt moleſted: of theſe ſome have fixed habitations, though others have neither towns nor villages, but live in tents, and wander from one place to another, according as the conveniency of paſturage invites; and they all ſupport themſelves by equinine food, as we do by that of oxen and cows, of which latter they rarely eat, but live chiefly on horſe fleſh, and make uſe of mare's milk, as the Europeans do of that of their kine. The Tartars have ſo ſtrong a paſſion for the colour red, that not only their princes and ladies, but even the common people (through all the north of Aſia) would do more for a piece of ſtuff with this dye, than for four times the value in gold and ſilver.

The chief city of the eaſtern, or Nieucheu-Moungales, is Naun; that of the weſtern, or Calcha-Moungales, Argunſkoy. The kingdom of Tangut, or Baghargar, is divided into two parts, of which the ſouthern is properly called Tibet; this kingdom is now in the hands of the Calmoucks, and is the peculiar patrimony of Dala-Lama, the ſovereign pontiff of all the Pagan Tartars, who by ſome has been confounded with Preſter-John. The capital of this kingdom is Barantola, in whoſe neighbourhood is gathered a quantity of rhubarb, &c. and at Tarzinda is a mine of gold extremely rich, at the foot of the mountains, which ſeparate the lands of Contaiſch, from thoſe of China, to the eaſt of the deſerts of Goby, of which the Chineſe have taken poſſeſſion, and have eſtabliſhed here ſome colonies of the Moungalians. *See* BOUCHARIE, CALMOUCKS.

TASOT. *See* COBDE.

TASSEL-MAKERS. Theſe are more frequently women than men. They make taſſels for pulpit-cuſhions, window-curtains, cords, and for a variety of other uſes. Theſe taſſels are made of gold or ſilver thread, ſilk, mohair, or worſted, worked over a mould. When taſſels were worn by the ladies to their manteels, this was an exceeding good employment, and many families got a genteel maintenance by it; but now, I believe, it is hardly worth learning. The makers take girls out of the ſchools, and pariſh children with little or no money; who, if good hands, may, when out of their time, be able to get ſix or eight ſhillings a week as journeywomen; or may ſet up with a very little; all materials being found by the lace or worſted-men, their employers.

TAWING, ſkinning, the art or manner of preparing or dreſſing ſkins in white, to fit them for uſe in divers manufactures, particularly gloves, purſes, &c.

All kinds of ſkins may be tawed; but it is chiefly thoſe of ſheep, lambs, kids, and goats, that are uſed to be dreſſed this way, as being thoſe fitteſt for gloves.

TAX, was ſuch a tribute as being certainly rated upon every town, was wont to be yearly paid, but now not without conſent in parliament, as ſubſidies are. It differs from a ſubſidy in this, that it is always certain, as it is ſet down in the exchequer book, and levied in general of every town, and not particularly of every man.

It is alſo called a fifteenth, *ſtat.* 14 *Ed.* 3. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 20. and 9 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 7.

It ſeems that in antient time, this tax was impoſed by the king at his pleaſure; but Edward the Firſt, bound himſelf and his ſucceſſors, from that time forward, not to levy it but by conſent of the realm, *ſtat.* 25 *Ea.* I. *c.* 5.

Taxes granted to the king ſhall not be drawn into cuſtoms. *Conf. Chart.* 25 *Ed.* I. *c.* 5.

Aid ſhall not be taken out but by common aſſent. *Conf. Chart.* 25 *Ed.* I. *c.* 6. 13 *Car.* II. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 4.

No tallage or aid ſhall be taken without common aſſent, *ſtat. de tallag. non conced.* 34 *Ed.* I. *ſt.* 4. *c.* 1.

Aids granted to the king ſhall be levied after the old manner, 1 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 6.

Impoſitions ſhall not be ſet upon ſtaple merchandize without aſſent of parliament, 45 *Ed.* III. *c.* 4. 11 *R.* II. *c.* 9.

Goods ſhall be charged to a fifteen, where they were at the time of granting it, 9 *H.* IV. *c.* 7.

A collector of fifteens ſhall have debt againſt his companions for what he ſhall pay in their default, 9 *H.* V. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 10.

A collector in a city ſhall not be appointed in a county, unleſs he have lands of the value of five pounds a year, 18 *H.* VI. *c.* 5.

Subſidies granted, 31 *H.* VI. *c.* 8. 11 *H.* VII. *c.* 10.

The ſubjects ſhall not be charged with any charge in nature of a benevolence, 1 *R.* III. *c.* 2.

Collectors of public money may plead the general iſſue, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 17.

A tax laid on ſtocks in trade, 1 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 15.

Duty on places and penſions, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22.

Military offices exempted, 31 *Geo.* II. *c.* 22. *ſ.* 24.

Duties on places, &c. how paid, 32 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33.

Offences againſt acts for paying land-tax, &c. excepted out of general pardon. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 52. *ſ.* 28, 35, 39. *See.* 20 *Vin. Abr.* 157---162.

TAYLOR. This is a trade too well known to need a particular deſcription. Though cuſtom has rendered the taylor contemptible among the vulgar; yet, to many who think themſelves very pretty gentlemen, he is a man of vaſt importance: ſince to him, their barber, and dancing-maſter, they owe the high advantage of being acceptable to the ladies, who are too frequently fond of the mere outſide, and prefer a fool decked out in lace and embroidery to the man of ſenſe in a plain habit. The lad intended for this buſineſs ſhould have good eyes, a tolerable genteel perſon, and a good behaviour, as his ſucceſs in trade will a good deal depend there; for an aukward taylor will not be acceptable to the fine gentlemen, who make dreſs a matter of vaſt concern, and theſe are perhaps the taylor's beſt cuſtomers: but as to learning, very little is neceſſary, more than writing and accounts. The taylors take with an apprentice from ten to thirty pounds, their working hours are from ſix to eight; but in caſes of public mourning, or other extraordinary occaſions, they work all night, and on Sundays. As journeymen, they get in general fifteen ſhillings a week when employed; but are often out of buſineſs in winter, except they are uncommon good hands. Two or three hundred pounds will ſet up one in a middling way, though ſome at the court end of the town employ as many thouſands.

Regulations of journeymen taylors in London, 7 *Geo.* I. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 13.

TEA, *or* THEA, the leaf of a ſhrub, growing in ſeveral provinces of China, Japan, and Siam.

The people who deal in tea diſtinguiſh a vaſt many kinds of it, as they differ in colour, flavour, and in ſize of the leaf. Theſe are all, however, the leaves of the ſame tree, only differing according to the ſeaſons at which they are gathered, and the manner of their drying. To enumerate thoſe ſeveral ſub-diſtinctions more and leſs, the general diviſion is into three kinds: the ordinary green tea, the fine green tea, and the bohea; to one or other of theſe all the other kinds may be referred.

The orientals extol tea as the greateſt of all medicines, and make it a remedy for almoſt all diſorders. We do not find ſuch wonderful effects from it here, and ſome have attributed this to our intemperate way of living, or to our not taking the tea in ſufficient ſtrength and quantity. It is more probable, however, that the Chineſe and Japoneſe, in the manner of the Eaſt in all other things, cry up what is of any value, much more than it deſerves.

Tea, moderately and properly taken, acts as a gentle aſtringent and corroborative. It ſtrengthens the ſtomach and bowels, and is good againſt nauſeous indigeſtions and diarrhœa's. It acts alſo as a diuretic and diaphoretic; but its virtues, in theſe particulars, are in a great meaſure to be attributed to the quantity of warm-water drank on the occaſion. The leaves, in powder, act as an aſtringent, but have nothing of this diuretic quality. The good qualities of tea do not prevent its often doing harm. The immoderate uſe of it has been very prejudicial to many, and ought to be avoided by all. Even in China, where the virtues of it are ſo much extolled, the people, who drink it to great exceſs, are often thrown into a diabetes, and die emaciated by it.

Tea, counterfeited, adulterated, manufactured with terra Japonica, or any drug, or mixed with any ingredient, is forfeited, with the ingredients, and one hundred pounds. 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 5.

May not be imported but from the place of its growth, though formerly exported from hence, nor upon any other pretence, upon forfeiture thereof, 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 7.

The importation from any foreign parts by licence repealed, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 3. 3 and 4 *Ann. c.* 4. *ſ.* 6. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 45, 46. 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 12.

Tea, ſeized, which cannot be ſold at a public ſale for five ſhillings per pound, may be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed; and the ſeizer rewarded as the commiſſioners ſhall think fit, not exceeding eighteen-pence per pound, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 3.

Any dealers in tea, who ſhall dye, fabricate, or manufacture any ſloe-leaves, liquorice leaves, or leaves of tea that have been uſed, or of any other tree, ſhrub, or plant, in imitation of tea; or ſhall mix or dye ſuch leaves with terra Japonica, ſugar, melaſſes, clay, logwood, or any other ingredients, or materials; or ſhall ſell or expoſe to ſale, or have in their poſſeſſion any ſuch leaves, are to forfeit ten pounds for every pound weight, 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 11.

Every perſon declared at the company's public ſale of tea the beſt bidder is, within three days, to depoſit with the company forty ſhillings for every tub or cheſt, and on neglect or refuſal to make ſuch depoſit, ſix times the value thereof, and rendered incapable of bidding for, or buying any teas there for the future, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 7.

The Eaſt-India company, if the tea imported by them is not ſufficient to anſwer the conſumption in Great-Britain, and to keep the price upon an equality with the neighbouring countries of Europe, may, with licence from the commiſſioners of the treaſury, import, from any part of Europe, in Britiſh ſhips legally navigated, what they ſhall think neceſſary; to be entered at the cuſtom-houſe, and ſubject to the ſame ſubſidies and duties, rules, methods and directions, as tea imported from the Eaſt-Indies, 18 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 10, 12.

Upon neglect of the ſaid company to ſupply this market with a ſufficient quantity of tea at reaſonable prices, the commiſſioners of the treaſury may grant licences to any other perſon, or body corporate, to import tea from any parts of Europe in like manner, and ſubject to ſuch duties, reſtrictions and limitations, as if imported by the ſaid company, and to be lodged in warehouſes, at the charge of the importer, approved of by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, till publicly ſold, and the inland duties paid, of which ſale ſix days notice to be given in the Gazette, 18 *Geo* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 11, 12.

Exported to Ireland, or his majeſty's plantations in America, the bond entered into, not to be diſcharged without a certificate under the hands and ſeals of the collector, comptroller, or ſurveyor of the port where it ſhall be landed, teſtifying the landing thereof; the certificate, if from Ireland, to be produced in ſix months, if from America, in eighteen months from the date thereof, otherwiſe the bond may be put in ſuit, 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 1.

Tea to be exported as above, the permit received upon delivery of the tea from the warehouſe muſt before the tea is ſhipped, be delivered to the ſearcher or proper officer of the port where it is entered for exportation, who muſt, upon ſuſpicion of a deficiency in quantity or quality, open and examine the package, and whether it has been duly entered outwards, and truly indorſed upon the entry; and if it does not agree in quantity and quality with the permit and indorſement, or is entered under a wrong denomination, whereby his majeſty would have been defrauded, it is forfeited, with the package, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the Cuſtoms.—If otherwiſe, the officer to cauſe the ſame to be repacked at his own charge, which is to be allowed to him by the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms, if they think it reaſonable, 21. *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 1.

Not to be exported to Ireland, or the Britiſh plantations, in any package but that in which it was inported, or in any quantity leſs than the intire lot in which it was ſold, upon forfeiture of the tea and package, 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 2.

Entered for exportation as above, the package to be marked by the ſearcher in four different parts on the outſide, as the commiſſioners of the Cuſtoms ſhall direct; and if found again on ſhore, is forfeited, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the Cuſtoms or inland duties, 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 3.

All tea, above the quantity of ſix pounds, found in any Britiſh ſhip arriving in Great Britain from foreign parts (except ſhips employed by the India company) forfeited, though intended to be reported for exportation, 28 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1. *See* Arrack, Coffee.

TEA-MAN. Theſe traders deal very largely in the article tea, and frequently, if not always, ſell coffee, chocolate, and loaf-ſugar. It is a very genteel good buſineſs, and not ſo dirty as the grocer. They take with apprentices from twenty to fifty pounds; give about twenty pounds a year and their board to journeymen, who cannot commence maſter with leſs than three hundred pounds, and may employ one thouſand pounds in trade.

TEAZEL, or Teasel, *carduus fullonum*, or the fuller's thiſtle, a kind of plant much uſed by the fullers, clothworkers, and ſtocking-weavers, to card or draw out the wool or nap from the thread or ground of ſeveral kinds of cloths, ſtuffs, ſtockings, &c. in order to render them cloſer and warmer.

The plant is cultivated with great care in ſeveral parts of France, particularly Normandy; and the exportation thereof prohibited, by reaſon of the vaſt uſe thereof in the woollen manufacture.

The ſtem of the plant is very high in the extremity, as alſo thoſe of its branches, bearing an oblong, prickly, yellowiſh ball, or bur, which is the part uſed.

The largeſt bur, and thoſe moſt pointed, are eſteemed the beſt, and are now called male teazels, moſt uſed in preparing and dreſſing ſtockings and coverlets; the ſmaller kind, commonly called the fuller's or draper's, and ſometimes the female teazel, are uſed in the preparation of the finer ſtuffs, as cloths, rateens, &c.—Theſe ſmaller kind, ſometimes called linnets heads, are uſed to draw out the nap from the coarſer ſtuffs, as baiz, &c.

TECCALIS. *See* Abucco.

TECOANTEPEQUE, *La Trinidad*, *Vatulco*, and *Realejo*, are places on the coaſt of the South Sea, in Spaniſh America, between Panama and Acapulco, which ſerve for ports, where all the traffic of Guatimala, Leon, Quaxaca, Nicaragua, and ſome other provinces of New Spain is tranſacted, which conſiſts in cacao, vanillas, achiolt, or rocou (a dying herb) indigo, cochineal, hides, wheat, maiz, wool, ſugar, cotton, ſalt, honey, caſſia, wax, and in ſome other of the products of Mexico.

TELA, a ſort of money, or rather a gold medal ſtruck by every king of Perſia, at his coming to the crown, which are

are diſtributed among the people: they are in weight like the German gold ducat, but have no currency in trade, nor among the merchants: they are alſo called Cheraſis, which ſee.

TELLER, is an officer of the exchequer, of which there are four, whoſe office is to receive all monies due to the king, and to give the clerk of the pell a bill to charge him therewith. They alſo pay to all perſons any money payable to the king, by warrant from the auditor of the receipt, and make weekly and yearly books both of their receipts and payments, which they deliver to the lord treaſurer.

TEMAN, a liquid meaſure uſed at Mocha in Arabia Felix, containing ten memcedas.

TEMPERING, in the mechanic arts, the preparing of ſteel and iron, ſo as to render them more compact, hard, and firm, or even more ſoft and pliant, according to the reſpective occaſions. The metals are tempered by plunging them, while red hot, into ſome liquor prepared for the purpoſe; ſometimes pure water alone is uſed, and in effect lockſmiths, &c. ſcarce uſe any other.

Sometimes a compoſition of divers juices, liquors, &c. is uſed, which is various, according to the manner and experience of the workman, as vinegar, mouſe-ear water, nettle, or Spaniſh reddiſh water, and water oozing from broken glaſſes, ſoot, ſalt, oil, diſtilled wine, ſal ammoniac, &c.

The ancients appear to have had ſome better method of tempering than any of the moderns are acquainted withal; witneſs their works in porphyry, a ſtone ſo hard that none of our tools make any impreſſion on it.

TENANT, ſignifies one that holds or poſſeſſes lands or tenements by any kind of right, either in fee, for life, years, or at will.

TENASSERIN. *See* MALACCA.

TENDER, in a legal ſenſe denotes as much as carefully to offer, or circumſpectly to endeavour the performance of any thing belonging to us: as to tender rent is to offer it at the time and place where and when it ought to be paid.

Tender is an offer to pay a debt, or perform a duty. In every plea of tender, where money is the thing demanded by the action, and the debt or duty is not diſcharged by the tender and refuſal, money may be brought in without leave of the court: but as other things, as well as money, may, where a tender is pleaded, be brought into court, this is with more propriety called bringing into court generally, than a bringing money into court. In all other caſes the leave of the court muſt be had, before money can be brought into court. The rule under which this leave is granted, is, as in the caſe of an ejectment by a mortgage, founded upon a particular act of parliament. In other caſes, it is founded upon that diſcretionary power, which is, for the furtherance of juſtice, veſted in the court. By the diſcretionary rule, it is ſometimes ordered, that, upon bringing money into court, all proceedings in an action ſhall be ſtayed. At other times it is ordered, that the money brought into court, ſhall be ſtruck out of the plaintiff's declaration, and that the plaintiff ſhall not, at the trial of the iſſue, be permitted to give any evidence as to this money. This rule, by which the money brought into court is ordered to be ſtruck out of a declaration, is, from its being more frequently granted than that by which it is ordered that the proceedings ſhall be ſtayed, called the common rule. 5 *Bac. Abr.* 1.

TERCERAS, called alſo the AZORES, are nine in number, viz. *Flores*, *Cuervo*, *Fayal*, *Pico*, *St. George*, *Gratioſa*, *St. Mary's*, *St. Michael* and *Tercera*. Theſe iſles, lying between the two continents of Europe and Africk, oppoſite to the coaſts of Portugal, were diſcovered in 1439, or 1449, by the Portugueſe, uninhabited; and deeming them fit for culture, they immediately ſettled colonies on them, and their commodious ſituation in their way to the Indies and Brazil did not a little contribute to the ſpeedy peopling them, and eſtabliſhing a conſiderable commerce, eſpecially at Tercera, which is the governor's reſidence, and a biſhopric.

The city of Acra is the ſole port in this iſle (inacceſſible in all other parts) where all the European ſhips anchor, and where the products not only of this, but of all the other iſlands are brought; though, however, the ſhips often touch at the other iſles, to purchaſe goods at firſt hand, or to take refreſhments. Wheat, wine, woad, potatoes, and hides are the principal commodities they afford; but it is on the woad that the inhabitants of Tercera found their chief buſineſs. There is notwithſtanding, a large quantity of freſh oranges and lemons exported from theſe iſles, and a ſtill greater preſerved, with ſeveral other ſpecies of ſweetmeats, of which thoſe at Fayal are eſteemed the beſt, and the Dutch yearly load ſeveral ſhips with theſe commodities.

The imports there from Portugal, are all ſorts of mercery, linens, ſtuffs, fuſtians, ſilk ſtockings, rice, and paper, with ſome oil and ſalt; and the inhabitants likewiſe purchaſe conſiderable parcels of Canary and Madeira wine, their own being weak and inſufficient for their conſumption; the woollens uſed formerly to be carried all from Europe, but within theſe fifty years, there are ſeveral fabricks ſet up in the iſle of St. Michael, for cloths, druggets, cambleis, ſerges, and hats, beſides ſome ſilk ſtuffs, in imitation of thoſe made at Lyons and Tours, which has ſometimes nearly ſufficed for the iſlands ſupply; and the flouriſhing condition they were in in 1717, induced ſome people to think, that this colony, contrary to what has been experienced in all others, would ſoon ſupply its mother country with the commodities this had till then received from it. But as the fabricators were frequently in want of wool and ſilk to keep their looms going, it muſt certainly be a damp to them, and gave the French hopes of retrieving a trade they formerly carried on by the way of Liſbon, to their no ſmall advantage.

The returns made to Liſbon, beſides thoſe of theſe iſlands growth, are gold coin from Brazil, and the other products of that part of America, ſuch as white, and Muſcovado ſugars, Jacaranda and other woods, cacao, &c.

The Engliſh now carry on the greateſt trade to the iſland of Tercera of any nation, where they load the aforementioned goods, in return for woollens, iron, herrings, pilchards, butter, cheeſe, and ſalt meat.

TERNATE. *See* MOLUCCA ISLANDS.

TERRA FIRMA, in geography, is ſometimes uſed for a continent, in contra-diſtinction to iſlands.

Thus Aſia, the Indies, and South-America, are uſually diſtinguiſhed into terra firma's and iſlands.

TERRAQUEOUS, an epithet given to our globe of earth, conſidered as conſiſting of land and water, which, together, conſtitute one maſs.

TESSELLATED PAVEMENT, *Pavimentum teſſellatum*, a rich pavement of Moſaic work, made of curious ſmall ſquare marbles, bricks, or tiles, called teſſellæ, from the form of dies. *See* MOSAIC.

TESTACEOUS, in natural hiſtory, an epithet given to a ſpecies of fiſh which are covered with a ſtrong thick ſhell; as tortoiſes, oyſters, pearl-fiſh, &c.

In ſtrictneſs, however, teſtaceous is only applied to fiſh whoſe ſtrong and thick ſhell are entire and of a piece: thoſe which are ſoft, thin, and conſiſt of ſeveral pieces jointed, as the lobſter, &c. being called cruſtaceous.

But, in medicine, all preparations of ſhells and ſubſtances of the like kind are called teſtaceous powders. Such are powder of crab's-claws and eyes, hartſhorn, pearl, &c. Dr. Quincey, and others, ſuppoſe the virtue of all teſtaceous medicines to be alike, that they ſeldom or never enter into the lacteals, but that the chief of their action is in the firſt paſſages; in which caſe they are of great uſe in abſorbing acidities.

Hence, they become of uſe in fevers, and, eſpecially, in rectifying the many diſtempers in children, which generally owe their origin to ſuch acidities.

THAMES. *See* RIVERS.

THELONIUM, is a writ lying for the citizens of any city, or burgeſſes of any town that have a charter or preſcription to free them from toll, againſt the officers of any town or market, who would conſtrain them to pay toll of their merchandize contrary to their ſaid grant or preſcription. *F. N. B. fol.* 226.

THERIACA, in medicine, a name given by the ancients, to ſuch preparations as are chiefly calculated for curing the bites of poiſonous animals, and for the ſame reaſon good in all malignities. It was firſt given to the celebrated compoſition of Andromachus, which is one of our officinal capitals, but many

many writers ſince have alſo aſcribed it to many other medicines of like form and virtue.

THISTLE, *carduus*, a name common to divers plants, whoſe flowers are compoſed of ſeveral little, longiſh leaves ranged cloſe together into a ſort of head, and whoſe leaves are uſually ſquammoſe and prickly. The moſt known of thoſe plants are the bleſſed thiſtle.

*Milk* THISTLE, *or our Lady's* THISTLE, *carduus mariæ*, the decoction whereof is by ſome recommended againſt the dropſy, jaundice, and pains of the kidnies.

ST. THOMAS. The iſle of St. Thomas (which the negroes of the coaſt call the iſle of Poncas) took its new name from being diſcovered on that ſaint's day, the twenty-firſt of December, 1465, in ſeeking to diſcover a way to the Eaſt-Indies; and the king of Portugal ſent people there in 1467.

Its capital is called St. Thomas; and although it is ſituated under the line, and the heats are exceſſive, the Portugueſe have raiſed here one of the moſt flouriſhing colonies they have in Africk; and its ſituation appeared ſo commodious to the Dutch, for the trade of Angola, and its neighbouring coaſts, that they took it twice, viz. in 1610 and 1641, though they could not keep it; and the Portugueſe in a ſhort time repaired the almoſt ineſtimable damage, which their enemies did there on abandoning it. The Portugueſe were the firſt who inhabited and cultivated it, though at preſent the negroes are by far the greateſt number, and it is ſuppoſed might eaſily ſeize it, if their natural ſloth and cowardice, joined to their aptitude for ſlavery, did not render them uncapable of ſuch an enterprize.

Sugar canes and ginger grow here, as well as at any place in the world, and make the principal inland trade of the iſle; the Portugueſe cultivate them with extreme great care, and notwithſtanding the exceſſive heats of ſky and ſun, they are ſeldom deceived in their expectations, as the crop both of the one and the other is getting in every month of the year. Of brown ſugar here is commonly made from ſix to ſeven hundred charges, of which there is yearly carried out of the iſle near a hundred thouſand roves (of thirty-two pounds Portugueſe each) which is ſent to Portugal, wrapt up in its leaves.

The other products and manufactures of the iſle, are diverſe cotton ſtuffs, proper for the negro trade on the coaſt, fruits, and particularly that called cola, which is a nut, in taſte like a cheſnut, and which is trucked with great advantage at Loanda, St. Paola, and other places in the kingdom of Angola and Congo, from whence they are tranſported to a much greater diſtance. The legumens of all ſorts arrive here to great perfection: Indian wheat, millet, manioc (of whoſe roots the caſſave is made) melons, potatoes, figs, bananas, dates, cacaos, oranges and lemons, grow here in abundance; the ſheep and kids are excellent, but the beef is ſmaller and not near ſo fat as in Europe.

The European commodities, which the Portugueſe carry to St. Thomas, are linens from Holland and Rouen, or others ſimilar in quality, thread of all colours, thin ſerges, ſilk ſtockings, Leyden camblets, Niſmes ſerges, hatchets, bills, ſalt, olive oil, copper plates and kettles, pitch and tar, cordage, ſugar moulds, brandy, and all ſorts of diſtilled liquors, Canary wine, olives, capers, fine flour, butter, and cheeſe.

Beſides the great iſle, ſome pilots give the name of St. Thomas in general to ſmall iſlands, near, and even to ſome very diſtant: of theſe the chief is Prince's iſle, diſcovered in 1471; that of Fernando, Pao, Poo, or Port, that of the Aſcenſion, and that of Annabon, or Bon Anno; it having been diſcovered on New-year's day, even that of St Helena, although at a great diſtance from that of St. Thomas, of which in its place; and in reſpect of the other four, no commerce is carried on with them, as the ſhips bound to the eaſt-Indies, only touch here for wood and water, or to catch tortoiſes, when in want of freſh proviſion, and have many ſailors ſick; except Annabon, where the Portugueſe that are ſettled carry on a trade in cotton, which they gather in great abundance here, as alſo hogs, goats, poultry, variety of delicious fruits, palm trees, tamarinds, woods, &c.

THREAD. Thread, outneal, to what duties liable on importation, 4 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 5. Siſter's thread, exempt from the two-third ſubſidies, 7 *Ann. c.* 7.

THREAD-MEN. Theſe traders generally keep large ſhops, and are reckoned genteel tradeſmen. Many of the articles they deal in are imported from abroad, eſpecially thoſe of the finer ſorts; a great deal of which are brought from Holland; ſome alſo comes from Scotland, ſome from Ireland; and very little, and that principally coarſe thread, is made in England. This, like all trades that have nothing in them, but only buying at one price, and ſelling at another, requires little genius or learning. The thread-man takes with an apprentice from twenty to fifty pounds, who, when out of his time, will be able to get twenty or twenty-five pounds a year and his board as a journeyman; but cannot ſet up genteely as a maſter for leſs than five hundred or one thouſand pounds.

THROWSTER, one who prepares raw ſilk for the weaver, by cleanſing and twiſting it.

TIBOSE, an Eaſt-India coin, being one of the rupees current in the ſtates of the Grand Mogul, and worth double the Gaſana rupee.

TICAL. *See* BAAT.

TICK *and* TICKING, to what duties liable on importation, 4 *W* and *M. c.* 5. *f.* 2.

TIDES, two principal motions of the waters of the ſea, called the flux and reflux, or the ebb and flow.

Dr. Halley hath made the following abſtract of the theory of tides from Sir Iſaac Newton.

The principle upon which this author proceeds to explain moſt of the great and ſupprizing appearances of nature, is no other than that of gravity; whereby, in the earth, all bodies have a tendency towards the center, as is moſt evident; and from undoubted arguments it is proved, that there is ſuch a gravitation towards the center of the ſun, moon, and all the planets.

From this principle, as a neceſſary conſequence, follows the ſpherical figure of the earth and ſea, and of all other celeſtial bodies: and, though the tenacity and firmneſs of the ſolid parts ſupport the inequalities of the land above the level, yet the fluids preſſing equally and eaſily, yielding to each other, ſoon reſtore the equilibrium, if diſturbed, and maintain the exact figure of the globe.

Now the force of the deſcent of bodies towards the center is not in all places alike, but is ſtill leſs and leſs, as the diſtance from the center increaſes: and Sir Iſaac has demonſtrated, that this force decreaſes as the ſquare of the diſtance increaſes; that is, the weight of bodies, and the force of their fall is leſs, in parts more removed from the center, in proportion of the ſquares of the diſtance.

As for example: a ton weight on the ſurface of the earth, if it were raiſed to the height of four thouſand miles, which is ſuppoſed the ſemi-diameter of the earth, would weigh but a quarter of a ton, or five hundred pounds weight.

If to twelve thouſand miles, or three ſemi-diameters from the ſurface, that is, four from the center, it would weigh but one ſixteenth part of the weight on the ſurface, or a hundred and a quarter; ſo that it would be as eaſy for the ſtrength of a man at that height, to carry a ton weight, as here, on the ſurface, to carry a hundred and a quarter.

And, in the ſame proportion, do the velocities of the fall of bodies decreaſe: for whereas, on the ſurface of the earth, all things fall ſixteen feet in a ſecond, at one ſemi-diameter above, this fall is but four feet; and at three ſemi-diameters, or four from the center, it is but one ſixteenth of the fall at the ſurface, or but one foot in a ſecond; and, at great diſtances, both weight and fall become very little; but yet, at all given diſtances, is ſtill ſomething, though the effect becomes inſenſible.

At the diſtance of the moon (which ſuppoſe to be ſixty ſemi-diameters of the earth) three thouſand ſix hundred pounds weight is but one pound, and the fall of bodies is but $\frac{16}{3600}$ of a foot in a ſecond, or ſixteen feet in a minute; that is, that a body ſo far off deſcends in a minute, no more than the ſame at the ſurface of the earth would do in a ſecond of time.

And, as we ſaid before, the ſame force, decreaſing after the ſame manner, is evidently found in the ſun, moon, and all the planets, but more eſpecially in the ſun, whoſe force is prodigious, becoming ſenſible even at the immenſe diſtance of Saturn. This gives room to ſuſpect, that the force of gravity is, in the celeſtial globes, proportioned to the quantity of matter in each of them; and, the ſun being

at leaſt, ten thouſand times (for inſtance, though he is far bigger) as big as the earth, its gravitation, or attracting force, is found to be, at leaſt, ten thouſand times as much as that of the earth, acting on bodies at the ſame diſtances.

Whence, alſo, all the ſurprizing phænomena of the flux and reflux of the ſea, he ſhews, in like manner, to proceed from the ſame principles.

If the earth were alone, that is to ſay, not affected by the actions of the ſun and moon, it is not to be doubted, but the ocean, being equally preſſed by the force of gravity towards the center, would continue in a perfect ſtagnation, always at the ſame height, without ever ebbing or flowing; but it being by him demonſtrated, that the ſun and moon have a like principle of gravitation towards their centers, and that the earth is within the activity of their attractions, it will plainly follow, that the equality of the preſſure of gravity towards the center will thereby be diſturbed. And though the ſmallneſs of theſe forces, in reſpect to the gravitation towards the earth's center, renders them altogether imperceptible by any experiments we can deviſe, yet the ocean being fluid, and yielding to the leaſt force, by its riſing, ſhews where it is leaſt preſſed, and where it is moſt preſſed, by its ſinking.

Now, if we ſuppoſe the force of the moon's attraction to decreaſe, as the ſquare of the diſtance from its center increaſes (as in the earth, and other celeſtial bodies) we ſhall find, that where the moon is perpendicularly either above or below the horizon, either in the zenith or nadir, there the force of gravity is moſt of all diminiſhed, and, conſequently, that there the ocean muſt neceſſarily ſwell, by the coming in of the water from thoſe parts where the preſſure is greateſt, viz. in thoſe places where the moon is near the horizon.

And this may ſuffice as to the general cauſe of the tides: it remains now to ſhew how naturally this motion accounts for all the particulars that have been obſerved about them; ſo that there can be no room left to doubt but that this is the true cauſe thereof.

The ſpring tides upon the new and full moons, and the neap tides on the others, are occaſioned by the attractive force of the ſun, in the new and full, conſpiring with the attraction of the moon, and producing a tide by their united forces; whereas in the quarters the ſun raiſes the water, when the moon depreſſes it, and on the contrary; ſo as the tides are made only by the difference of their attraction.

That the force of the ſun is no greater in this caſe, proceeds from the very ſmall proportion the ſemi-diameter of the earth bears to the vaſt diſtance of the ſun.

It is alſo obſerved that cœteris paribus, the equinoctial ſpring tides in March and September, or near them, are the higheſt, and the neap tides the loweſt, which proceeds from the greater agitation of the waters, when the fluid ſpheroid revolves about a great circle of the earth, than when it turns about in a leſſer circle; it being plain, that if the moon were conſtituted in the pole, and there ſtood, the ſpheroid would have a fixed poſition, and it would always be higher water under the poles, and low water every where under the equinoctial: and, therefore, the nearer the moon approaches the poles, the leſs is the agitation of the ocean; which is, of all, the greateſt, when the moon is in the equinoctial, or fartheſt diſtant from the poles.

The ſun and moon, being either conjoined or oppoſite, in the equinoctial, produce the greateſt ſpring tides; and the ſubſequent neap tides, being produced by the tropical moon in the quarters, are always the leaſt tides; whereas, in June and December, the ſpring tides are made by the tropical ſun and moon, and therefore, leſs vigorous, &c. the neap tides by the equinoctial moon, and therefore are the ſtronger.

Hence it happens, that the difference between the ſpring and neap tides is much leſs conſiderable than in March and September.

And the reaſon why the higheſt ſpring tides are found to be rather before the vernal, and after the autumnal equinox, viz. in February and October, than preciſely upon them, is, becauſe the ſun is nearer the earth in the winter moons, and ſo comes to have a greater effect in producing the tides.

Alternate increaſe and decreaſe of the tides has been obſerved to hold true on the coaſt of England, at Briſtol by Capt. Sturmy, and at Plymouth by Mr. Colepreſs.

But the motions hitherto mentioned are ſomewhat altered by the libration of the water; whereby, though the action of the luminaries ſhould ceaſe, the flux and reflux of the ſea would, for ſome time, continue: this conſervation of the impreſſed motion, the difference that otherwiſe would be between two conſequent tides, is the reaſon why the higheſt ſpring tides are not preciſely on the full and new moons, nor the neaps on the quarters; but, generally, they are the third time after them, and ſometimes later.

All theſe things would regularly come to paſs, if the whole earth were covered with ſea very deep; but by reaſon of the ſhoalneſs of ſome places, and the narrowneſs of the ſtreights, by which the tides are, in many places, propagated, there ariſes a great diverſity in the effect, not to be accounted for, without an exact knowledge of all the circumſtances of the places; as of the poſition of the land, and the breadth and depth of the channels by which the tide flows: for a very ſlow and imperceptible motion of the whole body of the water, where it is (for example) two miles deep, will ſuffice to raiſe its ſurface ten or twelve feet in a tide's time; whereas, if the ſame quantity of water were to be conveyed upon a channel of forty fathoms deep, it would require a very great ſtream to effect it, in ſo large inlets as are the channel of England and the German ocean, whence the tide is found to ſet ſtrongeſt in theſe places where the ſea grows narroweſt, the ſame quantity of water going through a ſmaller paſſage. This is moſt evident in the ſtreights between Portland and Cape le Hogue in Normandy, where the tide runs like a ſluice; and would be yet more between Dover and Calais, if the tide coming about the iſland from the north did not check it. And this force being once impreſſed upon the water, continues to carry it about the level of the ordinary height in the ocean, particularly where the water meets a direct obſtacle, as it is in St. Maloes; and where it enters into a long channel, which, running far into the land, grows very ſtreight at its extremity, as it is in the Severn ſea at Cheſtow and Briſtol.

The ſhoalneſs of the ſea, and the intercurrent continents, are the reaſon that in the open ocean the time of high water is not at the time of the moon's appulſe to the meridian, but always ſome hours after it, as it is obſerved upon all the weſt coaſt of Europe and Africa, from Ireland to the Cape of Good Hope: in all which a ſouth-weſt moon makes high water, and the ſame is reported to be on the weſt of America.

TIDESMEN, are certain officers that belong to the cuſtom-houſe, and are appointed to watch or attend upon ſhips, till the cuſtom of the freight be paid; and they are ſo called, becauſe they go aboard the ſhips at their arrival in the mouth of the Thames, and come up with the tide.

TIDE-WAITERS, *or* TIDE-MEN, certain officers belonging to the cuſtom-houſe, appointed to watch or attend on ſhips coming from abroad, to ſee that nothing be landed till the cuſtom be paid.

TIDOR *See* MOLUCCA ISLANDS,

TIERCE, *or* TEIRCE, a meaſure of liquid things, as wine, oil, &c. containing forty-two gallons, the third part of a pipe.

TILES. The earth for tiles is to be digged and caſt up before the firſt of November yearly, and to be ſtirred and turned before the firſt of February following, and be wrought before the firſt of March: and every common tile muſt be in length ten inches and a half, in breadth ſix inches and a quarter, and thickneſs, an inch and half a quarter; roof tiles are to be thirteen inches in length, and of the ſame thickneſs, as the common tiles, &c. And if any perſon put to ſale any tiles contrary hereto, they ſhall forfeit double value, and be fined. *Stat.* 17. *Ed.* IV. *c.* 4. By a late ſtatute pan-tiles muſt be thirteen inches and a half long, nine inches and a half broad, and half an inch thick, &c. And the penalty for making faulty bricks and tiles is twenty ſhillings for every thouſand ſo made, *ſtat.* 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 35. *See* BRICKS.

TILICHERY, called by the French Tilceri, on the Malabar coaſt, is four leagues from Bilapatam, three from Cananor, (though Mr. Echard puts it down thirty miles) and only one from Tremepatan. The Engliſh have a fort here, and prince Onitri gave the French permiſſion in 1670 to tranſlate their factory from Bilipatan here. Its trade is the

the ſame, as that of the neighbouring places on this coaſt, with the addition that here is found ſome ſanders, and from this kingdom is ſhipped a great deal of pepper for Perſia, Baſſora, Mocha and Maſcati, at which places the ſmalleſt grain is in great eſteem.

TILLAGE is of great account, as being very profitable to the commonwealth; and therefore arable land hath the preference before meadows, paſtures, and all other ground whatſoever: and ſo careful is our law to preſerve it, that a bond or condition to reſtrain tillage, or ſowing of lands, &c. is void. 11 *rep.* 53. There are divers ancient ſtatutes for encouragement of tillage and huſbandry, as the 4 *H.* VII. 25 *H.* VIII. 33 *H.* VIII. 5 and 35 *Eliz.* 21 *Jac.* I. 15 *Car.* II.

TIMBER, includes all kinds of felled and ſeaſoned woods uſed in the ſeveral parts of building, as carpentry, joinery, turnery, &c.

The kinds of timber are numerous; we ſhall only mention ſome of the moſt uſeful from Evelyn's Sylva, &c.—as,

1. Oak, the uſes whereof need no enumerating: to endure all ſeaſons and weathers, there is no wood like it; hence its uſe in building ſhips, in poſts, rails, &c. For water-works it is ſecond to none, and where it lies expoſed both to air and water, there is none equal to it.

2. Elm. This felled between November and February is all ſpine or heart, and no ſap, and is of ſingular uſe in places where it is always wet or dry: its being tough makes it uſeful to wheel-wrights, mill-wrights, &c. and its not being liable to break or fly in chips, makes it fit for dreſſers and planks to chop on.

3. Beech. Its chief uſe is in turnery, joinery, and upholſtery, and the like, as being of a white, fine grain, and not apt to bend or ſlit. Of late it is uſed for building timber; and if it lie conſtantly wet, is judged to outlaſt oak.

4. Aſh. Its uſe is almoſt univerſal; it is good for building, where it may lie dry. It ſerves the carpenter, cooper, turner, plough-wright, wheel-wright, gardener; and at ſea, for oars, handſpikes, and many other uſes.

5. Fir, commonly known by the name of deal, is of late much uſed in building, eſpecially within doors, for ſtairs, floors, wainſcot, and moſt works of ornament.

6. Walnut-tree is of univerſal uſe, unleſs for the outſides of buildings; very fit for the joiners uſe, being of a more curious brown colour than beech, and leſs ſubject to worms.

7. Cheſnut-tree, next to oak, is the timber moſt ſought for by joiners and carpenters; it is very laſting.

8. Service-tree, uſed in joinery, as being of a delicate grain, and fit for curioſities: it alſo yields beams of conſiderable bigneſs for building.

9. Poplar, abel: this and aſpen differing very little in their nature, are of late much uſed inſtead of fir; they look as well, and are more tough and hard.

10. Alder, much uſed for ſewers, or pipes, to convey water; when always wet, it grows hard like a ſtone, but ſoon rots if it is alternately wet and dry.

*Abſtract of an Act of* 6 *Geo.* III. *for the better Preſervation of Timber Trees, and of Woods and Underwoods; and for the further Preſervation of Roots, Shrubs, and Plants.*

The preſervation of timber-trees, or trees likely to become timber, being of great conſequence to this kingdom, it is hereby enacted, that, from and after the 24th of June 1766, perſons convicted of damaging, deſtroying, or carrying away any timber-trees, or trees likely to become timber, or the lops or tops thereof, without conſent of the owner; or, in any of his majeſty's foreſts or chaſes, without the conſent of the ſurveyors, or their deputies; ſhall forfeit for the firſt offence not exceeding 20 l. with the charges attending; and, on non-payment, are to be committed, for not more than twelve nor leſs than ſix months; for the ſecond offence, a ſum not exceeding 30 l. &c. and, on non-payment, to be committed, for not more than eighteen, nor leſs than twelve months; and, for the third offence, to be tranſported for ſeven years.

The trees deemed timber-trees, within the meaning of this act, are all oak, beech, cheſnut, walnut, aſh, elm, cedar, fir, aſp, lime, ſycamore, and birch trees.

Perſons convicted of plucking up, ſpoiling, or taking away, any root, ſhrub, or plant, out of private cultivated ground, forfeit for the firſt offence, any ſum not exceeding 40 s. with the charges; for the ſecond offence, a ſum not exceeding 5 l. with the charges; and for the third offence to be tranſported for ſeven years.

Perſons, convicted of cutting, damaging, or taking away any wood, or underwood, poles, ſticks, &c. or ſhall have any ſuch in their cuſtody, without being able to account ſatisfactorily for the ſame, forfeit for the firſt offence any ſum not exceeding 40 s. with the charges; and, for the ſecond offence, any ſum not exceeding 5 l. with the charges; and, for the third offence, are to be puniſhed as incorrigible rogues.

Power is given to juſtices of the peace to put this act in execution; and, where the reſpective forfeitures ſhall not be paid down on conviction, the offenders may be committed to hard labour; for the firſt offence for one month, and to be once whipped; and for the ſecond offence for three months, and to be thrice whipped.

Perſons hindering, or attempting to prevent, ſeizing offenders, forfeit 10 l. to the perſon convicting them; and, if not paid down, are to be committed to hard labour, not exceeding ſix months.

Forfeitures, not otherwiſe directed, are to go one moiety to the informer, and the other to the perſon aggrieved. Convictions are to be certified to the general quarter-ſeſſions, and filed, and the conviction is not liable to be quaſhed for want of form, or to be removed.

*Abſtract of an Act of* 6 *Geo.* III. *for encouraging the Cultivation, and for the better Preſervation, of Trees, Roots, Plants, and Shrubs.*

Divers perſons having of late years wilfully and maliciouſly cut down, barked, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, timber-trees, to the great detriment of the owners, and to the diſcouragement of planting in general, ſo beneficial to Great Britain; and many evil-diſpoſed perſons having frequently entered into nurſeries, gardens, &c. and carried away roots, ſhrubs, and plants, and deſtroyed others on the ſpot, which nurſery-men, gardeners, &c. had collected and cultivated at great expence, ſupporting themſelves and many others of his majeſty's ſubjects by importing from, and exporting the ſame to, other countries; it is therefore hereby enacted, That, from and after the ſecond day of June, 1766, the penalty on cutting down, ſpoiling, carrying away, &c. in the night-time, any oak or other timber-trees; or roots, ſhrubs, or plants, of 5 s. value, in any garden, nurſery, or incloſed ground, is felony.

The court is impowered to tranſport the offender for ſeven years; and the aiders and abettors therein, and perſons who ſhall buy or receive ſuch roots, ſhrubs, or plants, knowing the ſame to be ſtolen, are liable to like puniſhment as if they had ſtolen the ſame.

TIMBER-MERCHANT. The timber-merchant imports his timber, from the various parts of the world where it is produced, as deal from Norway, wainſcot from Sweden, mahogany from Jamaica, &c. Theſe goods are ſometimes brought him in his own ſhips, ſometimes in thoſe belonging to others; and he returns ſpecie, or ſuch Engliſh manufactures as the different countries are in want of. The youth intended to be put to this buſineſs ſhould be extremely well verſed in arithmetic, or he will be unfit for his maſter's compting-houſe; and it is there the principal part of his time muſt be ſpent: for he may as properly be called a clerk as an apprentice. Few other qualifications are neceſſary. The timber-merchants take with their apprentices from fifty to two hundred pounds, who muſt all their life time be clerks, except they have a very genteel fortune to ſet up with; for they are not only obliged to have a very large ſtock of timber in their yards, but muſt alſo give very conſiderable credit to carpenters and maſter builders. Some employ in this trade eight or ten thouſand pounds, and perhaps a leſs ſum than two or three is not ſufficient to give a probability of ſucceſs: but I ſhould add, that all who keep timber yards are not merchants; for many carpenters buy in large quantities from the importer, and ſell again to their brother carpenters.

TIMOR. Timor and Solor are two iſles of the eaſtern Archipelago, between the Cape of the iſle of Celebes, and the iſle of Flores, where the Dutch have ſome trade and forts. At Timor a commerce is maintained in ſlaves,

wax,

wax, and ſanders, of which latter here may be collected yearly near two thouſand bahares (of five hundred and ſixty pounds) and Solor produces the ſame commodities, though in much leſs quantities.

TIN, *Stannum*, a whitiſh metal, ſofter than ſilver, yet much harder than lead.

Tin is the lighteſt of all the metals: it is remarkable for a quality that no other of them has, which is, that when bent, it makes a crackling noiſe. It is, ſometimes, harder than lead, but leſs ſo than any other of the metals: it is malleable in a very remarkable degree, though leſs ſo than lead. It may be eaſily drawn into a coarſe wire; but if this be attempted to be brought to any degree of fineneſs, it ſnaps and breaks under the workman's hands.

Tin is leſs ſuſceptible of ruſt than moſt of the other metals: it is very little elaſtic, and ſcarce at all ſonorous.

It melts with a much ſmaller degree of fire than any other metal, a heat but a little greater than boiling water being ſufficient to fuſe it. It melts, before it grows red hot, like lead; and ſo much leſs a degree of heat, even than that requiſite to the running of lead, is neceſſary to the fuſing of this metal, that it may be eaſily ſeparated from the other by eliquation; and if the fire be kept under a mixed maſs of the two, ſo low as to be juſt hot enough to melt the lead, the tin will all run off from it.

Tin, in many things, greatly approaches to the nature of ſilver. It very readily melts with ſilver, gold or copper; when the mixture is made with equal, or even a leſs quantity, it renders them extremely brittle: but it is very ſingular, that if it be mixed in a much larger quantity, they ſtill continue pliant and flexible. Two parts of tin, and one of copper, make a maſs more rigid, indeed, than tin, yet malleable and ductile. Silver, of all the metals, ſuffers moſt by an admixture of tin, a very ſmall quantity of it ſerving to make that metal as brittle as glaſs, and what is worſe, being very difficultly ſeparated from it again. The addition of about one tenth part of copper to tin makes it fit for the common uſes of life, in veſſels of various kinds, as it becomes, by the mixture, more durable; a little zink, added to this mixture, gives the metal a yellow colour, and, as it is mixed in greater or leſs quantity, makes it fit for caſting of cannon, and for bells.

Iron readily mixes with tin, in fuſion, if the fire be briſk, and the iron be heated quite hot before the tin be added. Twice the quantity of this metal, added to iron ſo heated, readily runs with it into an odd ſubſtance, which is very white and brittle, and readily anſwers to the magnet. This has been uſed, by ſome, as a pretence of its not being iron, and that the loadſtone would attract another metal beſide that: but the fallacy is eaſily diſcovered by one that underſtands any thing of metallurgic analyſis.

Lead bears a conſiderable admixture of tin, without being affected as gold and ſilver are, which are both rendered brittle by it; at leaſt, its effects, on this metal, are in a much ſmaller degree. The very vapour of tin has the ſame effect with the metal itſelf on ſilver, gold, and copper, rendering them brittle. Mr. Comy, a metallurgiſt, had been long plagued by thoſe vapours from a piece of tin being accidentally among his charcoal; the conſequence of which has been, that, till it was burnt wholly away, thoſe metals had been rendered as brittle as glaſs under the hammer, by only being fuſed under thoſe coals. It is owing to this property of tin, in making the metals it is mixed with brittle, that it renders them ſonorous. Mr. Boyle has expreſſed a wonder that tin, which is itſelf not much ſonorous, ſhould on mixture with copper render it more ſo; but, if we conſider that the ſame ſort of diſpoſition of parts which renders metals rigid and brittle renders them ſonorous, the myſtery is explained.

The proper ſolvent of tin in its true malleable ſtate is *aqua regia*. It will not well diſſolve in any of the other menſtrua of the ſtronger kinds, nor indeed very readily in this. We are not however to wonder at this difficulty of ſolution in tin, ſince we find it contains much more ſulphur than any other metal, and ſulphur is not one of thoſe ſubſtances that are to be diſſolved by acids. That this is a fact we find by putting calcined tin, inſtead of common malleable tin into the menſtruum, for in this caſe, even vinegar will diſſolve it. While tin is in its malleable ſtate, the weakeſt acids diſſolve it beſt: verjuice, and it is ſaid, even ſour apples boiled in tin veſſels, acquire a taſte of that metal, though the ſtrongeſt acids, *aqua regia* excepted, boiled in the ſame veſſels, acquire no flavour from it at all.

Many of the chemical writers have been of opinion, that if the ſulphur could be thoroughly purged from tin, it would be no longer tin, but ſilver, it is certain that the two metals have many things in common; if diſſolved in *aqua regia*, tin is better, as well as ſilver in ſolution with the nitrous acid; but the cryſtals which are produced from a ſolution of it in vinegar, after it has been calcined for forty-eight hours together, which is a neceſſary ſtep towards ſuch a ſolution, (and which one would think ſhould bring it nearer to ſilver than before, if the diſſipating its ſulphur were the way to do it) differ wholly from thoſe of ſilver. We have indeed accounts, in many authors, of tin being made to yield a large quantity of ſilver by peculiar proceſſes; but that careful experimenter Mr. Boyle, tells us, that all tin is not to be expected to yield thoſe advantages in the ſame manner, for that himſelf had ſeparated pure cryſtals of ſilver from one parcel of tin by a peculiar menſtruum, but that another parcel of the ſame metal would not anſwer in the ſame manner.

The ores of tin are very various, as it is found blended with all kinds of ſubſtances, with marcaſitic and ſtony matter, and even with other metals: the Germans have lately talked of finding native tin in the perpendicular fiſſures of ſome of their iron mines; but there ſeems no foundation for the opinion; for this pretended native tin wants the firſt of all the characters of a native metal, malleability. It flies to pieces under the hammer, and on trial in the fire proves to be a marcaſitic ore, very rich indeed in tin, a very ſingular and valuable ſubſtance, but not, as pretended, native tin. This remarkable ore is found in nodules from an ounce to three or four in weight, it is of a bright ſilvery colour like the white arſenical pyritæ, but covered with a coarſe duſky cruſt; when properly worked, it is the richeſt tin ore we have met with, five drachms of pure tin having been ſeparated from an ounce of it.

The next ore to this in richneſs, and that which has conſequently been uſually accounted the richeſt of all, is the tin grain, or *lapis jovius*. This is an ore of tin, of a fine gloſſy black colour on the outſide, but, in thin pieces held up againſt the light, it is tranſparent and yellowiſh; it is the heavieſt of all the metalline ores, and is of a very irregular figure, but in the fineſt pieces it ſeems to approach to the ſhape of thoſe cryſtals which are found joined baſe to baſe, without any intermediate column. In ſize, it is of the bigneſs of a large walnut, down to that of a pin's head; for of that minuteneſs we meet with ſome perfect tin grains.

After the tin grains we are to mention a black and very heavy tin ore of an irregular figure and metalline appearance; but this, though it promiſes very fairly by its weight, ſeldom yields ſo much as half a drachm of metal from the ounce in its crude ſtate; if waſhed indeed, and all the foreign matter carried off, it may be reduced almoſt to the purity of the tin grains before the working.

The virtues of tin, as a medicine given internally, have been greatly celebrated by many of the ancient writers, but it has leſs credit at preſent. We have been told that in diſeaſes of the lungs, and in diſorders of the head and uterus, there is ſcarce any thing equal to it; and that in convulſions, epilepſies, and the madneſs ariſing from the bite of a mad dog, it was a certain remedy. Theſe laſt are the only caſes in which it has any degree of credit at preſent, and that is rather among the vulgar than the phyſicians. In epilepſies we have known half a drachm given twice a day for a long time, but without ſucceſs. In the bite of a mad dog, great cures of the preventative kind have been ſaid to be wrought by it; but it is not eaſy to ſay, before the ſymptoms in that terrible caſe appear, whether the poiſon took effect or not.

In the manufactories it is of a great uſe in ſoldering, and, when amalgamated with mercury and a little bizmuth added to make it run thin, it ſerves in the ſilvering of looking-glaſſes. By calcination it makes a ſoft powder called putty, which is of uſe in the poliſhing glaſs and gems, and alſo in the making of enamels.

Its preparations in uſe in medicine, or generally kept in the ſhops, are theſe. 1. The ſtannum pulveratum, or powdered

dered tin. 2. The *ſal jovis*, or ſalt of tin. 3. The *diaphoreticum pulveratum joviale*, or antihectic of Poterius. And, 4. The *aurum muſivum*, or, as it is commonly called, Moſaicum, Moſaic gold.

All wares made out of this realm of tin, or mixed with tin, as platters, diſhes, ſaucers, pots, baſons, ewers, flaggons, goblets, ſalts, ſalt-ſellers, ſpoons, or any other thing made of tin or pewter, may not be bought or bartered for, upon forfeiture thereof, in whoſe hands ſoever found, and the value, 25 *H.* VIII. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 1. 33 *H.* VIII. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 1, 6.

TIN-MAN, *or* TIN-PLATE-WORKER. The tin man receives the tin plates in ſheets; he beats them on a poliſhed anvil to give them ſmoothneſs and luſtre; he then forms them into a variety of different utenſils; ſuch as kettles, milk-pails, ſauce-pans, drinking-pots, candle-ſticks, caniſters, flower-boxes, &c. He alſo makes the frame work or mounting of lanthorns and lamps of tin, and fixes in the horn or glaſs. This was formerly reckoned a mean employment; but now the tin-men are become conſiderable traders, keep large handſome ſhops, and export great quantities of the goods they deal in. Many of them ſell lamp oil, and contract with pariſhes or gentlemen for lighting their lamps by the year. They take with an apprentice from ten to twenty pounds, who will be able, as a journeyman, to get about twelve or fourteen ſhillings a week by working from ſix till nine; or may ſet up maſter, in a low way, with one hundred pounds, or handſomely with five hundred pounds.

TINNING, the covering or lining any thing with melted tin, or with tin reduced to a very thin leaf.

TINCTURE, *tinctura*, in pharmacy. The proceſſes of diſtillation, and that for extracting tinctures, differ only in this, that the former can take out thoſe lighter parts only which are able to riſe in vapour, and the latter all ſuch parts as are capable of being ſuſpended in a menſtruum.

The management and rules of procedure in tinctures, elixirs, medicated wines, vinegar, decoctions, and infuſions, depend upon the ſame reaſon and principles; theſe ſeveral forms differing only in the fitneſs of the materials for ſuſpenſion, in fluids of different conſiſtences, and the beſt manner thence ariſing for drawing them out; the principal rule in all which is, that the liquor made uſe of for a menſtruum, or vehicle, be more or leſs ſpirituous, as the ingredients, which are ordered in it, are of a lighter or more fixed nature; and the times of ſtanding in digeſtion, either hot or cold, are alſo to be proportioned accordingly.

TIRE-SMITH. This is an ingenious branch of the ſmith's buſineſs, conſiſting in making the iron-work belonging to the carriages of coaches, chariots, chaiſes, &c. The niceſt and moſt curious parts of their work are ſprings for ſpring coaches, and other vehicles of pleaſure. There is great variety in this buſineſs. The maſters take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, if a good hand, will be able to earn upwards of twenty ſhillings a week as a journeyman; and one hundred pounds will enable him to ſet up for himſelf.

TIRE-WOMAN. Thirty years ago this buſineſs gave many women in London genteel bread; but now the ladies cannot be dreſſed with elegance, except a French barber, or one who paſſes for ſuch, by ſpeaking broken Engliſh, adjuſts and curls their hair at the exorbitant price of a crown or half a guinea a time. Our grandmothers thought it bordered on immodeſty to appear with their heads uncovered; but probably our grandchildren, deſpiſing ſuch narrow prejudices, may not be aſhamed of going naked from the waiſt upwards, or of having men chamberlains or dreſſers. We believe the few women who now cut hair, cannot live by the employment, and therefore need ſay nothing of the terms on which they teach others.

TITHES, TYTHES, TENTHS, DECIMÆ, *or* DIXEMS, the tenth part of all profit or fruits, both predial, perſonal, and mixed, allotted to the clergy for their maintenance. Of tithes there are three kinds, viz. perſonal, predial, and mixed.

Perſonal tithes, are thoſe due or accruing from the profits of labour, art, trade, navigation, and induſtry of man.

Predial tithes, thoſe which ariſe either from the fruits of the ground, as corn, hay, underwood, flax, hemp, &c. or from the fruits of trees, as apples, pears, plums, cherries; or from the produce of the garden.

Mixed tithes, are ſuch as ariſe from beaſts and other animals fed with the fruits of the earth; as cheeſe, milk, wool, lambs, calves, fowls, &c.

Predial tithes, again, are either great or ſmall.

Great tithes, are thoſe of corn, hay, and wood.

Small tithes, are thoſe of flax, which are predial; and thoſe of wool, milk, cheeſe, lambs, ferrets, &c. which are mixed.

Impropriated and appropriated tithes, called alſo infeodated tithes, are thoſe alienated to ſome temporal or eccleſiaſtical lord, united to their fee, and poſſeſſed as temporal goods.

TOBACCO, *or* TABACCO, a medicinal herb, not known in Europe till after the diſcovery of America by the Spaniards, and firſt imported about the year 1560.

The Americans on the continent call it *petum*, thoſe of the iſlands Yoli. The Spaniards, who gave it the name tobacco, took it from Tobaco, a province of Yucatan, where they firſt found it, and learned its uſe.

The French, at its firſt introduction among them, gave it various names; as *nicotiana*, or the ambaſſador's herb, from John Nicot, then ambaſſador of Francis II. in Portugal, who brought ſome of it with him from Liſbon, and preſented it to a grand prior of the houſe of Lorrain, and to queen Catharine de Medicis; whence it was alſo called queen's herb, and grand prior's herb. They alſo gave it other names, which are now all reduced to the original name tobaco, or tobacco, from Tabaco, given it by Hernandez de Toledo, who firſt ſent it into Spain and Portugal.

*Culture and Preparation of* TOBACCO. Tobacco is cultivated in ſeveral parts of America, particularly in the Caribbee iſlands, Virginia, &c. where they are forced to mix aſhes with the ſoil, to prevent its riſing too thick. After ſowing, they water it every day, and on very hot days cover it up, to prevent its being ſcorched by the ſun.

When it is riſen to a convenient pitch, they tranſplant it, much as we do lettuce, only at a diſtance of three feet, and in a ſoil prepared with great care: when replanted, it is kept continually weeding, the ſtem frequently cleanſed, and the loweſt leaves and the ſuckers it puts forth, taken off, that ten or fifteen of the fineſt leaves may have all the nouriſhment.

The leaves thus reſerved, being ripe, which is known by their breaking when bent, the ſtalks are cut, and left to dry two or three hours in the ſun; after which they are tied two by two, and hung up on ropes under a ſhed to be dried by the air. When the leaves are ſufficiently dried, they are pulled from off the ſtalks, and made up in little bundles; which being ſteeped in ſea-water, or, for want thereof, in common water, are twiſted in manner of ropes, and the twiſts formed into rolls, by winding them with a kind of mill around a ſtick. In which condition it is imported into Europe, where it is cut by the tobacconiſts for ſmoaking, formed into ſnuff, and the like.

Beſides the tobacco of the Weſt-Indies, there are conſiderable quantities cultivated in the Levant, the coaſts of Greece and the Archipelago, the iſland of Malta, and Italy.

The marks of good twiſt tobacco, are a fair ſhining cut, an agreeable ſmell, and that it has been well kept.

Tobacco is either taken by way of ſnuff, as a ſternutatory, or as a maſticatory by chewing it in the mouth, or by ſmoaking it in a pipe.

It is ſometimes alſo taken in little longiſh pellets put up the noſe, where it is found to produce very good effects, to attract a deal of water or pituita, unload the head, reſolve catarrhs, and make a free reſpiration; for the ſubtile parts of the tobacco in inſpiration are carried into the trachea and lungs, where they looſen the peccant humours adhering thereto, and promote expectoration.

Some have left this tobacco in their noſes all night; but this is found to occaſion vomiting the next morning. Another thing charged on this way of application, is, that it weakens the ſight.

When taken in great quantities in the way of ſnuff, it is found to prejudice the ſmelling, greatly diminiſhes the appetite, and in time gives riſe to a phthiſis.

That taken in the way of ſmoak dries and damages the brain. Borrhi, in a letter to Bartholine, mentions a perſon, who, through exceſs of ſmoaking, had dried his brain to

that degree, that after his death, there was nothing found in his ſkull but a little black lump, conſiſting of mere membranes.

Some people uſe the infuſion of tobacco as an emetic; but it is a very dangerous and unjuſtifiable practice, and often produces violent vomiting, ſickneſs and ſtupidity.

Bates and Fuller give ſome receipts, in which tobacco is an ingredient, with mighty encomiums in aſthmatic caſes. A ſtrong decoction of tobacco, with proper carminatives and cathartics, given clyſter-wiſe, ſometimes proves of good effect in what is uſually called the ſtone cholic, and alſo in the iliac paſſion.

A drop or two of the chemical oil of tobacco being put on the tongue of a cat, produces violent convulſions, and death itſelf, in the ſpace of a minute; yet the ſame oil uſed in lint, and applied to the teeth, has been of ſervice in the tooth-ach; though it muſt be to thoſe that have been uſed to the taking of tobacco, otherwiſe great ſickneſs, retchings, vomitings, &c. happen; and even in no caſe is the internal uſe of it warranted by ordinary practice.

A ſtrong decoction of the ſtalks, with ſharp-pointed dock and allum, is ſaid to be of good ſervice, uſed externally, in cutaneous diſtempers, eſpecially the itch; ſome boil them for that purpoſe in urine. The ſame is ſaid to be infallible in curing the mange in dogs.

Sig. Pauli, phyſician to the king of Denmark, in an expreſs treatiſe on tobacco, obſerves, that the merchants frequently lay it in bog-houſes; to the end that, becoming impregnated with the volatile ſalt of the excrements, it may be rendered the briſker, more fœtid, and ſtronger.

*Tobacco*, not of the Britiſh plantations. The impoſt having been ſecured at importation, if the importer is afterwards deſirous to diſcharge his bond before the expiration of the firſt fifteen months, he is to be allowed a diſcount after the rate of ten pounds *per cent. per annum*, for ſo much of the ſaid fifteen months as remain unexpired. 12 *Ann. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 8. *ſ.* 3. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1.

*Tobacco*, of the Britiſh plantations. The importer may, if he is not willing to pay ready money, become bound with one or more ſufficient ſureties, (to be approved by the collector and comptroller of the port of importation) in one or more bonds, for payment of the additional duty, new ſubſidy, ſubſidy 1747, one-third ſubſidy and impoſt, within eighteen months, to commence at the end of thirty days after the maſter's report of the ſhip, or from the merchant's entry within thoſe thirty days, which ſhall firſt happen, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 3. 21 *Geo.* II. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 5.

If after ſuch ſecurity be given for payment of the duties in eighteen months, the importer be deſirous to diſcharge his bond in ready money, any time before the expiration thereof, he ſhall be abated upon ſuch bond ſo much as the diſcount, at the rate of ſeven pounds *per cent. per annum* ſhall amount unto, in proportion to the time unexpired, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 12. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 31.

Upon payment of the old ſubſidy, and ſecurity of the other duties, by the importer's own bond, may be put into warehouſes, provided at his charge, and approved by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; if deſtroyed in ſuch warehouſes by fire, the duties to be allowed, 12 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 5, 6. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 32.

Damaged or mean, is not to have any allowance, either at the ſcale or otherwiſe; but upon the merchant's refuſing to pay the duty, he may ſeparate ſuch damaged tobacco, by cutting off, from the hogſheads, ſo much as he ſhall refuſe to pay or ſecure cuſtom for, and any three or more of the principal officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms ſhall cauſe ſuch tobacco to be burnt or deſtroyed, without making the importer any allowance for freight or charges, 12 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 8. 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 4.

But the ſtalks may not be ſeparated from the leaves, on pretence that the ſame is damaged or mean tobacco, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 5.

Tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, having received damage on board by ſtreſs of weather at ſea, or by the ſhip's being on ſhore in Great-Britain, or by any accident after her arrival in port, the chief officers of the cuſtoms may allow the importer one halfpenny *per* pound, upon his refuſing to pay or ſecure the duties, and ſeparating it from the ſound, in order to be burnt, or deſtroyed by the officers, ſo as ſuch allowance does not exceed thirty ſhillings upon any one ſingle hogſhead, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 13.

Allowance for draught at the ſcale, to be only eight pounds upon every hogſhead of three hundred and fifty pounds or more; which allowance is not to be deducted upon exportation, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 15.

Only tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, that has paid the duties, and been manufactured in Great-Britain, may be conſumed on board Britiſh ſhips of war in any part of Europe, upon forfeiture of the reſpective places of their commanders, or purſers, and three ſhillings per pound weight, 6 *Ann. c.* 22. *ſ.* 13.

Shipped at any place in the Britiſh plantations in America for Great-Britain, after the twenty fifth of March, 1752, the collector or comptroller, or other chief officer of the cuſtoms there, or any two of them, are, at the clearing out the veſſel, to deliver to the commander, or perſon taking charge of her, a manifeſt under their hands and ſeals of office, containing a true account of all the tobacco taken on board, the number of packages, the quantity, marks, numbers, and tare of each package, and at the ſame time tranſmit a duplicate thereof to the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, on forfeiture of two hundred pounds, to be recovered in any court of admiralty in the plantations, where the offence is committed, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 1.

The perſon having charge of the veſſel, upon his arrival at his port of diſcharge in Great-Britain, and at the time of making his report, muſt deliver the ſaid manifeſt to the collector of the cuſtoms there, on forfeiture of one hundred pounds; and the collector is to deliver it to the land-waiters appointed upon the ſhip, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 2.

The land-waiters are, from the manifeſt, to enter in their books (before any tobacco is landed) the marks, numbers, weights, tares and contents of the ſeveral packages, under the penalty of fifty pounds, and to cauſe ſuch landing mark, as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall direct, to be ſet upon every package, and are to enter every ſuch landing mark in their books, on forfeiture of fifty pounds, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 3.

Tobacco may not be imported into Great-Britain otherwiſe than in caſk, cheſt, or caſe only, each containing four hundred and fifty pounds weight of neat tobacco at the leaſt, on forfeiture of all the tobacco, together with the package, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 20.

Imported from the Britiſh plantations on the continent of America in bulk, or otherwiſe than in caks, cheſts, or caſes, containing each two hundred weight, or two hundred and twenty-four pounds at the leaſt, is forfeited, at ſixpence *per* pounds weight, except ſmall quantities for the crews ſmoaking; two thirds to his majeſty, and one third to the ſeizer or ſuer, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 29.

Exported, no debenture to be made out after the twenty-ninth of September, 1751, nor any drawback to be allowed upon tobacco imported after that time, unleſs it is ſhipped and exported from the ſame port where it was originally imported, and (if unmanufactured) in the original package, with the ſame marks in and with which it was imported, no other tobacco being put therein, nor any taken out, except ten pounds, which ſhall be allowed to be taken out of each package after the ſame is weighed at importation, as is now the practice. The penalty for entering unmanufactured tobacco for exportation, from any port but the port of importation, or in any other package, or without the ſame marks as imported, is, forfeiture of the tobacco, and two hundred pounds by the perſon who enters it, or cauſes it to be entered, beſides loſs of drawback; and whoever knowingly exports any package of tobacco, out of which more than ten pounds has been taken, forfeits twenty pounds for every package exported, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 4.

But if upon landing, the tobacco in any hogſhead or caſk, by cutting off the damaged part, is under the weight of four hundred and fifty pounds, the importer may, in the preſence of the land-waiter, cauſe the ſound tobacco to be put together into one or more hogſheads out of which the damaged was taken; and the land-waiters are to enter in their books the exact weight of the tobacco, with the marks and numbers of each ſuch hogſhead, and note that they were refilled in their preſence; then ſuch tobacco (provided the quantity in each hogſhead is four hundred and twenty-five pounds weight or more) may be exported from the port of importation, as if the package had not been altered, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 5.



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The perſon who enters unmanufactured tobacco outwards, muſt, before ſhipping it for exportation, indorſe upon the cocket and bill, the plantation or manifeſt mark and number, the landing mark and number, with the weight of each package at the time of landing; alſo the exporter's mark and number, with the weight of each at the time of entry for exportation, and write off the weight of each package from the indentical entry thereof at importation. Every perſon refuſing, or neglecting ſo to do, forfeits five pounds for every package, beſides loſs of drawback; and the ſearcher is not to admit any cocket, unleſs marked as aforeſaid, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 6.

Tobacco, unmanufactored, may not be loaden in any veſſel in Great-Britain with intent to be exported, but in caſks, cheſts or caſes only, containing four hundred and twenty-five pounds weight or more of tobacco in each, on forfeiture of the tobacco and caſks, &c. containing the ſame; except packages containing ſamples ſhipped and exported at the ſame time and place with the caſks, &c. out of which they were taken, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 21.

Exported (though manufactured) in any package but caſks of three hundred weight or more, is not to be allowed any drawback, except tobacco cut or rolled, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 14.

Mixed with rubbiſh or dirt, or any other thing, ſhall be allowed no drawback; and every perſon who ſhall enter or ſhip ſuch for exportation, or cauſe it to be done, or who ſhall enter any thing as tobacco for exportation, which, upon examination by the proper officer, appears not be ſo, ſhall forfeit all the goods and the package, and fifty pounds for every package, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 25.

Manufactured or unmanufactured, may not be entered or ſhipped for exportation in any veſſel not of the burthen of ſeventy tons or upwards, except to Ireland; and if exported thither in any veſſel under the burthen of twenty tons, it is not to be allowed any drawback, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 25. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 20.

Any officer of the cuſtoms apprehending a veſſel outward bound with tobacco on board, not of the burthen of ſeventy tons or upwards, he may ſtop and detain her, and the whole cargo, till ſhe is admeaſured as directed by 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21; and if ſhe proves to be of that burthen, he ſhall not be ſubject to any action for damages; but the maſter of ſuch veſſel entering and clearing her out as of that burthen, when ſhe is under it, forfeits one hundred pounds for every ſuch offence, 24 *Geo.* 2. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 25. 8 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 20.

Tobacco exported to Ireland, if, upon producing a certificate, leſs appears to be landed there than ſhipped from hence, an allowance not exceeding two *per cent.* may be made for waſte during the voyage, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 48.

Entered for other foreign parts, if landed in Ireland, is forfeited, and double the drawback; and the debenture for the drawback is to be void, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 49.

Entered out for any other place than Ireland, the exporter is to ſwear that the ſame is not landed in any part of Great-Britain or Ireland, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 50.

Imported from the Britiſh plantations in America, the importer manufacturing it, or delivering it out to be manufactured upon his own account, muſt firſt deliver to the collector or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the port of importation, an account in writing, ſigned by himſelf and the manufacturer, or their known agents, with their names and places of abode, containing the plantations or manifeſt, mark and number of each package, with the name of the ſhip, and time when imported, the landing mark and number, the weight at importation, and the weight at the time of delivering it out, and the importer muſt write off the weight from the entry at importation. The penalty for neglecting to give or ſign ſuch account, nr knowingly giving or ſigning a fraudulent one, is thirty pounds for every package, by each perſon concerned, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41 *ſ.* 7.

The importer ſelling or delivering ſuch tobacco out of his poſſeſſion, muſt, within fourteen days afrer delivery, give to the collector the ſame account in writing, ſigned by himſelf and the purchaſer, or their known agents, and write off the weight from the entry in the ſame manner, and ſubject to the ſame penalties, as in caſe of delivering it out to be manufactured, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 8.

Removed by land. Tobacco, or tobacco ſtalks, exceeding twenty-four pounds weight, or ſnuff exceeding ten pounds weight, may not be conveyed from the place of importation to any other place in Great Britain, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the place of importation; and if unmanufactured, with the importer's oath thereto, (if the importer applies for it) that the duties were paid or ſecured at importation, by whom, when, and in what ſhip imported; or with the purchaſer's oath thereto, (if he applies for it) atteſting the marks and numbers of the hogſheads out of which it was taken, from whom purchaſed, and when; if tobacco ſtalks, or ſnuff, or manufactured tobacco, are ſo removed, then the certificate muſt have the importer's oath thereto, (if he applies for it) that ſuch ſtalks were ſtripped, or ſuch ſnuff or manufactured tobacco was made from one or more hogſheads, for which the duties were by him paid or ſecured at importation; or the purchaſer's oath thereto, (if he applies for it) that ſuch ſtalks were ſtripped, or the ſnuff or manufactured tobacco was made from one or more hogſheads, which had been delivered and received according to the directions of this act; which certificates ſuch officers are to grant, and, after entering in their books, to deliver to the perſon applying for the ſame, without fee or reward for certificate or oath, on forfeiture of ten pound for every offence, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 9.

The proprietor, factor or agent of the tobacco, &c. (before it is removed) is to inſert on the back of the certificate the names of each package, with the marks and numbers, and the weight of each ſpecies of goods in each package, the place from whence delivered, and to which they are to be conveyed, and by whom, or the name of the inn from whence carried, and the name of the perſon to whom conſigned; and to which he muſt ſubſcribe his name, and make oath to the truth thereof. The certificate muſt expreſs the number of days it is to continue in force, and accompany the goods to the place to which they are to be carried; and the perſon there receiving it muſt cauſe it to be delivered to the chief officer of the cuſtoms there; or, if there is no officer of the cuſtoms, to the officer of exciſe for that diviſion, who is to examine the ſame with the goods, which, if they agree therewith, are to be taken away by the perſon to whom they belong; and ſuch officer is to enter the certificate in a book kept for that purpoſe, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 10. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 4.

Such goods, in the quantity abovementioned, removing by land without ſuch certificate, are forfeited, and the packages, together with the cattle and carriages; and the carrier, or perſon employed in removing the ſame, is to be committed to the county gaol for one month, by a juſtice of the peace for the county where the offence is committed, or the offender found. And any perſon who ſhall counterfeit, forge, eraze, or alter ſuch certificate, or the duplicate thereof, or procure the ſame to be done, ſhall forfeit fifty pounds for every offence, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 12.

Such goods, in the quantity abovementioned, may not be conveyed by land from any place in Great Britain to any other unleſs the package is marked on the outſide with the reſpective words, TOBACCO, TOBACCO STALKS, or SNUFF, in letters not leſs than three inches in length, on forfeiture thereof with the package, and alſo one ſhilling *per* pound weight to be paid by the owner thereof, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 23.

Tobacco removed by water. No tobacco, tobacco-ſtalks, or ſnuff, may be ſhipped on board any veſſel to be carried by water from any place in Great Britain to any other, until every part thereof is entered at the cuſtom-houſe at the port neareſt the place where they are ſhipped; and if unmanufactured, it muſt be ſhipped in the original package in which it was imported, preſerving the ſame marks and numbers, but not without a certificate from the collector or comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or ſecured at importation, by whom, the time when, and in what veſſel imported; if it is tobacco ſtalks, or ſnuff, or other manufactured tobacco, it is not to be ſo ſhipped without a certificate from the ſaid officers, that the duties were paid or ſecured at importation, for the tobacco from which they were ſtripped, made or manufactured; which certificates the ſaid officers are required to grant to the

the importer, or his known agent, applying for the ſame, without fee or reward, on forfeiture of ten pounds for every offence, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 13.

Before ſuch goods are ſhipped, the proprietor muſt inſert on the back of the certificate the names of each particular package, with the marks and numbers, the weight of each particular ſpecies of goods in each package, and the place from whence brought, and to which they are to be carried, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 14.

The certificate muſt, before ſhipping, be delivered by the proprietor, to the perſon taking charge of the veſſel, who, immediately upon his arrival in any port or place in Great Britain, muſt deliver it to the collector, or chief officer there, who muſt examine the goods with the certificate, and if they agree therewith, the goods are to be diſcharged, and may be taken away by the perſon to whom they belong, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 15.

Such goods found on board any veſſel before ſuch certificate is obtained, or without its being on board therewith, or if it is forged, or does not agree in all reſpects with the goods, then all ſuch goods are forfeited, together with the packages, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms, and the perſon taking charge of the veſſel ſhall forfeit ſixpence *per* pound weight; and any perſon who ſhall counterfeit, forge, eraze or alter ſuch certificate, ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 16.

Tobacco, or tobacco ſtalks, exceeding twenty-four pounds weight, or ſnuff exceeding ten pounds weight, (which has been removed by water from the place of importation to any other place in Great Britain) may not be removed afterwards from thence by land, without a certificate from the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the place to which they were carried by water, that it appears to them, by the entry of the certificate which came with the goods from the place of importation, that the duties thereof were paid or ſecured there, and in what veſſel they were brought by water, and when, and that the perſon applying for the ſame had made oath to the truth thereof: which certificate ſuch officers are required (after writing it in their books) to deliver to any perſon applying for it, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 22.

The proprietor of the goods, or his factor or agent (before they are removed) muſt inſert, on the back of the certificate, the names of each package, with the marks and numbers, the weight of each ſpecies of goods in each package, the place from whence brought, and to which they are to be carried, and the name of the perſon to whom they ſhall be ſent, which he muſt ſubſcribe with his name, and make oath to the truth thereof.

Such goods found ſo removing without ſuch certificate, or if the certificate appears to be forged or counterfeited, are forfeited, and the package, together with the horſes, cattle and carriages employed, and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms; the carrier or perſon employed in the removal alſo forfeits ten pounds, and is to be committed to the county gaol for one month, by any juſtice of the peace for the county where the offence is committed, or the offender found.

Any perſon who ſhall counterfeit, forge, eraze or alter ſuch certificate or duplicate thereof, or procure it to be done, ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds for every offence, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 22.

The ſecond purchaſer of an intire hogſhead of unmanufactured tobacco is intitled to the benefit of a certificate on removal by land or water, in like manner as the firſt purchaſer from the importer; but in this certificate the name of the importer or feller may be omitted, provided the feller tn the ſecond purchaſer has delivered to the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, ſuch account as the importer is required to give by 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 6.

Any certificate for removal of tobacco, tobacco ſtalks, or ſnuff, by land or water, is to be deemed a proper one, though the name of the importer is not inſerted therein, provided his name is expreſſed in the bill frnm which the certificate is prepared, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 5.

Any perſon who ſhall put out, alter or deface any mark or number ſet upon any package of tobacco in America, or in Great Britain, at importation or exportation, ſhall forfeit twenty pounds for each package, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 19.

Tobacco ſtalks, and ſnuff ſeized and condemned, are to be burnt in the preſence of the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, at the place where the goods are at the time of condemnation, or for want of ſuch, in the preſence of the collector or ſupervifor of exciſe for that diſtrict, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 27, 28.

The officers who ſeized and proſecuted are to be paid (if it is tobacco or tobacco-ſnuff) at the ſame rate as if it was ſold for ſix-pence *per* pound, which by 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 10. being one-third of the groſs ſale clear of all charges, amounts to two-pence *per* pound; if tobacco-ſtalks or damaged tobacco, they are to be paid one-penny *per* pound, in lieu of all other allowance, by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms at London or Edinburgh reſpectively, or by the collectnr of the out-ports where ſeized and burnt, out of any duties applicable to incidents; provided the officers, before whom it was burnt certify, to the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms the exact quantity burnt, who are thereupon to grant their order for payment, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 27, 28.

The following particulars are to be tranſmitted to the regiſter of tobacco by the perſons undermentioned, viz. an account of the certificate received with the goods hy the officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe reſpectively; and duplicates of original certificates for removing by land, by the officers who granted them at the port of importation; and certificates for removal by water by the chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port where the goods were landed, within one month after he receives it, provided the goods agree therewith; and duplicates of certificates for removal by land, after the firſt removal by water, by the perſon who granted it; and once in every calendar month, one of the land-waiter's books of the landing and diſcharging of tobacco imported from the Britiſh plantations in America, and copies of every entry thereof for exportation, with the indorſements, and copies of every account of tobacco intended to be manufactured, and copies of every account of tobacco ſold by the importer, to be tranſmitted by the collector and comptroller, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, of every port in Great Britain where the buſineſs was tranſacted; which ſeveral accounts are to be by him entered and kept in ſuch manner and form, that the marks and numbers of every hogſhead, caſk, or other package, and their weights at importation, may be compared with the marks, &c. reſpectively at exportation, or delivery for home-conſumption, or to be manufactured, in order to preſerve the identity thereof; and the ſaid regiſter is to tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, at London and Edinburgh reſpectively, an account in writing of any thing which appears to be done contrary to the meaning of this act; and once in ſix months he is to lay before the lords of the treaſury a copy of ſuch his repreſentations made to the ſaid commiſſioners. Any collector or chief officer neglecting to tranſmit any of the accounts beforementioned, to forfeit fifty pounds for every ſuch neglect, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 10, 11, 15, 17, 22.

Tobacco imported from the Britiſh plantations in America.—The importer is every year, between the firſt and twenty-fourth of June, to deliver to the collector, or chief officer of the cuſtoms, at the port of importation, an account in writing, under his hand, of all tobacco in his cuſtody, power or poſſeſſion, which has been entered eighteen months or more at that time, containing the number of packages, with the reſpective marks, numbers, and weights of each, and the place where lodged; upon receipt of which, ſuch officer is to cauſe the goods to be examined thereby, and then to tranſmit the account to the regiſter of tobacco.

Any importer neglecting ſo to do, or if the account proves fraudulent in any reſpect, forfeits fifty pounds for every offence, *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 18.

Any veſſel, under the burthen of ſeventy tons, having on board one hundred pounds weight of tobacco, or any tobacco-ſtalks, or fifty pounds weight of ſnuff, found at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any port, or within two leagues of the ſhore, or diſcovered to have been within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage (unleſs in caſe of unavoidable neceſſity and diſtreſs of weather, of which the maſter, purſer, or perſon taking charge, muſt give notice, and make proof of before the collector or chief officer of the cuſtoms, immediately after arrival)

arrival) all ſuch goods are forfeited, with the package, or the value thereof, whether bulk ſhall have been broke or not, and the maſter or perſon taking charge of the veſſel, forfeits one hundred pounds. And if any veſſel above the burthen of ſeventy tons, having ſuch goods on board, ſhall be found hovering as aforeſaid, and no notice of diſtreſs is given, the maſter or perſon taking charge of it, forfeits one hundred pounds, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 26.

Tobacco-ſtalks or ſnuff, removed from one place to another in greater quantities than by 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. is allowed, and not attended with the certificate required, may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe; and the proof that it was removed from the port of importation with a proper certificate, and that the duties thereon were paid or ſecured, is to lie on the claimer, and not on the officer who ſeized it, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 2.

All bonds for payment of duties on tobacco ſhall be deemed to be due and payable upon the day of payment mentioned in the condition of the bond, and intereſt to be computed from the ſaid day to the day whereon the bond ſhall be paid off in money, or the day the ſearcher certifies on the debenture, that the tobacco is ſhipped for exportation; and no ſecurity to be vacated till all intereſt be paid thereon, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 29.

The chancellor, or either of the barons of the exchequer, to grant a fiat for iſſuing proceſs of immediate extent againſt any perſon bound for the duties on tobacco before the bond becomes due, on affidavit laid before him by one of the ſecurities, or the executor or adminiſtrator of ſuch ſecurity, that the perſon bound is decayed in circumſtances, and ſetting forth the danger of loſs to the crown, unleſs ſome more ſpeedy method of recovery than uſual be made uſe of; if the money is recovered before the bond becomes due, the obligor is to be allowed therefrom the uſual diſcounts, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 30.

The penalties and forfeitures by this act are to be, one moiety to the uſe of his majeſty, &c. and the other moiety to the uſe of ſuch perſon as ſhall inform, proſecute, or ſue for the ſame; and the ſaid penalties and forfeitures may be ſued for, and the cauſes ariſing by this act may be tried and determined in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, if ſuch offences are committed in England, or if the offender be in England at the times of commencing the proſecution; or in the court of exchequer at Edinburgh, if the offence be committed in Scotland, or the offender be in Scotland at the time of commencing the proſecution, at the election of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for England and Scotland reſpectively, 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 41. *ſ.* 33.

Tobacco, of the growth of Europe, or mixed therewith, may not be ſold, or delivered to the ſeamen on board any of his majeſty's ſhips of war, 6 *Ann. c.* 22. *ſ.* 12.

The ſtalks or ſtems ſtripped from the leaf may not be imported; and upon ſeizure and condemnation, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may cauſe them to be publicly burnt, allowing the ſeizer a penny *per* pound weight, clear of all charges of condemnation, 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 13.

The ſtalks or ſtems, when ſeparated from the reſt of the leaf, and exported by themſelves, are not to have any drawback, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 20.

May not be planted in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and forty ſhillings for every rod or pole of ground planted; one half to the king, and one half to the ſuer; and alſo ten pounds more; one third to the king, one third to the poor of the pariſh, and one third to the ſuer.

Except in phyſic gardens, and not exceeding half a rod in any one garden.

Sheriffs, juſtices, &c. within ten days after information, are to cauſe ſuch tobacco to be deſtroyed.

Juſtices, a month before each general quarter ſeſſions, are to iſſue out warrants to the conſtables, &c. to ſearch for ſuch tobacco, and to make a preſentment upon oath, at the quarter ſeſſions.

Conſtables, within fourteen days after ſuch warrant, may call aſſiſtance, and deſtroy ſuch tobacco; upon neglect, are to forfeit five ſhillings *per* rod.

Aſſiſtance refuſed, the forfeiture is five ſhillings.

Reſiſting, the penalty is impriſonment for three months, or to forfeit five pounds, and impriſonment, till a recognizance of ten pounds penalty, with two ſecurities, be entered into, not to offend again, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 34. *ſ.* 1, &c. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 18, &c. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2, &c. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 19.

Leaves of walnut-trees, hops, ſycamore, or any other leaves, herbs, plants, or materials, may not be cut in the form, or in imitation of any of the uſual ſizes or cuts of tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, or coloured or cured to reſemble ſuch tobacco for ſale, or knowingly ſold or offered to ſale as ſuch tobacco, upon forfeiture of five ſhillings *per* pound weight. The charges of proſecution to be borne by his majeſty, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 46.

Such leaves, &c. may not be exported with intent to obtain a drawback as for tobacco, upon forfeiture of five ſhillings *per* pound weight, beſides former penalties, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 2.

May, with all engines, utenſils and tools, be ſearched for, and ſeized by the officers of the cuſtoms, at ſeaſonable hours, and with a warrant from the juſtices; who at their quarter ſeſſions are to determine ſuch ſeizure, and, after condemnation, cauſe them to be burnt, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 3, 4.

Servants employed in cutting, manufacturing, &c. or ſelling, upon conviction before two juſtices, may be committed to the houſe of correction, there to remain, not exceeding ſix months, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 46. *ſ.* 5.

Tobacco damaged; the allowance thereon. *See* ALLOWANCE.

TOBACONIST. The importation of tobacco brings in a vaſt revenue for the ſupport of government, and the traders in it are frequently very conſiderable merchants. Many deal only in tobacco, and others alſo ſell ſnuff. The tobaconiſt is a very profitable and reputable buſineſs. They employ labourers to cut it with an engine, and women commonly ſtrip it from the ſtalk. The apprentices are generally taken, as in other ſhop-keeping buſineſſes, only to learn to buy and ſell, and to know the different properties and value of the goods they deal in; except among the meaner ſort of maſters, who make their lads, whom they take with little or nothing, ſave them the wages of labourers. Maſters of any repute will not take a youth with leſs than fifty or one hundred pounds, who, as a journeyman, may get twenty-five or thirty pounds a year, and his board, or may ſet up with one thouſand pounds.

TOBACCO-PIPE-MAKER. This buſineſs requires neither ingenuity nor ſtrength, and as little learning as any other. Pipes are made of white clay, worked very fine, and formed into the ſhape we ſee them. The hollow is made by running up a wire; the pipe is then dried, and baked in a furnace. The maſters receive five pounds with an apprentice, and ſometimes take poor boys gratis. A journeyman earns ten or twelve ſhillings a week, and twenty or thirty pounds will ſet up a maſter.

TOCAT is the ſecond city in Turkiſh Armenia for trade, and is regarded as the center of it for Aſia Minor, where caravans are inceſſantly arriving or departing; thoſe of Diarbequer are eighteen days coming here, and thoſe from Erzerum but fifteen. Thoſe from hence to Sinope are but ſix days going, and thoſe from Burſa twenty. The caravans that go directly to Smyrna, without paſſing by Angora, or Burſa, are twenty-ſeven days on the road, if with mules, but forty if camels are the bearers. In fine, here are caravans that go only to Angora.

The great trade of this city conſiſts in utenſils of copper; as kettles, cups, candleſticks, and lanthorns, which the artiſans here work very neatly, and theſe commodities are ſent to Conſtantinople and Egypt. The copper they make uſe of comes from the mines of Gumiſeana, three days journey from Trebiſonde, and from that at Caſtamboul, ten days travel from Tocat towards Angora.

Here is prepared a quantity of yellow Morocco leather, which is carried to Samſon on the Black Sea, and from thence to Calas, a port of Valachia, where is alſo ſent ſome of the red kind; but theſe the merchants of Tocat procure from Diarbeck, and Caramania. Painted linens are alſo a great object of trade here; and although they are not ſo handſome as thoſe of Perſia, yet the Muſcovites and Crim Tartars, for whom they are deſigned, are contented with them; and the commerce of ſilk is not inconſiderable here, though that of the growth of the place is all worked up here in ſlight ſilk ſtuffs, ſewing ſilk, and buttons.

TOD OF WOOL, contains twenty-eight pounds, or two ſtone, mentioned in the ſtatute 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32.

TOL. This is the ſmalleſt weight and meaſure uſed on the coaſt of Coromandel, of which twenty-four make a ceer, five ceers the biis, eight biis the maun, and two mauns the candi, which is the heavieſt weight in this part of India.

TOLL, is a Saxon word, and properly a payment in towns, markets, and fairs, for goods bought and ſold. It is a reaſonable ſum of money due to the owner of the fair or market, upon ſale of things tollable within the fair or market, or for ſtallage, picage, or the like. 2 *Inſt.* 220.

Information againſt B. farmer of Newgate-market, for extortion, in taking divers ſums of money of the market-people for rent, for the uſe of the little ſtalls in the market, and divers great ſums for fines, and was found guilty. It was held by the court of B. R. and by Holt chief juſtice, at Guildhall, that if the defendant erects ſeveral ſtalls, and does not leave ſufficient room for the market people to ſtand and ſell their wares; ſo that for want of room, they are forced to hire the ſtalls of the defendant; the taking of money for the uſe of the ſtalls, in ſuch caſes, is extortion. But if the people have room enough clear to themſelves, to come and ſell their wares; but for their further convenience they voluntarily hire theſe ſtalls of the defendant, without any neceſſity compelling them, there is no extortion, though the defendant takes a fine, and rent for the uſe of them. The law has not appointed any ſtalls for the market people, but only that they ſhall have the liberty of the market, which the defendant does not abridge, having left room enough beſides the place where the ſtalls are ſet; and then, if they will enjoy the convenience of the ſtalls, they muſt comply with the defendant's terms. *L. Raym.* 148, 149. *Hill.* 8 & 9 *Will.* III. The king, *v. Burdet.*

Taking outrageous toll prohibited. *St. Weſtm.* 1. 3 *Edw.* I. *c.* 31.

Toll of a mill, how to be taken. *Ord. pro piſt. c.* 4.

Toll not to be taken, or any thing in lieu thereof, but in the uſual proportion, 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 8. *f.* 8. *See* 20 *Vin. Abr. tit. Toll.*

PORT-TOLL. A preſcription to have port-toll, for all goods coming into a man's port, may be good; and this, it is ſaid, without any conſideration, 2 Lev. 96. 2 Lut. 1519. And it hath been adjudged, that the liberty of bringing goods into a port for ſafety, implies a conſideration in itſelf, 3 Lev. 37. Preſcription for goods landed in a manor, or to have port-toll for all goods coming into port, is a good preſcription; but not to have toll of goods brought into a river, &c. 2 Lev. 96, 97. Toll may be appurtenant to a manor, 2 *Mod.* 144.

THOROUGH-TOLL, is properly where a toll is taken of men for paſſing through a vill in the high ſtreet. 2 *Roll. Abr.* 522. 22 *Aſſ.* 58. by *Thorpe. Mich.* 41, & 42 *Eliz.* B. R. in *Smith* v. *Shepherd*'s caſe.

Thorough-toll, improperly, is when toll is taken of men for paſſing through a vill, in a place which is not the high ſtreet, 2 *Roll. Abr.* 522. 22 *Aſſ.* 58. by *Thorpe.*

TOLL-TRAVERSE, is properly when a man pays certain toll for paſſing over the ſoil of another man, in a way not a high ſtreet, 22 *Aſſ.* 58. by *Thorpe*, *M.* 41. 42 *Eliz.* B. R. in *Smith* v. *Shepherd*'s caſe.

The words toll-thorough, and toll-traverſe, are uſed promiſcuouſly, *Arg.* And the court ſeemed to agree, *Mod.* 232. in caſe of *Janes* v. *Johnſon.*

A man cannot preſcribe to have thorough-toll of men paſſing through a vill in the high ſtreet, becauſe it is againſt the common law and common right; for the high ſtreet is common to all, 2 *Roll. Abr.* 522. 25 *Aſſ.* 58. by *Thorpe. M.* 41 & 42 *Eliz.* B. R. between *Smith* v. *Shepherd*, *dubitatur*, without alledging of a ſpecial conſideration, as the repairing the way.

And the king cannot have ſuch toll for paſſing in the high ſtreet, as in the caſe aforeſaid, for the cauſe aforeſaid, 2 *Roll. Abr.* 522. 22 *Aſſ.* 58. by *Thorpe.*

A man cannot preſcribe to have thorough-toll of men for paſſing through a vill in a place which is not the high ſtreet; for it is more than the law allows to go there, 2 *Roll. Abr.* 523. 22 *Aſſ.* 58.

A man may preſcribe to have toll-traverſe of men paſſing over his ſoil, in a way which is not a high ſtreet, and the preſcription ſhall be good, 2 *Roll. Abr.* 522. 22 *Aſſ.* 58. *Bro. Toll. pl.* 6. cites *S. C.*

TOLL-TRADERS, is when a perſon claimeth to have toll for every beaſt driven over his ground; for which a man may preſcribe, and diſtrain for it in *via regia*, Cro. *Eliz.* 710. They who claim theſe tolls by grant, ought to aver the certainty of the ſum mentioned in the grant, &c. *Palm.* 76. Toll-traverſe being to paſs a nearer way, he that has it is to repair the way, becauſe he receives money for it, 2 *Lill. Abr.* 585.

TURN-TOLL, a toll paid for beaſts that are driven to a market to be ſold, and do return unſold. 6 *Rep.* 46. There is alſo in-toll and out-toll, mentioned in ancient charters: but if any one take toll where he ought not, the party grieved ſhall have an action on the caſe, or action of treſpaſs, &c. 3 *Nels. Abr.* 325, 426. Of tolls, and grants, cuſtoms, and preſcriptions for tolls, good, and not ſo, *ſee* 4 *Mod.* 319. 5 *Mod.* 361. *Lutw.* 1380, 1518.

TOLLAGE, is the ſame with tallage, ſignifying generally any manner of cuſtom or impoſition. This word occurs in the ſtatute, 17 *Car.* I. *c.* 15.

TOLL-BOOTH, the place where goods are weighed, &c.

TOLL-CORN, is corn taken for toll ground at a mill: and an indictment lies againſt a miller for taking too great toll. 5 *Mod.* 13.

TOLL-HOP, a ſmall diſh or meaſure by which toll is taken in a market, &c.

TOLSEY, is the place where merchants meet, in a city or town of trade.

TOMAN, by ſome called Tumein, is an account money uſed by the Perſians in keeping their books, and to facilitate the reduction of large ſums in payment. It is compoſed of fifty abaſſis, or one hundred mamoudis, or two hundred chayes, or ten thouſand dinars, being near forty-three, or forty-ſix French livres, valuing the abaſſi in eighteen ſols and ſix deniers; the mamoudi for nine ſols, three deniers; the chaye four ſols, ſeven deniers; and one maille, and the dinar for the denier Tournois. The toman is alſo a weight uſed in Perſia for weighing money, which in large payments is always received in this manner, and never counted; the toman weighs fifty abaſſis.

TOMSKOI, ſubject to the czar's dominion, is a city ſeated on the river Tom, in Muſcovite Tartary. A great trade is carried on from hence to China, by the cham of Buſuchtu, and the Buchares, among which ſome Ruſſian merchants mix. This journey is made in three months, and the ſame time expended in their return, but with an inexpreſſible trouble, as every thing muſt be tranſported on camels, even wood and water in ſome places; and it would be impoſſible for the Ruſſians, or any other foreign nations to preſerve this peregrination alone, the country being full of robbers, who pillage all paſſengers, except they be well accompanied or guarded.

TON. *See* TUN.

TONNAGE, comprehends the duties payable on wines imported (and the old ſubſidy on perry, rape of grapes, cider, cyder-eager, and vinegar, the imports on vinegar, and the coinage duties) being regulated by a ſum certain on the ton meaſure.

*Poundage* is underſtood to comprehend the cuſtoms and other duties payable on all goods imported (except thoſe free of duty, or liable to tonnage) being, in moſt caſes, levied and collected at ſo much in the *pound*, or *per cent.* on the reſpective rates or values.

TONSBERG is deemed the oldeſt trading town in Norway, and has the ruins of an ancient ſtone building, ſuppoſed to be the relicts of a palace, where one of their kings reſided; it is now a poor place, and the exports reduced to a few white deals, balks, and ſparwood.

Two or three ſhips are ſent yearly from Copenhagen to Finmark, which load with fiſh and oil, moſtly for Holland; and one or two likewiſe go from the ſame place, chiefly with proviſions for the garriſon at Greenland (and to carry miſſionaries) as the inhabitants want but few neceſſaries, or ſeem to have no care for more than the preſent.

TOPAZ, in natural hiſtory, a kind of gem, or precious ſtone, the third in order after the diamond.

The topaz of the ſhops is the ſame ſtone which our jewellers know by this name, but very different from what the ancients knew under the ſame name: they called this ſtone, from its golden colour, the chryſolite, or gold ſtone.

The topaz of our times, when perfect and free from blemiſhes, is a very beautiful and valuable gem; it is, however, very rare in this ſtate. It is of the number of thoſe gems which are found only in the round or pebble form, there never having been yet ſeen a true and genuine topaz of a columnar figure, though the far greater part of what our jewellers call ſuch, are in that form. The greateſt part of the true topazes are no larger than grains of a coarſe ſeed; among theſe there are, however, ſome met with of the ſize of a pea, and ſome much larger, though thoſe are very rare. It is of a roundiſh or oblong figure in its native or rough ſtate, and uſually is flatted on one ſide, and is generally of a bright and naturally poliſhed ſurface, tolerably tranſparent. They are ever of a fine yellow colour; but they have this, like the other gems, in ſeveral different degrees; the fineſt of all are of a true and perfect gold colour, but there are ſome much deeper, and others extremely pale, ſo as to appear ſcarce tinged. The Oriental topaz is equal to the ruby in hardneſs, and is ſecond only to the diamond in luſtre. The topazes of the other parts of the world fall off greatly from this hardneſs; but the pooreſt of the genuine ones are conſiderably harder than cryſtal. The topaz, on being thrown into a charcoal fire, entirely loſes its colour, and when taken out, is a very fine colourleſs ſtone, undiſtinguiſhable from that known by the name of the white ſapphire: upon the whole, it appears, that the oriental coloured gems are all much alike in their matter, differing ſcarce at all, except in colour, and that when they are found either naturally colourleſs, or rendered ſo by art, it is not eaſy to diſtinguiſh one of them from the other.

The fineſt topazes in the world are found in the Eaſt-Indies, but they are very rare there of any ſize: the Great Mogul, however, at this time, poſſeſſes one, which is ſaid to weigh an hundred and fifty-ſeven carats, and to be worth more than twenty-ſeven thouſand pounds. The topazes of Peru come next, after theſe, in beauty, and in value. The European are principally found in Sileſia and Bohemia, and are generally full of cracks and flaws, and of a browniſh yellow.

Beſides all theſe degrees of value in the genuine topazes, our jewellers keep what they call a kind of them, inferior greatly to them; all theſe are common hexangular cryſtals, coloured to a paler or deeper yellow in mines: theſe they cut into ſtones for rings, and ſell under the name of topazes, and moſt of the ſtones we ſee under that name are ſuch.

The ancients have ſaid much of the topaz's virtues, it is ſaid to be a high cordial and ſudorific, and to have been given, alſo, in hæmorrhages with great ſucceſs. But whatever virtues it may poſſeſs, we are not to expect to find them in the ſtones our druggiſts now keep under the name of topazes, theſe being no other than fragments of a yellowiſh platted ſpar, common in lead mines, and impregnated more or leſs with that metal. The topaz itſelf ſeems to owe its colour to lead; but the quantity it contains of it is ſo very inconſiderable, that it can be of no effect in the body, but may very well be ſuppoſed to leave it in the ſtate of cryſtal, which ſeems, as much as we are to imagine, really, of any of the gems; but this ſpar, ſold in its place, not only diſcovers that it holds a great deal of lead by its weight, but lead has been ſeparated from it in no leſs quantity than one-fifth of its weight.

TOQUE, a ſort of reckoning money uſed at Juda, and ſome other parts of the African coaſt, where the bouges or cowries are current; one toque of bouges is compoſed of forty of thoſe ſhells; and five bouges make one galline.

TORRID ZONE, the tract of earth lying under the line, and extending on each ſide to the two tropics, or to twenty-three degrees and a half of latitude.

The ancients believed the torrid zone uninhabitable; but from the late navigations, we learn, that the exceſſive heat of the day there is tempered by the coldneſs of the night.

TORTOISE-SHELL, the ſhell, or, rather ſcales of a teſtaceous animal, called a tortoiſe, uſed in inlaying, and in various other works, as for ſnuff-boxes, combs, &c.

Mr. Cateſby obſerves, that this hard, ſtrong covering, which incloſes all ſorts of tortoiſes, is very imperfectly called a ſhell, being of a perfect bony contexture, but covered on the outſide with ſcales, or, rather, plates of a horny ſubſtance, which are what the workmen call tortoiſe-ſhell. *Phil. Tranſ.* N° 438.

There are two kinds of tortoiſes, viz. the land and ſea tortoiſe, *teſtudo terreſtris* and *marina*.

The ſea tortoiſe, again, is of four kinds, viz. the freſh tortoiſe, the caretta, the cahohanna, and the lager-hu; but it is the caretta alone furniſhes that beautiful ſhell ſo much admired in Europe.

The ſhell of the caretta, or hawk's bill tortoiſe, is thick, and conſiſts of two parts; the upper, which covers the back, and the lower, the belly: the two are joined together at the ſide, by ſtrong ligaments, which yet allow of little motion. In the fore-part is an aperture for the head and fore legs, and behind for the hind legs and tail.

It is the under ſhell, alone, is uſed to ſeparate it from the upper; they make a little fire beneath it, and as ſoon as ever it is warm, the under ſhell becomes eaſily ſeparable from the upper, by the point of a knife, and is taken off in laminæ, or leaves, without killing the animal; which, it is ſaid, being turned to ſea again, gets a new ſhell.

The whole ſpoils of the caretta conſiſt of thirteen leaves, or ſcales, eight of them flat, and five a little bent: of the flat ones there are four large, about a foot long, and ſeven inches broad.

The beſt tortoiſe-ſhell is thick, clear, tranſparent, of the colour of antimony, ſprinkled with brown and white: when uſed in marquetry, &c. the workmen give it what colour they pleaſe, by means of coloured leaves which they put underneath it.

In generation, Rondeletius obſerves, the embraces of the male and female ſea tortoiſes continue for a whole lunar month; and that they ſquirt water from their noſtrils in the ſame manner as the dolphin. On the Braſilian ſhore they are ſaid to be ſo big as to dine fourſcore men; and that, in the Indian ſea, the ſhells ſerve the natives for boats. De Laet notes, that in the iſland of Cuba they are of ſuch a bulk, that they will creep along with five men on their backs.

TOUCH-STONE, a black, ſmooth, gloſſy ſtone, uſed to try metals upon.

The ancients called it *lapis Lydius*, the Lydian ſtone, from Lydia, a country of Aſia Minor, whence it was brought.

The moderns call it touch-ſtone, in regard the proof they make of metals, chiefly ſilver, is, by touching or rubbing the metal to be tried on the ſtone, and comparing the colour of the mark it leaves thereon, with the mark of another piece of metal of the ſame ſpecies, whoſe goodneſs is paſt doubt.

TOURAINE. *See* ANJOU.

TOWAGE, the hauling or drawing of a ſhip or barge, &c. by men or beaſts, or by another ſhip or boat faſtened to her, in order to make her enter a port, aſcend a river, &c.

TOWN DUTIES, for the maintenance of bridges, keys, wharfs, &c. confirmed. *Rull* 21. pag. 312.

TOY-MAKER. Moſt of the children's toys being imported very cheap from Holland, and the valuable ornaments ſold by the toy-men being finiſhed by the beſt artiſts among the jewellers, chaſers, &c. the making of toys is confined to a number of ordinary ſorts made by poor people, who are ſo miſerably paid for their labour, that they can ſcarcely ſupport their families. They generally live in very mean lodgings, are frequently obliged to hawk their goods from ſhop to ſhop, and ſeldom or never take apprentices.

TOY-MAN. The boy deſigned for this trade ought to have good eyes and a very elegant taſte, which he ſhould improve by learning to draw with great perfection. Good eyes are neceſſary to prevent his being impoſed upon in buying the falſe ſtones made of paſte; and drawing, to enable him to judge of and improve the curious works made by thoſe he employs. We are here ſpeaking of thoſe ſhop-keepers, under this denomination, who not only ſell all ſorts of toys made for the diverſion of children, but a great variety

variety of ornamental curioſities; as gold ſnuff-boxes, finely adorned with precious ſtones, paintings, or ſhells, with ſervices of chaſed plate, diamond and paſte ear-rings, buckles, buttons, and ſtuds, ornamental china, &c. and a vaſt variety of curious trinkets. Thoſe in this grand way of buſineſs take from fifty to one hundred guineas with an apprentice; but they ſeldom take any. To ſet up maſter will require from one thouſand to five thouſand pounds. On the other hand, a toyman, who deals chiefly in children's toys, and leſs expenſive ornaments, will take an apprentice with twenty pounds, who, when his time is expired, may ſet up with two hundred pounds.

TRADE, TRAFFIC, COMMERCE. The art or act of dealing, buying, ſelling, exchanging, &c. of commodities, bills, money, &c. The firſt notions of trade aroſe from the light of nature. One family no ſooner found that they could not live without the aſſiſtance of another, but they eſtabliſhed a trade by way of barter. As nations increaſed, markets were every where eſtabliſhed for the ſame purpoſe, where a ſheep was exchanged for a ſack of corn, or an oak for ſome other neceſſaries of life. This introduced the uſe of weights and meaſures. But trade never became an art, till the invention of ſpinning and weaving, whoſe manufactures introduced a variety of dealing.

TRADE, in the next place, regulated the value of all kinds of commodities, by a common meaſure or ſtandard, from the inconveniences of barter, a certain equivalent called money, as was agreed upon for all ſorts of goods. Formerly, in England, leather-money was uſed; and the Africans ſtill uſe cowries, or white ſpeckled ſhells, called Black-a-moor's teeth. But in proceſs of time, ſilver and gold being found moſt convenient to make money of, they are become the common ſtandard of all commodities; which are purchaſed with more or leſs money, in proportion to the plenty and ſcarcity of the goods brought to market; from hence we date the terms of dearneſs or cheapneſs.

At the introduction of metal money, the merchant adjuſted its value only by weight; but this being found inconvenient, its weight or value was aſcertained by a ſtamp or mark, which is what we call coin. Money not only ſerves commodiouſly to ſettle the price of all goods, but it alſo ſerves to pay for labour, to purchaſe houſes, lands, &c. ſo that from hence ariſes the notion of riches.

This has been the great foundation of commerce; becauſe, as many nations want this depoſitory of wealth, which ſeems to be confined to certain countries; and as theſe nations, without it, muſt have remained poor, had they not ſome method of acquiring this treaſure, it has cauſed an intercourſe between thoſe nations; ſo that what was called trade, ſo long as confined between people of the ſame country, is properly ſtiled commerce, when it is carried into ſo large an extent.

Commerce could not be eſtabliſhed without ſhipping. At leaſt, thoſe nations who have applied themſelves to that adventurous commerce, have, in all ages, exceeded thoſe in power, riches, and neceſſaries of life, who enjoyed a better climate, ſoil, or ſituation.

Nothing could be ſo great a ſpur to induſtry, as the invention of trade. When a man knows that his labour ſhall be crowned with plenty, he proceeds with courage, vigour, and activity; he is daily either inventing new ſchemes, or carrying arts, already known, to the utmoſt perfection. In which view, trade is the great principle of ſcience, both theoretical and practical.

Again, it is to trade that we aſcribe the beginning of civility and ſociety: and when this had improved man's circumſtances, the deſire of keeping and enjoying the property ſo obtained, introduced and eſtabliſhed equal, limited, and legal governments; and living under, and the being protected by ſuch governments, is properly ſtiled liberty; which, therefore, is not only highly conſiſtent with, but, in ſome meaſure, eſſentially neceſſary to trade. But what has at all times recommended commerce beyond all other acquiſitions, is the power, or the ability of independency, which it gives to that nation where it flouriſheth moſt. There is no maxim more inconteſtible in all ages, than that the people who prevail at ſea, will, in the end, prevail on ſhore. No maritime power was ever ruined by a land war, till her power was firſt broken at ſea, or ſhe loſt the power of the ſea.

Therefore, if liberty, property, an equal government, a flouriſhing ſtate of learning, perfection in arts and ſcience, public magnificence, private abundance, and a capacity of defending and preſerving theſe bleſſings againſt all invaders, be certain and inconteſtible benefits, they are ſuch as commerce, and commerce only, is able to give to any people or nation.

TRADE is alſo a private art, and way of living. As to private trades, at common law, none was prohibited to exerciſe any particular trade, wherein he had any ſkill or knowledge; and if he uſed it unſkilfully, the party grieved might have his remedy againſt him by action on the caſe, &c. By 5 *Eliz.* a man muſt ſerve ſeven years apprenticeſhip before he can ſet up any trade; though it hath been reſolved that the ſtatute doth not prohibit the uſe of a trade for a family, but the public uſe of it in general. An indictment on 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. for exerciſing a trade uſed at that time in Great-Britain, quaſhed; it ſhould have been England, there being then no ſuch kingdom as Great-Britain. 1 *Str.* 552. 2 *Str.* 788. 11 *Rep.* 53. If a bond or promiſe reſtrain the exerciſe of a trade, though it be to a particular place only, if there was no conſideration for it, it is void; if there be a conſideration, in ſuch caſe it may be good: but if the reſtraint be general throughout England, although there be a conſideration, it will be void. 2 *Lill. Abr* 179. *L. Raym.* 1456. 2 *Strange* 739.

A perſon not qualified to exerciſe a trade himſelf, by having ſerved an apprenticeſhip, entering into partnerſhip with a qualified partner, and only ſharing the profits, and ſtanding the riſques of the partnerſhip, without ever exerciſing or interfering in the trade himſelf perſonally, is not within the prohibitory and penal act of 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. ſo as to be liable to the penalties of it. *Bur. Rep.* 5, 10. *See* 20. *Vin. Abr.* 317. 335.

TRADE-WINDS, denote certain regular winds at ſea, blowing either conſtantly the ſame way, or alternately this way and that; thus called from their great uſe in navigation, and the Indian commerce.

The trade winds are of different kinds, ſome blowing three or ſix months of the year one way, and then the like ſpace of time the oppoſite way, very common in the Indian ſeas, and called monſoons.

Others blow conſtantly the ſame way; ſuch is that general wind between the tropics, which, off at ſea, is found to blow all day long from eaſt to weſt.

TRAGACANTHA, *or* ADRAGANTH. *See* GUM TRAGACANTH.

TRANSCRIPT, a copy of any original writing, particularly that of an act, or inſtrument, inſerted in the the body of another.

TRANSFER, in commerce, &c. an act whereby a perſon ſurrenders his right, intereſt, or property in any thing moveable or immoveable to another.

TRASSEL. *See* BAHAR.

TREASURE, ſignifies riches and wealth; and as the king's treaſure is the ſinews of war, and the honour and ſafety of the king in time of peace, *firmamentum belli & ornamentum pacis*; if any mine of baſe metal be found in any ground, it belongs to the lord of the ſoil; but if it be of gold or ſilver, it appertains to the king, in whoſe ground ſoever they be found. *Cowell edit.* 1727.

TREASURER, is an officer to whom the treaſure of another is committed to be kept, and truly diſpoſed of: the chiefeſt of theſe with us is the treaſurer of England, who is a lord by his office, and one of the greateſt men of the land, under whoſe charge and government is all the prince's wealth contained in the Exchequer; as alſo the clerks of all officers any way employed in the collecting of the impoſts, tributes, or other revenues belonging to the crown. This high officer hath, by virtue of his office, the nomination of all eſcheators yearly throughout England, and giveth the places of all cuſtomers and ſearchers in all the parts of the realm, with divers other matters, &c.

TREE, *arbor*, the firſt and largeſt of the vegetable kind, conſiſting of a ſingle trunk, out of which ſpring forth branches and leaves.

*Standards*,

*Standards*, *or* TREES *in full air*, are such as naturally rise a great height, and are not topped. For the choice of trees of this kind to be transplanted out of a nursery, Quintiney recommends us to such as are strait, six feet high at least, and five or six inches thick at bottom, and three or four at top; the bark pretty smooth and shining, as a token of their youth, and of the good soil they grew in.

*Dwarf* TREES, are such as are kept low, and never suffered to have above half a foot of stem. These are used to be kept hollow in the middle, that the branches spreading round about the sides may form a kind of round bowl or bush.

*Wall*-TREES, are those whose branches are stretched out, and nailed against walls. For dwarf and wall-trees, such are to be chosen out of the nursery for transplantation as are strait, and consist of a single stem, and a single graft, rather than two or three grafted in several branches; their thickness at bottom should be two or three inches.

*Timber*-TREES, are those whose trunks are tall and strait, whereof beams, masts, &c. are used to be made.

*Coniferous*-TREES, are those whose fruit is of a conical figure, as the pine, fir, larch, &c. These are also called resiniferous, by reason coniferous-trees are generally covered with a bark that abounds in rosin.

The proprietors of trees cut down or taken away how recompenced, and the offenders punished, 43 *Eliz. c.* 7. 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *f.* 2.

Ingrossing oak-bark prohibited, 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *f.* 19.

Penalty of selling oaks to be barked, 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 22. *f.* 20.

The houses of persons suspected to have cut or taken them away, to be searched, 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. *f.* 3.

Persons destroying plantations punished as trespassers, 22 and 23 *Car.* II. *c.* 7. *f.* 5. 1 *Geo.* I. *stat.* 2. *c.* 48. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 16. 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *f.* 6.

As felons, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 22. *f.* 1.

The neighbouring inhabitants, 1 *Geo.* I. *stat.* 2. *c.* 48. 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 16.

And the hundred answerable for damages, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 22. *f.* 7. 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 36. *f.* 9. *See* TIMBER.

TREE-MAKER. This art requires neither any extraordinary abilities nor learning, and no more strength than a joiner. The tree-maker forms the wooden part of saddles, and much of the easy setting of the saddle, with respect to the horse, depends on him; for gentlemens saddles he usually takes the measure of the horse's back, and by that means fits him exactly. Those of this business are employed by the saddler; and there are not any extraordinary profits to be made of it, either by the master or the journeyman: however, the materials used by the master are not costly, and he has the advantage of giving little credit. He takes from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when his time is expired, may set up with twenty pounds.

TRET, in commerce, an allowance made for the water or the dust that may be mixed with any commodity, which is generally four pounds in every hundred and four pounds weight.

TRIALS *of issues joined*. The chief baron, or, in his absence, any other baron of the court of Exchequer, may, as justices of *nisi prius* for the county of Middlesex, try issues within the several term-times, or within the space of eight days after the expiration thereof, 18 *Eliz. c.* 12. *f.* 1. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 31. *f.* 1.

TRINITY-HOUSE, is a house at Deptford, which belongs to a company or corporation of seamen, that have power by the king's charter, to take knowledge of those that destroy sea-marks, and to redress their doings; as also to correct the faults of sailors, &c. and to take care of divers other things belonging to the navigation, and the seas. *Stat* 8. *Eliz.* 13. And 35 *Eliz.* 6. Pilots licenced by this corporation how regulated and governed. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 20. *See* BALLAST.

TRIPE-SHOP. This is a very nasty sloppy business. Those who keep these shops, cleanse and wash the intrails of beasts from all their filth, boil them, and then expose them to sale. They do not usually take apprentices; but when they do, they commonly take poor girls with little or no money.

TRIPOLI. *See* AFRICAN COASTS.

TRIPOLI, *or* TRIPOLY, *terra Tripolitana*, a kind of dry soft stone, or chalk of a citron colour, used in polishing the lapidaries, gold-smiths, copper-smiths, and glass-grinders works.

Some imagine tripoli a common stone, burnt and calcined by the sulphureous exhalations which happen to be under the mines where it is found; of these mines there are a number in divers parts of Europe, particularly in Italy, where the tripoli is very good. Others with more probability take it for a native earth.

TROCHITES, or *Trochitæ*, in natural history, a kind of figured fossile stones, resembling parts of plants.

The entrochus and trochites differ no other ways than as separated parts or congeries of the same body. The single joints are called trochitæ, and the columns composed of several of these arranged together in their natural forms, the entrochi. They seem to have been part of the arm of that singular species of the sea star-fish, called stella arborescens, petrified. The entrochi are cylindric columns with prominent rings all round them, placed at various distances, and are made up of a number of flat or thin round joints, pierced through in the middle usually with a round, though sometimes with an oval or oblong hole, and which, when separate and single, are the trochitæ. The cavity should run through the whole body of the entrochus, which is formed of a regular arrangement of these; but we commonly find it filled up with earthy or stony matter, much fouler or coarser than the substance of the entrochus itself; sometimes, however, it is empty, and the entrochus is hollow throughout.

The usual length of the entrochi is about an inch, and their diameter about one-fourth of an inch; but there is no certainty as to this; some of them are found little thicker than pins, and others of more than an inch in diameter, and four or five inches in length. They are generally of a bluish grey colour, but sometimes are brown, sometimes whitish, and sometimes reddish; they are always composed of the same substance, which is a plated or tabulated spar, perfectly like that which the *lapis Judaicus* is composed of; and, when broken, they in the same manner always separate obliquely, not in the direction of the rings, and shew two very even glossy surfaces, looking as if polished by art. They are naturally cylindric columns, but, like all other fossiles of the extraneous kind, are liable to external injuries in their concretion, and are accordingly found sometimes crushed and flatted. Their central cavity is sometimes round, sometimes oblong, and sometimes pentangular in the manner of the asterea; sometimes an impression like that of one of the single joints of that stone is seen on each side the trochites, or at each end of the entrochus, and the body is then called an entrocha asterea. Sometimes the columns are smooth and simple; but at others they have the rudiments of other branches, or smaller columns, which have grown out from them, and the stumps of which, where they have been broken off, appear. There are frequently found, oblong with the entrochi, certain fragments of plated bodies to which they have belonged, and sometimes the entrochi are found affixed to them. These are generally of a convex figure, and are called modioli; they have evidently been parts of the same body to which the entrochus has belonged; and it is as evident that the entrochi are marine bodies, since other marine substances, as tubuli and the like, are found affixed to them, and ever conforming themselves to their shape; which is a convincing proof that the entrochi were existing in their present shape, in those seas, where the shells affixed to them were afterwards formed.

The entrochi are composed of spar, and consequently they exhibit all the characters of that fossile; they very readily calcine in the fire, and they make a great effervescence with acids, and are totally dissolved by them. They are of the number of those bodies that are tossed about by the acid in solution, and the single joints in a flat-bottomed vessel will keep in motion till they are wholly dissolved, and have hence, like many other bodies of the same alkaline nature, been called creeping stones.

The trochitæ and entrochi are found bedded in the strata of blue clay in many of the northern counties in England, in great abundance, and lie sometimes so near the surface, that they are turned up in ploughing. They

are alſo frequently immerſed in ſtone in vaſt abundance. The Derbyſhire marble contains ſuch an innumerable quantity of them, that it ſeems principally made up of them. It is to theſe alone that it owes its beautiful variegations. It is not ſo eaſy to diſtinguiſh what they are in poliſhed ſurfaces, or even the harder part of the marble when broken, unleſs by an experienced eye; but the ragged edges and ſurfaces of the blocks ſhew them very plainly.

They are eſteemed very powerful diuretics, and are given, in places where they are common, in all nephritic caſes, and that often with great ſucceſs. The people take them in powder as much as will lie on a ſhilling for a doſe. There is no doubt of their poſſeſſing all the virtues of the *lapis Judaicus*, ſince they are almoſt intirely the ſame in ſubſtance and conſtituent matter, however different in form.

TROPICS, in geography, are two leſſer circles of the globe drawn parallel to the equator, through the beginnings of Cancer and Capricorn.

Theſe tropics are in the planes of the celeſtial tropics, and at the diſtance of 23° 29′ from the equator, which is the ſun's greateſt declination.

TROUBAHOUACHE, called alſo moneha, or monka, a meaſure uſed by the inhabitants of Madagaſcar, for their huſked rice, containing near ſix pounds of that grain; but for their unhuſked rice, they have another meaſure named zaton.

TROY-WEIGHT. *See* WEIGHT.

TRUCES. *See* LEAGUES.

TRUFFLES, *tubera terræ*, in natural hiſtory, a kind of ſubterraneous vegetable production not unlike muſhrooms.

This ſort of plant is only a fleſhy tuberele covered with a hard ſort of cruſt, rough, and ſomewhat regularly ſurrowed, on the ſurface, almoſt like the Cyprus-nut. It does not riſe above the ſurface of the earth, but lies concealed about half a foot below it. Great numbers of them are found in the ſame place, of different ſizes. Some of them are now and then found of a pound weight, or even a pound and a quarter; theſe laſt are but rare.

It is certain, however, that ſome of them are very large; they grow in different countries, and in Pliny's time the moſt valuable were brought from Africa. They are now found in Europe, in Brandenburgh, and ſeveral other parts of Germany, and are very common in Italy, Provence, Dauphine, Languedoc, Anjou, and Perigord. They grow alſo in Burgundy, and ſome of them are found about Paris. It is obſerved, that they are ordinarily found in fields that are uncultivated, of a reddiſh coloured earth, and ſandy, but ſomewhat rich. They grow at the feet, and under the ſhades of trees, ſometimes about the roots of ſtones, and ſometimes in clear earth. Their favourite trees are either the white or green oak, as the elm is that of the morellæ. They begin to be found when warm weather firſt ſucceeds the cold, ſooner or later, as the ſeaſon is more or leſs mild; for they have ſometimes been very rare after hard winters. At firſt they appear only like little round peas, red without, and white within. Theſe peas grow larger by degrees; from that time they take out of the ground what they commonly call white truffles; theſe are of themſelves inſipid, and people dry them as an ingredient for ragouts, becauſe they keep better when dried, than marbled ones do.

As to the virtues of truffles, the common opinion is, that they are hot: Galen, however, according to Matthiolus, looks upon them as indifferent, and the baſis of all other ſeaſonings; and, indeed, it is to this purpoſe that they are uſed in all ragouts. Avicena ſpeaks of them in a manner quite different, and ſays, they ingender thick humours more than any other food; that they are of a hard digeſtion, heavy on the ſtomach, and, when much uſed, they have a tendency to bring on an apoplexy and palſy. For my part, I believe theſe two authors may be reconciled, if we conſider two qualities in the truffle, which are capable of producing two different effects: Firſt, they may prove hot of themſelves, by emitting their volatile ſalts in the ſtomach, or by being mixed with ſalt, pepper, and other ſpices, which they drink up like a ſponge. In the ſecond place they may prove of hard digeſtion, when eaten immoderately by a perſon of a weak ſtomach, in which caſe they produce bad effects, ſtagnate, and form themſelves into a glareous ſubſtance, which diſorders the ſtomach, and which may be occaſioned by the cold quality aſcribed to them by Galen. As a proof that the truffle is of hard digeſtion, it has this in common with other fruits, that it grows hard in ſpirit of wine, and is with difficulty diſſolved in water. I kept one ſix months in water, without its being entirely rotten, the bark ſtill remaining, and not rotten, after all the reſt. *Geoffroy, in the Memoirs de l'Acad. Roy des. Scien. A.* 1711.

TRUNDHEIM, called alſo DRONTHEIM, is an ancient city, and was formerly the ſeat of the Norway kings; though now become the reſidence of a grand bailiff, and biſhop, whoſe cathedral is the moſt magnificent of any in the country, being built with a coarſe black marble, which a neighbouring quarry produces. Its exports are fourteen feet three inch ſir deals; great quantities of nine to ten feet one and a half inch ditto, red and white deals, in all ten to eleven hundred thouſand; tar, and near five hundred tons of iron, moſtly for Amſterdam.

TRUNK-MAKER. This noiſy trade requires a moderate degree of ſtrength, but little genius, and no more learning than is neceſſary for every other tradeſman. The trunk-maker is a ſhop-keeper, as well as a handicraft, in whoſe buſineſs there is really a greater variety than one would at firſt imagine; beſides many different ſorts of trunks, portmanteaus, &c. they generally make leather buckets. There are but few of this trade; and their profits are very conſiderable. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may earn from twelve to fifteen ſhillings a week; or, with two hundred pounds, may ſet up maſter.

TRUSS, *truſſa*, a bundle, or certain quantity of hay, ſtraw, &c.

A truſs of hay is to contain fifty-ſix pounds, or half an hundred weight; thirty-ſix truſſes make a load. In June and Auguſt the truſs is to weigh ſixty pounds, on forfeiture of eighteen ſhillings *per* truſs.

A truſs of forage is as much as a trooper can carry on his horſe's crupper.

TRUSS-MAKER. He requires ſome knowledge of the human body, and in the nature of thoſe diſeaſes, in which it is his buſineſs to afford relief. He makes truſſes of linen, and covers thoſe which according to his direction are made of ſteel. He employs ſmiths in making irons for the relief of the lame and the crooked; and cauſes artificial legs, hands, and glaſs-eyes to be made; in all which he deals, as well as in other things of the like nature. There are not many of this buſineſs; and moſt of thoſe keep ſhop. It is very profitable; but they take no apprentice.

TRUXILLO is ſix leagues from the South-Sea, having a port called Guanchaco, the moſt difficult to enter, and the moſt unſafe of any on the coaſt. Its chief trade conſiſts in wheat, flour, wine, ſugar, ſweetmeats, eſpecially quince, marmelade in caſks, cattle, horſes, mules, &c.

TUCHEA. *See* BAHAR.

TUN, is a meaſure of oil or wine, containing twelve ſcore and twelve gallons, or four hogſheads. *Stat.* 1 *R.* III. *c.* 12. 2 *H.* VII. *c.* 11. and 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 14.

A tun of timber is forty ſolid feet; a load fifty.

TUNQUIN, *or* TONQUIN, as it ſhould be pronounced, was for a long time a provinee of China, when Cochinchina and Chiampa were a part of it; at preſent theſe two kingdoms are ſeparated, and Tunquin, more compact than before, is bounded on two ſides, by three provinces of China, which are Canton to the eaſt, and Invan and Quanſi to the north; to the weſt it touches on the kingdom of Brama, and to the ſouth on Cochinchina, and the gulph to which this laſt has given its name.

The Tunquinois did not till pretty lately renounce the politics they had learnt from the Chineſe, not to trade with any foreign nation, but at laſt they are become more tractable; having at firſt permitted ſtrangers to come and trade with them, and were afterwards emboldened to go and traffick with others, as they now do at Siam, Batavia, and many other places of India, to which they ſend ſhips.

The beſt merchandize that the Europeans can carry to Tunquin, are gold and ſilver, eſpecially dollars, although they are not without them; as here comes a great deal of gold from China, and a quantity of ſilver from Japan; beſides, ſome pretend that this kingdom has mines of both theſe

theſe metals, though Mr. Tavernier denies it, and with a reaſonable probability. Other commodities brought here, are ſpice, pepper, quickſilver, vermilion, cloths, and yellow amber. Theſe people are open and faithful in their dealings, in which they are very different from their quondam maſters the Chineſe, who pride themſelves in cheating foreigners, and uſe a thouſand chicaneries in their purchaſes and ſales.

Silks are in ſuch plenty at Tonquin, that both rich and poor equally clothe themſelves with ſeveral light ſtuffs made of them in the country; and the major part of thoſe things, which in other places are made of flax or hemp, are compoſed here of this material. The Dutch export great quantities of theſe ſilks for Japan, being more commodious than to fetch thoſe of Perſia and Bengal, as they did before their trade was eſtabliſhed at Tonquin.

Here is alſo to be purchaſed muſk, tortoiſe-ſhell, aloes wood (of which here is ſome worth near an hundred and thirty pounds ſterling *per* pound;) ſugar in pound and half pound loaves, proper for Japan; porcelanes (brought from abroad) lacque, rice, and thoſe birds neſts mentioned in the article of Cochinchina, which are found in five ſmall iſlands of the gulph, where both the Tunquinois and Chineſe go to ſeek them. It is alſo in five other neighbouring iſles, that they go to catch turtles (or tortoiſes) which come aſhore there in ſuch quantities at certain ſeaſons, as to render the ſale of their ſhells and ſalted fleſh one of the beſt branches of trade in this kingdom. They have oranges and lemons here, as in all other parts of India; but theſe latter are ſo ſour, as to become thereby uſeleſs for refreſhments to the ſhips, and are therefore only conſumed here inſtead of aqua fortis, to cleanſe copper, braſs, or iron, for gilding, in the dying of their ſilks, and in the lyes for their linens, which makes them of a dazzling whiteneſs.

TURBAN, turbant, the head-dreſs of moſt of the eaſtern and Mahometan nations, conſiſting of two parts, viz. a cap and a ſaſh of fine linen, or taffety, artfully wound in divers plates about the cap.

TURBARY, is a right to dig turfs on another man's ground. And common of turbary is a liberty which ſome tenants have by preſcription, to dig on the lord's waſte. Turbaria is alſo taken ſometimes for the ground where turfs are digged.

TURBOTS may be imported, as they might have been before 10 and 11 *Will.* III. 1 *Geo.* I. *ſtat.* 2. *c.* 18.

TURBITH. It is not agreed of what this is properly the root; ſome will have it of the thlaſpia, which Schroder is poſitive in; and Cluſius of the ſcammony. We find it, however, deſcribed by C. Bauhine,—*repens foliis altheæ*; and, by Ray, and Herman, *convolvulus indicus, alatus, maximus, foliis ibiſco nonnihil ſimilibus anguloſis.* It is much of the nature of hermodactyls and mechoacan, but more efficacious. It yields good ſtore of reſinous particles to a ſpirituous menſtruum, which affect not much the larger paſſages, but are very active and briſk in the ſmaller veſſels, and glandulous contortions, which this root wonderfully clears of all viſcid adheſions. The ancients had a notion, that, where agaric failed, turbith took effect; and, when that was not ſufficient, coloquintida was the furtheſt they could proceed with ſuch kind of inſtruments. This is not much in extemporaneous preſcriptions, but in pretty many of the officinal compoſitions, the *extractum rudii* particularly. Horſtius relates ſomewhat almoſt incredible, in his obſervations, of bringing away from a country perſon, ſomewhat like toads, with the ſpecies diaturbith *cum rhabarbaro*, in which this is a principal ingredient. The compoſition is in Schroder, and ſome other German diſpenſatory writers; but it is not in our ſhops or practice.

This ſimple is hardly ever given alone, or to any but grown perſons. Its doſe is from half a drachm to a drachm in powder, and from one drachm to half an ounce in infuſion. Some commend it in obſtinate ſcorbutic caſes, and even in the moſt aggravated ſymptoms of the venereal diſtemper; but common practice does not much own it in thoſe intentions.

TURBITH MINERAL, yellow precipitate of mercury. *See* MERCURY.

TURCOISE, or TURQUOISE, a ſpecies of gem, or precious ſtone.

The turquoiſe has at all times been eſteemed a gem, tho' more opake than any other ſubſtance that was ever honoured with that name. It, however, very ill merits ſo pompous a title, all of it being either copper ore, or what is yet farther than that from the nature of a gem. There are indeed two kinds of this gem, as it is called, diſtinguiſhed by the ſame common name; the one is a true and genuine ore of this metal, the other the bones of animals, tinged to an elegant blue colour, by having lain in places under the earth where copper has been near them.

That kind which we uſually diſtinguiſh by the name of the turquoiſe of the old rock, and which Pliny and the antients called Calais, is a true and genuine copper ore, and is of exactly that kind in regard to this metal, that the hæmatites is to iron; it is found in the perpendicular fiſſures of the ſtrata of ſtone, which contain copper adhering to their ſides, in form of a cruſt, and riſing into botryoide efflorescences, which ſometimes ſtand ſingle, and are in bigneſs from the ſize of a pea to that of a walnut; but ſometimes happening to be placed cloſe to one another, they join and form flat cruſts or maſſes, extending in the manner of cruſts of the hæmatites, to three, four, or more inches in breadth; in theſe the prominent part of every tubercle appearing on the ſurface, the whole ſeems a conjunction of ſemi-circular bodies, of a fine blue colour, joined by an intermediate ſubſtance of the ſame nature.

This kind of the turquoiſe is of a very cloſe texture and gloſſy ſurface, but very ſoft; and, when broken, ſhews the ſame cruſtated and ſtriated texture with the hæmatites; only that the ſtriæ are uſually finer, and the plates better joined. It ferments with aquafortis, and may be in great part diſſolved by it; and, on calcining, it loſes all its colour, and becomes of a dirty white. This is produced in Perſia, and ſome other parts of the Eaſt. The Germans alſo have a botryoide copper ore, in ſome of their mines; but it is green, and much ſofter than the true turquoiſe of this kind, though this has been often produced among us alſo, under the name of that gem.

The other turquoiſe is nothing more than the teeth or bones of animals, which have lain in the way of effluvia, in which copper has been contained, and by this means have acquired veins and ſtreaks of a deep blue; which, on the whole being ſlightly calcined, diffuſe themſelves through all the ſubſtance, and give it the fine pale blue we ſo much admire in this gem. If the fire that diffuſes this colour be a little too ſtrong, it ſends it wholly off, and leaves in place of the turquoiſe only a white bone. The turquoiſes of this laſt kind are common in France; there are mines of them there, and the people who work them are perfectly acquainted with the method of diffuſing the colour through them. Theſe are what are now uſually worn, and, when fine, are called by many of our jewellers, turquoiſes of the old rock as well as the other. The virtues attributed to this gem are very great, but all we know of it at preſent is, that, like the other bodies that contain copper, it is a violent emetic and not fit to be received into practice.

TURIN. *See* PIEDMONT.

TURKESTAN is about ſeventy leagues long, and as many broad, having ſeveral good diſtricts of land on the ſide of the river Jemba; and towards the mountains which divide this province from thoſe of the Calmoucks; but the inhabitants make no advantage of it, as rapine is their only occupation, and few amongſt them have any fixed habitation, but live in tents, towards the frontiers of the Calmoucks, and the aforeſaid river, that they may be within reach of benefiting themſelves by any occaſions that ſhall offer for pillage or plunder; and they go to ſell the ſlaves they make in theſe excurſions either to the Charaſſin or Grand Boucharie, where they always find Perſian, or Armenian, and ſometimes Indian purchaſers.

TURKEY. The Turkey trade is carried on by a company of merchants, incorporated by queen Elizabeth, under the title of the Levant, or Turkey company, and whoſe charter was confirmed by her ſucceſſor, king James I. with the addition of many new privileges, and a form of polity obſerved ever ſince. This company is of a very particular inſtitution, as the members are not obliged to contribute any thing to a general fund; ſo that it may more properly be termed a ſimple aſſociation, of which the partners have nothing in common but their charter and government, every one trading on his own ſtock, though obliged to ſubmit to the regulations of the company, and contribute his ſhare of the neceſſary expences about it.

The

The troubles of the kingdom under Oliver Cromwell gave riſe to no ſmall ones in this company, as many members were thruſt in, unqualified in the manner that the charters of queen Elizabeth and king James required; but on the reſtoration, king Charles endeavoured to re-eſtabliſh its quondam reputation.

His charter was dated the ſecond of April, 1662, and contains (beſides the confirmation of that granted by king James) many new articles about their polity, or the amendment of it.

The company is eſtabliſhed in a body politick, capable of making laws for their government, with a ſeal under the name of the governor and company of Engliſh merchants treading to the Levant ſeas.

The number of its members are not fixed, as every one properly qualified may be admitted, though they are generally about three hundred.

The principal qualifications for admittance is, being a merchant (and not a tradeſman or retailer) bred either under a father, or by ſerving a regular apprenticeſhip to ſome other. Thoſe who deſire to become an aſſociate, muſt pay the company twenty-five pounds ſterling if they are under twenty-five years of age, and double that ſum if they are above; and muſt ſwear on their admiſſion, to ſend no goods to Turkey but on their own accounts, and to conſign them only to ſuch as belong to the company or their factors.

The company is governed by itſelf, and determines affairs by a plurality of voices, in which the merchant trading for one thouſand pounds has an equal vote with him that trades for an hundred times as much; and for its better management, there is a court ſettled in London, conſiſting of the governor, ſub-governor, and twelve aſſiſtants, who ought all to live in the city or ſuburbs; there is alſo a deputy-governor in all the towns and ports of England, where any members of the ſaid company reſide.

It is this aſſembly at London who ſends the ſhips, and regulate the tariff for the prices, which the European goods carried to Turkey are to be ſold at, as well as the quality of thoſe to be brought back; it alſo raiſes the taxes on the ſaid merchandiſes, when the neceſſary preſents, or other common expences in regard of this trade, require it.

It preſents the ambaſſador to the throne for approbation; and alſo nominates the conſuls of Smyrna and Conſtantinople, whoſe penſions the company pays, and therefore never permit either theſe latter, or the former to raiſe any contributions on ſhips or goods under pretext of being to defray the expence of ſome neceſſary gift or other extraordinary charges, and by this means avoid the diſorders which other nations, not governed by ſuch wholeſome laws, fall into, to the no ſmall detriment of their commerce.

The company alſo nominate and pay their principal officers, ſuch as the miniſter, ſecretary, chancellor, interpreters, and janiſaries, and this to the end that they ſhall not raiſe nor impoſe any new ſum on the merchants, ſhips, or goods.

In extraordinary caſes, the conſuls, and even the ambaſſador himſelf, have recourſe to two deputies of the company, who reſide on the ſpot; or if the affair be very important, they aſſemble the whole nation, who regulate and determine the preſents that are to be given, the voyages to be made, and every other circumſtance neceſſary to be treated of; and in conformity to the reſolutions then taken, the deputies order the treaſurer to ſupply the money, goods, or European curioſities agreed on; and this treaſurer is eſtabliſhed by the company, and his caſh ariſes from the taxes and impoſts, which they themſelves have thought proper to lay on goods to diſcharge the common expences of the aſſociation.

It is true, however, that the ambaſſador and conſuls may act alone on all theſe occaſions; but beſides its being a tacit clauſe in the penſions paid them, to do nothing without the deputies advice, they chuſe rather to conform to this rule than otherwiſe, for their own diſcharge.

The places reſerved to this company for their trade, are the ſtates of the republick of Venice (in its gulf) thoſe of Raguſa, and all the grand ſeignor's dominions; the ports of the Levant and Mediterranean, excepting thoſe of Carthagena, Alicant, Denia, Valencia, Barcelona, Marſeilles, Toulon, Genoa, Leghorn, Civita Vecchia, Palermo, Meſſina, Malta, Majorca, Minorca, Corſica, and all other ports and places of commerce on the coaſts of France, Spain, and Italy. And the fine for thoſe caught in trade, and not members of the company is twenty *per cent.* on the value of the loading ſo taken.

By the act of 26 of *Geo.* II. any ſubject of Great-Britain may be admitted a member of this company, on requeſting it of the governor or deputy-governor, within thirty days after making ſuch requeſt, and paying twenty pounds, and taking an oath to be faithful to his majeſty and the company.

This trade to be carried on in Britiſh and plantation-built ſhips only, navigated according to law; and the goods may be conſigned to any freemen of the company, their ſons, or apprentices, being his majeſty's Chriſtian ſubjects.

No goods or merchandizes, coming from the Levant without a clean bill of health, and liable to retain the infection of the plague, ſhall be landed in Great-Britain or Ireland, or in the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, unleſs it ſhall appear to the ſatisfaction of his majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, or of his or their privy-council, that ſuch goods have been ſufficiently opened and aired in the lazarets of Malta, Ancona, Venice, Meſſina, Leghorn, Genoa, and Marſeilles, or one of them.

Great complaints having been made of the decay of the Turkey trade during the war begun in 1756, by the importation of French cloth into Turkey, the following act paſſed, which was to be in force no longer than the continuance of the war:

The preamble of 32 *Geo.* II. ſets forth, that the importation of woollen broad cloth of the manufacture of France into any places within the Levant ſeas, by Britiſh ſubjects, is not only a diſcouragement and prejudice to the woollen manufactures of Great-Britain, but is alſo a means of affording relief to the enemy, and thereby enabling them to carry on the war; to prevent ſuch deſtructive commerce for the future, it is enacted, that no woollen goods of the manufacture of France ſhall be carried into any place in the Levant ſeas by any ſubjects of this realm.

No woollen goods of this kingdom ſhall be imported within the limits of the company's charter, except directly from this kingdom by a Britiſh ſubject, unleſs the importer ſhall produce to the ambaſſador, conſul, or vice-conſul, or other proper officer appointed by the company at the place where ſuch goods ſhall be imported, a certificate upon oath from the exporter or ſhipper at the laſt place of exportation, that the ſame were brought or received from Great-Britain; and in ſuch certificate ſhall be deſcribed the name of the ſhip and maſter, and the time when the goods were imported into ſuch laſt loading port from Great-Britain; which certificate ſhall be atteſted by the Britiſh conſul or perſon acting in his abſence, reſiding at ſuch laſt loading port; and the ſhipper ſhall alſo produce the bill of lading from Great-Britain; and the conſul ſhall take notice in his atteſtation of ſuch bill being produced to him.

The conſul, &c. upon granting ſuch certificate, is to enter a duplicate thereof in a book which is to be ſigned by the ſhipper of the goods, he taking the oath required before making out ſuch certificate, which book is to be received as final evidence in all diſputes reſpecting certificates, and may be examined gratis.

Where the conſul, &c. ſhall receive information upon oath, ſetting forth good reaſon to ſuſpect the authenticity of the certificate, he is to ſignify the ſame to the importer, and take ſecurity in double the value of the goods, which become forfeited if it ſhall appear no ſuch certificate was granted; ſuch ſecurity to be aſſigned to the informer for his ſole benefit.

As often as any ſuch objection ſhall be made to the certificate, the conſul, &c. is to tranſmit notice thereof to the conſul where ſuch diſputed certificate ſhall be alledged to have been granted, requiring an atteſtation under his hand and ſeal, whether ſuch certificate was granted by him; which atteſtation the conſul is to tranſmit by the firſt oportunity; and upon receipt thereof is to be laid before the importer: if the certificate be thereby verified, the ſecurity ſhall be immediately cancelled; but if not, the



penalty

An ACCURATE MAP of
TURKY
IN
ASIA:
By
G. Rollos, Geog.
EUROPE
BLACK SEA
CIRCASSIA
KRIM
Bakczisaray
Mount Caucasus
GEORGIA
Teflis
Erivan
Erzerum
Trebizond
Sinope
Amasia
Tokat
Sivas
Cesarea
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Dead Sea
Jaffa
Gaza
Alexandria
Grand Cairo
Suez
Tor
Elath
Kerkuk
Mosul
Bagdad
Bassora
Kathema
Amadan
Ispahan
Laurestan
Chiniz
Bender Rik
Bender Richer
L. Van
Diarbekir
Mardin
Nisibin
Rabba
Kerkisia
Ana
Enbar
Hella
Hobeira
Romaia
Samadara
Bridge
Corna
Medina
Reamla
Al-Kaisar
Tcha-Haffer
Kab-al-Sor
Soura
Gezel
Kadir
Tab R.
Euphrates R.
Tigris R.
Mouratchai R.
Ermak R.
Sacari R.
Danube R.
Kur R.
Aras R.
Nile R.
Desart of Syria
Desart of Diarbek
Scale of British Miles:
50
100
200
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CANDY I.
CYPRUS I.
RHODES
ARCHIPELAGO
CONSTANTINOPLE
SEA OF MARMORA
MOUTHS OF THE NILE
EGYPT
AFRICA
RED SEA
ARABIA
PERSIAN GULPH
ARMENIA
CURDISTAN
DIARBEK
IRAK ARABI
ARABIA
ARSIA
40 Degrees E. from London.
III Hours E. from London.

penalty to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, and be applied as before directed.

All woollen goods without ſuch certificate, except imported directly from England, ſhall be deemed French; and his majeſty's ambaſſador, &c. is required to confiſcate the ſame.

Every merchant, &c. being a ſubject of Great-Britain, or reſiding under the protection of the Britiſh ambaſſador, &c. within the limits of the company's charter, ſhall before the exportation of any goods make oath before the ſaid ambaſſador, &c. that the ſame were nnt purchaſed with the produce of, or taken in barter for, the woollen manufactures of France.

Every perſon who ſhall import into Great-Britain any goods of the growth or manufacture of Turkey, within the limits of the company's charter, ſhall make the ſame oath before the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, &c. except ſuch goods as ſhall have been condemned as lawful prize.

If any certificate ſhall be loſt, the maſter of the veſſel muſt make oath before the Engliſh conſul, &c. of the purport of ſuch certificate, of the loſs of it, and that it hath nnt been diſpoſed of to any perſons whatſoever; and the ſaid maſter, or the conſignee of the ſaid goods, is alſo to give ſecurity, in the penalty of double the value of the goods, for procuring a duplicate of the certificate: thereupon the conſul, &c. ſhall grant a licence for importing the goods.

But prize goods, condemned, of any country whatſoever, may be imported on producing a copy of the ſentence of condemnation ſigned by the perſon who condemned the ſame.

To prevent the importation of raw ſilk, mohair yarn, &c. from being imported into this kingdom, purchaſed by the woollen manufactures of France, and imported from Leghorn and other places in Italy, contrary to the act of navigation, &c. it is enacted, that if any raw ſilk or mohair yarn, or any ſhip or veſſel bringing the ſame into England, Ireland, Wales, the iſlands of Guernſey, or Jerſey, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, ſhall be ſeized as forfeited by any acts of parliament, the perſon who ſhall make the ſeizure may not releaſe or abandon the ſame, or delay to proceed to judgment for the condemnation thereof, without firſt acquainting in writing, the governor, deputy-governor, treaſuret, or huſband of the ſaid company, or their ſecretary, of ſuch his intention, and delivering at the ſame time a copy of the ſchedule of ſuch ſeizure: and in caſe the ſaid governor and company, or any committee therenf, ſhall within ſeven days after give bond, or offer to give bond, under the common ſeal of their corporation, in the penal ſum of one thouſand pounds, with condition fot indemnifying ſuch officer, &c. againſt all coſts and charges, in caſe ſuch ſhip or goods ſhall not be adjudged forfeited; then ſuch officer, &c. ſhall not voluntarily abandon ſuch ſeizure without the conſent of the ſaid company or ſome committee thereof; hut ſhall proceed to judgment concerning the legality thereof.

Any member of the company ſhall be admitted to give evidence, either for the plaintiff, relator, or defendant upon the trial.

The commerce of this company is undoubtedly a very beneficial one to this nation, as may be ſeen by the following curious calculation taken from the Britiſh Merchant, and there qunted with a view to inſtruct the reader in the whole proceſs of the cloth manufacture, from its commencement to its conſumption; and to ſhew the advantages ariſing from the Turkey trade, by its taking off ſo large a ſhare of our woollens, and thereby contributing proportionably to the ſubſiſtence of our people.

| | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| A clothier buys at market fifty packs of wool, picked and ſorted, at 10 *l. per* pack | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| With which wool he makes 100 broad cloths, and the manufacture thereof in carding, ſpinning, weaving, milling, dreſſing, &c. as they are uſually brought to, and ſold white at Blackwell-Hall, will amount to about the firſt coſt of the wool | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| So that theſe one hundred cloths are ſold by the clothier to the merchant at 10 *l. per* cloth | 1000 | 0 | 0 |

And the merchant pays for the dying of the ſaid 100 cloths, viz. one third part in grain colours, at 7 *l.* and two thirds in ordinary colours, at 30 *s. per* cloth — *l.* 333 6 8

Alſo for ſetting, drawing, preſſing, packing, &c. 15 *s. per* cloth — 75 0 0

The ſaid 100 cloths will coſt the merchant 14 *l.* 1 *s.* 8 *d. per* cloth on board, which amounts to — 1408 6 8

And to repay him their coſt and charges here and aboard, with a bare allowance for inſurance, and the intereſt of his money, they cannot purchaſe leſs, we ſhould think, than twenty-two great pounds of Sherbaffee (or Perſia fine raw ſilk) for every cloth. Thus he probably receives for the ſaid 100 cloths, 2200 pounds wt. of the ſaid raw ſilk

Now if the half part of this ſilk is wrought up in plain coloured tabbies, the manufacturers will receive 13 *s.* 7 *d. per lib.* — 747 1 8

And if the other half part is wrought up into rich flowered ſilks brocaded, the manufacturers will receive 1 *l.* 19 *s* 9 *d. per lib.* — 2186 5 0

And the additional charge of dying, ſuppoſe but of $\frac{1}{8}$ part of the ſaid ſilk, into grain colours at 9 *s. per lib.* — 123 15 0

Then the coſt and charges of 100 woollen cloths, ſhipped from London to Turkey, and the manufacture of the raw ſilk brnught from thence, in return thereof muſt amount to — 4465 8 4

The freight of the ſaid 100 cloths, and of the ſaid 2200 *lib.* of raw ſilk is computed at — 40 12 6

Her majeſty's cuſtoms on the ſaid 2200 *lib.* of raw ſilk is — 156 15 0

Engliſh factors commiſſions abroad on the ſale of the cloth, and on inveſting the returns in ſilk, as aforeſaid, computed at — 100 0 0

It is hereby repreſented to the view of every reader, that every 2200 *lib.* wt. of raw ſilk imported from Turkey, and manufactured here for our conſumption, without paying any thing to the merchant's or mercer's gain, pays to the landholders, the labourers, and the crown, the ſum of — 4762 15 10

If any thing is to be added for the mercer's and merchant's gain (and we may depend upon it they will not be at the trouble of driving their trades for nothing) we may very well affirm, that the whole coſt of this manufacture for conſumption cannot be leſs than the ſum of five thouſand pounds. So that 2200 pounds weight of Turkey raw ſilk manufactured here, pays the ſum of five thouſand pounds to the ſubſiſtence of our own people.

This account takes the returns upon one hundred cloths exported to Turkey, and makes them pay five thouſand pounds to the ſubſiſtence of our people. But we have exported annually two hundred times as many cloths for Turkey, and receive for about half that quantity of cloth, the ſame kind of returns in raw ſilk for our own conſumption; and conſequently our own conſumption of Turkey ſilk, paid for the ſubſiſtence of our own people the ſum of five hundred thouſand pounds *per annum*, beſides what is paid hy the other half of that trade; but if the conſumption of five thouſand pounds value of Turkey ſilk manufactured pays five hundred pounds to the landed intereſt for the wool that is exported to Turkey in manufacture, then the annual conſumption of five hundred thouſand pounds value of that ſilk, muſt pay fifty thouſand pounds *per ann.* to the landed intereſt.

And yet this is not all that the landed intereſt receives annually by means of this half part of the Turkey trade; the crown and the ſubjects, who receive nine times as much for cuſtoms and labour, pay perhaps a nin h part of what they receive to the landed intereſt for clothes and proviſion; by which means the conſumption of Turkey ſilk, manufactured in England either directly or indirectly, pays a fifth part of its whole value to the landed intereſt, that is, it pays directly one tenth part of the value of the ſilk by the woollen manufacture exported, and as much

more by enabling the people to purchaſe neceſſary clothes and proviſions, of which much more than a tenth part is paid to the landed intereſt.

It will be objected here, that the ten pounds abovementioned upon a pack of wool, is not paid to the landed intereſt, ſince a part of it is paid to the ſhepherd's wages, and a part to the labour of picking and ſorting this wool: it is very true; but then conſidering how much of the product of the land is exported to purchaſe dying goods, the tenth part of the price of the whole ſilk manufacture may be well ſaid to be paid for the product of the landed intereſt.

It is therefore evident, that of every five thouſand pounds value of manufacture from Turkey ſilk, five hundred pounds is paid for the manufacturing of the Engliſh wool that is ſent abroad, three hundred and thirty-three pounds ſix ſhillings and eight-pence to the charge and labour of dying, ſeventy-five pounds to other labour beſtowed on that manufacture, ſeven hundred and forty-ſeven pounds one ſhilling and eight-pence for manufacturing one half of our returns, and two thouſand one hundred and eighty-ſix pounds five ſhillings of the other, beſides one hundred and twenty-three pounds fifteen ſhillings for dying the ſame in grain colours; add to this the freight of forty pounds twelve ſhillings and ſix-pence, beſides the charges to factors abroad, and merchants and mercers at home, and it will appear that near four thouſand of every five thouſand pounds value, or that near four hundred thouſand of every five hundred thouſand pounds value of Turkey ſilk wrought in England, is paid to the labour of the people beſtowed upon it; and we think this is enough to ſhew, that ſuch a trade ought to be carefully preſerved, and that it claims a ſhare in the regard of every gentleman in England.

This calculation, though made only on one particular of the Levant company's exports, may be adapted to any other branch of it, or indeed to any other trade where the returns are improved to the increaſe of our manufactures, and employ of our people.

Our exports for Turkey are cloths, ſerges, and other woollens, tin, lead, pepper, cochineal, indigo, iron and glaſs ware, leather, ſugar, &c. which we have here computed at near half a million yearly; and though Mr. Savary in his time complains that the French, by their ill management in their dying and manufacturing their cloths, had loſt the greateſt part of the conſiderable trade they before had in thoſe parts, which he ſays the Engliſh had ſecured, yet Mr. King takes notice many years after, that from a trifling commerce the French carried on, they in the year 1713 at leaſt equalled us, and we fear have once more furpaſſed us in the Levant traffick, ſo that we cannot imagine our Turkey company do now export near the value abovementioned.

The returns we have from thence, are raw ſilk, grogram yarn, cotton, and cotton yarn, wool, goats hair, coffee, dying goods, drugs, galls, &c.

TURMERIC, a ſmall root of an oblong figure, uſually met with in pieces from half an inch to an inch or two in length, and at the utmoſt ſurface the thickneſs of a man's little finger; its ſurface is uneven, and riſes into knobs in many places, and the longer pieces are ſeldom very ſtraight; it is very heavy and hard to break; it is not eaſily cut through with a knife, but, when cut, leaves a gloſſy ſurface. Its colour externally is a pale whitiſh grey, with ſome faint tinge of yellowneſs, and, when broken, is of a fine yellow within, this colour is bright and pale, and without admixture, when the root is freſh; but in keeping it by degrees becomes reddiſh, and at length is much like ſaffron in the cake. Thrown into water it ſpeedily gives it a fine yellow tinge, and, chewed in the mouth, it gives the ſpittle the ſame colour. It is eaſily powdered in the mortar, and, according to its different age, makes a yellow, an orange colour, or a reddiſh powder. It has a kind of aromatic ſmell, with ſomething of the odour of ginger in it. The taſte is acrid and diſagreeable, and has a conſiderable bitterneſs.

Turmeric was not known to the ancients, at leaſt we are not certain that they mean this root, by any one of the names in the liſt of their materia medica.

We have it from Java, Malabar, and many other parts of the Eaſt-Indies.

The plant which produces it is of the number of the monandria monogynia, according to the Linnæan ſyſtem, and of the herbæ bulboſis affines of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed in the Hortus Malabaricus, under the name of the manjella kua, and by Herman under that of kuba.

The leaves are a ſpan long, and three or four inches broad, of a fine green colour, and pointed at the end. The flowers grow on peculiar ſtalks of eight, ten, or more inches high, and of the thickneſs of a gooſe quill; they are collected in a kind of ſquamous cone, and of an oblong figure, reſembling thoſe of the cannacorus, but vaſtly ſmaller, and are of a pale reddiſh colour; theſe are ſucceeded by tricapſular ſeed veſſels, containing a quantity of ſmall roundiſh ſeed.

The people cultivate it in all their gardens; they dig up the roots for uſe ſoon after the flowers are fallen, and, beſides the quantity they ſend over dried to all parts of Europe, they uſe a great deal in their own ſauces and foods. Beſides its particular uſe, it is of great ſervice in dying, and in many other arts. The glovers uſe it to colour their leather, and the turners to give an agreeable yellow to ſeveral of their works made in the whiter woods.

TURNADO, *or* TORNADO, a wind which on ſome coaſts blows all night from the ſhore.

TURNER. The trade of a working turner is very fit for lads of a ſlight make, as the work is ingenious and not very laborious, being performed by means of a wheel and a lath. The different branches of this buſineſs are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the materials they work in; as the ivory turner, the ſilver turner, the turners of wood, &c. Some of them keep ſhops to ſell retail what they make or turn; but they moſtly work for the ſhops of others. They take with an apprentice from five to fifteen pounds; who, if good workmen, will afterwards be able to get eighteen or twenty ſhillings a week; or may ſet up with one hundred pounds.

There are alſo ſhop keepers called turners, though they do not themſelves make one article in the turner's way. Theſe ſell almoſt every thing that is turned in wood, baſkets, mops, brooms, waſhing-tubs, floor-cloths, matting, bruſhes of all kinds, and abundance of other articles. They take with apprentices from twenty to thirty pounds, who, as journeymen, will not be able to get more than twenty or twenty-five pounds *per annum* and their board; and may ſet up with two or three hundred pounds.

TURNIPS. Penalties on ſtealing turnips, 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 13.

TURNPIKE, a gate ſet up a-croſs a road, watched by an officer for the purpoſe, in order to ſtop travellers, waggons, coaches, &c. to take toll of them towards repairing or keeping the roads in repair.

Breaking or cutting them down, puniſhed as a treſpaſs, 1 *Geo.* II. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1.

Charges of proſecution to be defrayed out of the tolls, 5 *Geo.* 2. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 3.

Turnpikes illegally erected, to be removed by order of quarter ſeſſions, 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 4. Regulations of turnpike roads and other highways, 7 *Geo.* III.

TURNSOLE, *or* TORNSOLE, heliotrope, or the ſunflower, a plant ſo called, becauſe its flower is ſaid to follow the motion of the ſun, and to turn always towards it.

TURPENTINE, a tranſparent ſort of reſin flowing either naturally or by inciſion from ſeveral unctuous and reſinous trees, as the terebinthus, larch, pine, fir, &c.

We diſtinguiſh ſeveral kinds of turpentines; as that of Chio, that of Venice, that of Bourdeaux, that of Cyprus, Straſburg, &c.

The turpentine of Chio or Sio, which is the only genuine kind, and that which gives the denomination to all the reſt, is a whitiſh reſin, bordering a little on green, very clear, and a little odoriferous; drawn by inciſion from a tree called terebinthus, very common in that iſland, as alſo in Cyprus, and ſome parts of France and Spain.

The reſin muſt be choſen of a ſolid conſiſtence, almoſt without either taſte or ſmell, and not at all tenacious, which diſtinguiſhes it from the falſe turpentine of Venice, commonly ſubſtituted for it, which has a briſker ſmell, a bitter taſte, and ſticks much to the finger. This turpentine of Chio is indiſputably the beſt, but its ſcarcity occaſions it to be little in uſe. The turpentine of Venice is falſely ſo called; for, though there was a turpentine an-

ciently brought from Venice, yet, that now ſo called comes from Dauphiné.

It is liquid, of the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup, and whitiſh, and flows either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from the larch-tree, chiefly in the wood de Pilatze.

That flowing naturally, called by the Peaſants bijon, is a kind of balſam, not inferior in virtue to that of Peru, for which it is frequently ſubſtituted. That drawn by inciſion, after the tree has ceaſed to yield ſpontaneouſly, is of conſiderable uſe in ſeveral arts, and it is even of this that varniſh is chiefly made. It muſt be choſen white and tranſparent, and care be taken it have not been counterfeited with oil of turpentine. The turpentine of Bourdeaux is white, and as thick as honey. It does not ooze from the tree in the manner it is ſent to us, but is properly a compoſition, wherein, among other ingredients, is a white hard ſort of reſin called galipot.

The turpentine of Straſburg, the product of the abies or ſilver fir, is that moſt commonly uſed among us, and is preferred by our people to that of Venice, which is diſtinguiſhed from it by its green hue, fragrant ſmell, and citron flavour.

The uſes of turpentine in medicine are innumerable. It is a great vulnerary, and very detergent, and as ſuch is preſcribed in abſceſſes, ulcerations, &c. It promotes expectoration, and as ſuch is preſcribed in diſeaſes of the lungs and breaſt; but it is moſt famous for clearing the urinary paſſages, and as ſuch preſcribed in obſtructions of the reins, in gonorrhœas, &c.

*Oil of* TURPENTINE. There are two kinds of oil drawn from turpentine, by diſtillation; the firſt white, the ſecond red, both eſteemed as balſams proper for the cure of wounds, chilblains, &c. But they are ſo little uſed among us, that it is not eaſy to procure either of them.

What is commonly ſold under the name of oil of turpentine, or etherial oil, is only a diſtillation of the reſinous juice of the tree freſh as it is gathered. It is uſed with ſucceſs in the cure of green wounds, as alſo by the painters, farriers, &c. To be good, it muſt be clear and white as water, of a ſtrong penetrating ſmell, and very inflammable.

TUTUCORIN. *See* PESCHERIE.

TUTTY, TUTIA, *or lapis* TUTIÆ, a kind of metallic recrement, which owes its origin truly and properly to zink. It is a recrement of mixed metals, in which lapis calaminaris is, which is the ore of zink, or in which zink in its metallic form is an ingredient; and is collected in the furnaces where braſs is made from copper and calamine, and where the other mixed metals are run.

In theſe furnaces they place under the roof, and about the upper parts of the ſides, rods of iron, and ſometimes rolls of dry earth, about which the tutty is afterwards found.

Our tutty is a hard and heavy ſemi-metallic recrement, ſometimes met with in the ſhops in thin flat pieces or flakes, but moſt abundantly in tubular cylindric pieces, reſembling ſegments of the barks of trees, puſhed off from the branches without breaking; theſe are of different lengths and diameters, and are often broken, or in halves or fragments of a ſmaller ſort. They are ſmooth and even on the inner ſurface, or that which has been next the rods or rolls placed in the furnace; but on the outer ſurface they are full of ſmall granules and protuberances that ſeem to reſemble, in miniature, the botroid appearances deſcribed in the ancient cadima. The fineſt is that which is of a fine deep brown on the outſide, and of a yellowiſh tinge within; the thickeſt, brighteſt, and moſt granulated, the hardeſt to break, and that which has leaſt foulneſs among it.

Tutty ſtands the foremoſt in the rank of ophthalmic remedies: it is abſtergent and deſiccative, but without any eroſion, whence it is of very happy uſe in ulcerations of the parts about the eye, either in form of unguent or a collyrium; in the latter form, made up only with roſe-water, it is of excellent uſe in itchings of the eye-lids, which are apt to provoke rubbing, in inveterate opthalmics, and in defluxions of humours on theſe parts. It is to be prepared for uſe by heating it ſeveral times red-hot, and quenching it ſuddenly in roſe or common water, then powdering it in a mortar, and finally levigating it with a little water upon a ſmooth hard marble, till there does not remain the leaſt gritty particle amongſt it; it is then to be dropped upon a chalk ſtone, and left to dry. Very particular care is to be taken in the levigating this ſubſtance, as it is intended to be uſed about ſo tender a part as the eye; for, if there be any coorſe particles among it, it is eaſy to ſee that it muſt create more evils than it was intended to prevent.

Fine powder of tutty mixed with four times its weight of pomatum, or of butter without any ſalt in it, makes an excellent liniment to be applied to the eye-lids in caſe of redneſs, itching, and beginning inflammation.

# V & U.

## V A L

V Is the twentieth letter in the alphabet, and the fifth vowel. The letter U ſeems to owe its original to the V conſonant, though it is abſolutely as different a letter from that, as E and F.

V is a numeral letter, and ſignifies five. When a daſh was added at top $\overline{V}$, it ſignified five thouſand.

VAL, a ſmall weight uſed in India for dollars or pieces of eight, each of which ought to weigh ſeventy-three vals. It alſo ſerves for weighing gold ducats, which muſt weigh nine vals and $\frac{5}{12}$ of an Indian carat, and whatever is wanting of theſe weights in either, the vender is obliged to make good.

VALERIAN, a root ſo little known in the ſhops, till of late, that its very name is omitted by many of the writers on the materia medica, in their liſts of drugs; yet it is not ſaying too much to affirm, that it has more virtue than half the roots they have been ſo laviſh in the praiſes of.

It is a pale-coloured root, conſiſting of a ſmall head or knob, from which there grow a vaſt number of fibres; the head bears ſo ſmall a proportion to the whole, that it is generally looked on as a merely fibrous root. The fibres are moderately large, uſually of the thickneſs of a packthread, they are not eaſily powdered, unleſs carefully dried firſt; they are moderately heavy, and are externally of a whitiſh colour, with a ſmall admixture of brown, and ſomewhat whiter within: they are eaſily cut through with a knife, or ſciſſars, and are of a very ſtrong ſmell, and that of a peculiar kind; there is evidently ſomething fragrant and aromatic in it, but have a faint bitterneſs, and their peculiar ſmell eaſily diſtinguiſhed.

Wild valerian is to be choſen in large, fair, and ſound roots, of the paleſt colour that may be, not brittle or duſty, and, above all things, of a ſtrong ſmell. They are often adulterated with the roots of the great water valerian; but the want of ſmell in theſe, and their fibres being longer, thicker, tougher, and whiter, eaſily diſtinguiſh them.

It is but of late that this medicine has been introduced into the ſhops. The old writers, indeed, ſpeak of valerian, but they mean only the great water valerian by that name. It has been pretended, that the phu of Dioſcorides, and the ancient Greeks, was this wild valerian; but whoever will carefully examine their works, will find that it was the water valerian they uſed the root of, not this wild mountain kind. We have it dug for medicinal uſe in our country; the heaths of Kent and Eſſex afford a great deal of it, nor are the reſt of the parts of England without it.

It has been attempted to be cultivated for uſe in gardens; but the root of this is never ſo good as that which has ſtood in a barren ſoil, and been expoſed to the violent heats of the ſun in ſummer, with a very ſmall ſupply of humidity.

The plant, which produces it, is one of the triandria monogynia of Linnæus, and one of the herbæ monoſpermæ of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed in Moriſon's hiſtory, under the name of valeriana ſylveſtris major foliis anguſtiozibus, and by others under that of valeriana montana major. It grows to three feet, or more, in height; its leaves ſtand in pairs, and are large, hairy, and of a dead duſky green, divided down to the middle rib, ſo as to ſeem made up of many ſmall leaves affixed on the two ſides of a ſtalk; the flowers ſtand in large tufts at the tops of the branches, and are of a pale whitiſh red colour, and are ſucceeded each by a ſingle ſeed winged with down. The root taken immediately up, has a ſtrong ſmell, and grows much more ſcented in keeping.

This root taken up at a proper ſeaſon, and carefully dried, is one of the beſt nervous ſimples of the ſhops. The late Dr. James Douglas took great pains to introduce it into general uſe; and ſucceeded very happily in the attempt. It is given in powder for a doſe, and alſo in tinctures and infuſion. It is found of the greateſt ſervice in all diſorders of the nerves, and will go farther in curing an epilepſy, than, perhaps, any other ſingle medicine in uſe. many very deplorable caſes of this kind having been cured ſingly by it. It is alſo recommended againſt intermittent fevers, but it is leſs known, at preſent, in that intention. The college of phyſicians have thought ſo well of this root, as to order two tinctures of it to be kept in the ſhops, the one under the name of the ſimple, the other under that of the volatile tincture of valerian.

## V A N

VALPARAISO is ſeated in a bay of the ſame name at the mouth of the river Topocalma, and ſerves as the port to St. Jago, the capital of Chili, built on the ſame river, fifteen leagues from the ſea. This port is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious of thoſe on the ſouth coaſt, and is where all the king's revenue of Chili is embarked for Peru, as alſo the effects of particulars deſtined for the North Sea, conſiſting eſpecially in gold, drawn from the mines near Baldivia and the Conception, or thoſe of Tiſtil, which are between Valparaiſo and St. Jago. There are alſo carried to Lima turquoiſes, which are found in an excellent rock, opened in the valley of Copiapo, in the northern part of Chili.

VALUE, *valor*, in commerce, the price or worth of any thing.

*Intrinſic* VALUE, denotes the proper, real, and effective worth of any thing, and is uſed chiefly with regard to money: the popular value whereof may be raiſed and lowered at the pleaſure of the prince; but its real or intrinſic value, depending wholly on its weight and fineneſs, is not at all affected by the ſtamp or impreſſion thereon.

VALUE, *in bills of exchange*, is uſed to ſignify the nature of the thing (as ready money, bills, debts, merchandizes, &c.) which is given, as it were, in exchange, for the ſum ſpecified in the bill. From four different manners of expreſſing this value, ſome diſtinguiſh four kinds of bills of exchange. The firſt bears value received, ſimply and purely, which comprehends all kinds of value: the ſecond value received in money or merchandize: the third value of myſelf; and the fourth underſtood.

VANILLA, or, as ſome call it, aracus aromaticus, is a pod of a plant containing its ſeeds, and is brought to us entire, and with the ſeeds in it. We meet with it five or ſix inches long, about half an inch broad, or leſs than thar, and not rounded, but compreſſed ſideways. It is of an uneven, furrowed, and wrinkled ſurface, though ſmooth and gloſſy in the intermediate ſpecies; of a reddiſh colour, ſoft, tender, and unctuous to the touch; and is compoſed of a thin and friable membrane, ſupported by certain longitudinal fibres, and containing within its cavity, a reddiſh pulpy matter, in which there are lodged an almoſt innumerable quantity of minute and gloſſy black ſeeds. It is of a very high, aromatic, and perfumed ſmell, ſomewhat like that of balſam of Peru, but more agreeable, and of an acrid, unctuous, and aromatic taſte. Vanillas are

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penalty to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, and be applied as before directed.

All woollen goods without ſuch certificate, except imported directly from England, ſhall be deemed French; and his majeſty's ambaſſador, &c. is required to confiſcate the ſame.

Every merchant, &c. being a ſubject of Great-Britain, or reſiding under the protection of the Britiſh ambaſſador, &c. within the limits of the company's charter, ſhall before the exportation of any goods make oath before the ſaid ambaſſador, &c. that the ſame were not purchaſed with the produce of, or taken in barter for, the woollen manufactures of France.

Every perſon who ſhall import into Great-Britain any goods of the growth or manufacture of Turkey, within the limits of the company's charter, ſhall make the ſame oath before the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, &c. except ſuch goods as ſhall have been condemned as lawful prize.

If any certificate ſhall be loſt, the maſter of the veſſel muſt make oath before the Engliſh conſul, &c. of the purport of ſuch certificate, of the loſs of it, and that it hath not been diſpoſed of to any perſons whatſoever; and the ſaid maſter, or the conſignee of the ſaid goods, is alſo to give ſecurity, in the penalty of double the value of the goods, for procuring a duplicate of the certificate: thereupon the conſul, &c. ſhall grant a licence for importing the goods.

But prize goods, condemned, of any country whatſoever, may be imported on producing a copy of the ſentence of condemnation ſigned by the perſon who condemned the ſame.

To prevent the importation of raw ſilk, mohair yarn, &c. from being imported into this kingdom, purchaſed by the woollen manufactures of France, and imported from Leghorn and other places in Italy, contrary to the act of navigation, &c. it is enacted, that if any raw ſilk or mohair yarn, or any ſhip or veſſel bringing the ſame into England, Ireland, Wales, the iſlands of Guernſey, or Jerſey, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, ſhall be ſeized as forfeited by any acts of parliament, the perſon who ſhall make the ſeizure may not releaſe or abandon the ſame, or delay to proceed to judgment for the condemnation thereof, without firſt acquainting in writing, the governor, deputy-governor, treaſurer, or huſband of the ſaid company, or their ſecretary, of ſuch his intention, and delivering at the ſame time a copy of the ſchedule of ſuch ſeizure: and in caſe the ſaid governor and company, or any committee thereof, ſhall within ſeven days after give bond, or offer to give bond, under the common ſeal of their corporation, in the penal ſum of one thouſand pounds, with condition for indemnifying ſuch officer, &c. againſt all coſts and charges, in caſe ſuch ſhip or goods ſhall not be adjudged forfeited; then ſuch officer, &c. ſhall not voluntarily abandon ſuch ſeizure without the conſent of the ſaid company or ſome committee thereof; but ſhall proceed to judgment concerning the legality thereof.

Any member of the company ſhall be admitted to give evidence, either for the plaintiff, relator, or defendant upon the trial.

The commerce of this company is undoubtedly a very beneficial one to this nation, as may be ſeen by the following curious calculation taken from the Britiſh Merchant, and there quoted with a view to inſtruct the reader in the whole proceſs of the cloth manufacture, from its commencement to its conſumption; and to ſhew the advantages ariſing from the Turkey trade, by its taking off ſo large a ſhare of our woollens, and thereby contributing proportionably to the ſubſiſtence of our people.

| | *l.* | *s.* | *d.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| A clothier buys at market fifty packs of wool, picked and ſorted, at 10 *l. per* pack | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| With which wool he makes 100 broad cloths, and the manufacture thereof in carding, ſpinning, weaving, milling, dreſſing, &c. as they are uſually brought to, and ſold white at Blackwell-Hall, will amount to about the firſt coſt of the wool | 500 | 0 | 0 |
| So that theſe one hundred cloths are ſold by the clothier to the merchant at 10 *l. per* cloth | 1000 | 0 | 0 |



And the merchant pays for the dying of the ſaid 100 cloths, viz. one third part in grain colours, at 7 *l.* and two thirds in ordinary colours, at 30 *s. per* cloth

| *l.* | *s.* | *d.* |
|---|---|---|
| 333 | 6 | 8 |

Alſo for ſetting, drawing, preſſing, packing, &c. 15 *s. per* cloth

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 75 | 0 | 0 |

The ſaid 100 cloths will coſt the merchant 14 *l.* 1 *s.* 8 *d. per* cloth on board, which amounts to

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1408 | 6 | 8 |

And to repay him their coſt and charges here and aboard, with a bare allowance for inſurance, and the intereſt of his money, they cannot purchaſe leſs, we ſhould think, than twenty-two great pounds of Sherbaffee (or Perſia fine raw ſilk) for every cloth. Thus he probably receives for the ſaid 100 cloths, 2200 pounds wt. of the ſaid raw ſilk

Now if the half part of this ſilk is wrought up in plain coloured tabbies, the manufacturers will receive 13 *s.* 7 *d. per lib.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 747 | 1 | 8 |

And if the other half part is wrought up into rich flowered ſilks brocaded, the manufacturers will receive 1 *l.* 19 *s.* 9 *d. per lib.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 2186 | 5 | 0 |

And the additional charge of dying, ſuppoſe but of $\frac{1}{8}$ part of the ſaid ſilk, into grain colours at 9 *s. per lib.*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 123 | 15 | 0 |

Then the coſt and charges of 100 woollen cloths, ſhipped from London to Turkey, and the manufacture of the raw ſilk brought from thence, in return thereof muſt amount to

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4465 | 8 | 4 |

The freight of the ſaid 100 cloths, and of the ſaid 2200 *lib.* of raw ſilk is computed at

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 40 | 12 | 6 |

Her majeſty's cuſtoms on the ſaid 2200 *lib.* of raw ſilk is

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 156 | 15 | 0 |

Engliſh factors commiſſions abroad on the ſale of the cloth, and on inveſting the returns in ſilk, as aforeſaid, computed at

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 100 | 0 | 0 |

It is hereby repreſented to the view of every reader, that every 2200 *lib.* wt. of raw ſilk imported from Turkey, and manufactured here for our conſumption, without paying any thing to the merchant's or mercer's gain, pays to the landholders, the labourers, and the crown, the ſum of

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4762 | 15 | 10 |

If any thing is to be added for the mercer's and merchant's gain (and we may depend upon it they will not be at the trouble of driving their trades for nothing) we may very well affirm, that the whole coſt of this manufacture for conſumption cannot be leſs than the ſum of five thouſand pounds. So that 2200 pounds weight of Turkey raw ſilk manufactured here, pays the ſum of five thouſand pounds to the ſubſiſtence of our own people.

This account takes the returns upon one hundred cloths exported to Turkey, and makes them pay five thouſand pounds to the ſubſiſtence of our people. But we have exported annually two hundred times as many cloths for Turkey, and receive for about half that quantity of cloth, the ſame kind of returns in raw ſilk for our own conſumption; and conſequently our own conſumption of Turkey ſilk, paid for the ſubſiſtence of our own people the ſum of five hundred thouſand pounds *per annum*, beſides what is paid by the other half of that trade; but if the conſumption of five thouſand pounds value of Turkey ſilk manufactured pays five hundred pounds to the landed intereſt for the wool that is exported to Turkey in manufacture, then the annual conſumption of five hundred thouſand pounds value of that ſilk, muſt pay fifty thouſand pounds *per ann.* to the landed intereſt.

And yet this is not all that the landed intereſt receives annually by means of this half part of the Turkey trade; the crown and the ſubjects, who receive nine times as much for cuſtoms and labour, pay perhaps a ninth part of what they receive to the landed intereſt for clothes and proviſion; by which means the conſumption of Turkey ſilk, manufactured in England either directly or indirectly, pays a fifth part of its whole value to the landed intereſt, that is, it pays directly one tenth part of the value of the ſilk by the woollen manufacture exported, and as much

more by enabling the people to purchaſe neceſſary clothes and proviſions, of which much more than a tenth part is paid to the landed intereſt.

It will be objected here, that the ten pounds abovementioned upon a pack of wool, is not paid to the landed intereſt, ſince a part of it is paid to the ſhepherd's wages, and a part to the labour of picking and ſorting this wool: it is very true; but then conſidering how much of the product of the land is exported to purchaſe dying goods, the tenth part of the price of the whole ſilk manufacture may be well ſaid to be paid for the product of the landed intereſt.

It is therefore evident, that of every five thouſand pounds value of manufacture from Turkey ſilk, five hundred pounds is paid for the manufacturing of the Engliſh wool that is ſent abroad, three hundred and thirty-three pounds ſix ſhillings and eight-pence to the charge and labour of dying, ſeventy-five pounds to other labour beſtowed on that manufacture, ſeven hundred and forty-ſeven pounds one ſhilling and eight-pence for manufacturing one half of our returns, and two thouſand one hundred and eighty-ſix pounds five ſhillings of the other, beſides one hundred and twenty-three pounds fifteen ſhillings for dying the ſame in grain colours; add to this the freight of forty pounds twelve ſhillings and ſix-pence, beſides the charges to factors abroad, and merchants and mercers at home, and it will appear that near four thouſand of every five thouſand pounds value, or that near four hundred thouſand of every five hundred thouſand pounds value of Turkey ſilk wrought in England, is paid to the labour of the people beſtowed upon it; and we think this is enough to ſhew, that ſuch a trade ought to be carefully preſerved, and that it claims a ſhare in the regard of every gentleman in England.

This calculation, though made only on one particular of the Levant company's exports, may be adapted to any other branch of it, or indeed to any other trade where the returns are improved to the increaſe of our manufactures, and employ of our people.

Our exports for Turkey are cloths, ſerges, and other woollens, tin, lead, pepper, cochineal, indigo, iron and glaſs ware, leather, ſugar, &c. which we have here computed at near half a million yearly; and though Mr. Savary in his time complains that the French, by their ill management in their dying and manufacturing their cloths, had loſt the greateſt part of the conſiderable trade they before had in thoſe parts, which he ſays the Engliſh had ſecured, yet Mr. King takes notice many years after, that from a trifling commerce the French carried on, they in the year 1713 at leaſt equalled us, and we fear have once more ſurpaſſed us in the Levant traffick, ſo that we cannot imagine our Turkey company do now export near the value abovementioned.

The returns we have from thence, are raw ſilk, grogram yarn, cotton, and cotton yarn, wool, goats hair, coffee, dying goods, drugs, galls, &c.

TURMERIC, a ſmall root of an oblong figure, uſually met with in pieces from half an inch to an inch or two in length, and at the utmoſt ſurface the thickneſs of a man's little finger; its ſurface is uneven, and riſes into knobs in many places, and the longer pieces are ſeldom very ſtraight; it is very heavy and hard to break; it is not eaſily cut through with a knife, but, when cut, leaves a gloſſy ſurface. Its colour externally is a pale whitiſh grey, with ſome faint tinge of yellowneſs, and, when broken, is of a fine yellow within, this colour is bright and pale, and without admixture, when the root is freſh; but in keeping it by degrees becomes reddiſh, and at length is much like ſaffron in the cake. Thrown into water it ſpeedily gives it a fine yellow tinge, and, chewed in the mouth, it gives the ſpittle the ſame colour. It is eaſily powdered in the mortar, and, according to its different age, makes a yellow, an orange colour, or a reddiſh powder. It has a kind of aromatic ſmell, with ſomething of the odour of ginger in it. The taſte is acrid and diſagreeable, and has a conſiderable bitterneſs.

Turmeric was not known to the ancients, at leaſt we are not certain that they mean this root, by any one of the names in the liſt of their materia medica.

We have it from Java, Malabar, and many other parts of the Eaſt-Indies.

The plant which produces it is of the number of the monandria monogynia, according to the Linnæan ſyſtem, and of the herbæ bulboſis affines of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed in the Hortus Malabaricus, under the name of the manjella kua, and by Herman under that of kuba.

The leaves are a ſpan long, and three or four inches broad, of a fine green colour, and pointed at the end. The flowers grow on peculiar ſtalks of eight, ten, or more inches high, and of the thickneſs of a gooſe quill; they are collected in a kind of ſquamous cone, and of an oblong figure, reſembling thoſe of the cannacorus, but vaſtly ſmaller, and are of a pale reddiſh colour; theſe are ſucceeded by tricapſular ſeed veſſels, containing a quantity of ſmall roundiſh ſeed.

The people cultivate it in all their gardens; they dig up the roots for uſe ſoon after the flowers are fallen, and, beſides the quantity they ſend over dried to all parts of Europe, they uſe a great deal in their own ſauces and foods. Beſides its particular uſe, it is of great ſervice in dying, and in many other arts. The glovers uſe it to colour their leather, and the turners to give an agreeable yellow to ſeveral of their works made in the whiter woods.

TURNADO, *or* TORNADO, a wind which on ſome coaſts blows all night from the ſhore.

TURNER. The trade of a working turner is very fit for lads of a ſlight make, as the work is ingenious and not very laborious, being performed by means of a wheel and a lath. The different branches of this buſineſs are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the materials they work in; as the ivory turner, the ſilver turner, the turners of wood, &c. Some of them keep ſhops to ſell retail what they make or turn; but they moſtly work for the ſhops of others. They take with an apprentice from five to fifteen pounds; who, if good workmen, will afterwards be able to get eighteen or twenty ſhillings a week; or may ſet up with one hundred pounds.

There are alſo ſhop keepers called turners, though they do not themſelves make one article in the turner's way. Theſe ſell almoſt every thing that is turned in wood, baſkets, mops, brooms, waſhing-tubs, floor-cloths, matting, bruſhes of all kinds, and abundance of other articles. They take with apprentices from twenty to thirty pounds, who, as journeymen, will not be able to get more than twenty or twenty-five pounds *per annum* and their board; and may ſet up with two or three hundred pounds.

TURNIPS. Penalties on ſtealing turnips, 23 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 13.

TURNPIKE, a gate ſet up a-croſs a road, watched by an officer for the purpoſe, in order to ſtop travellers, waggons, coaches, &c. to take toll of them towards repairing or keeping the roads in repair.

Breaking or cutting them down, puniſhed as a treſpaſs, 1 *Geo.* II. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1.

Charges of proſecution to be defrayed out of the tolls, 5 *Geo.* 2 *c.* 33. *ſ.* 3.

Turnpikes illegally erected, to be removed by order of quarter ſeſſions, 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 4. Regulations of turnpike roads and other highways, 7 *Geo.* III.

TURNSOLE, *or* TORNSOLE, heliotrope, or the ſunflower, a plant ſo called, becauſe its flower is ſaid to follow the motion of the ſun, and to turn always towards it.

TURPENTINE, a tranſparent ſort of reſin flowing either naturally or by inciſion from ſeveral unctuous and reſinous trees, as the terebinthus, larch, pine, fir, &c.

We diſtinguiſh ſeveral kinds of turpentines; as that of Chio, that of Venice, that of Bourdeaux, that of Cyprus, Straſburg, &c.

The turpentine of Chio or Sio, which is the only genuine kind, and that which gives the denomination to all the reſt, is a whitiſh reſin, bordering a little on green, very clear, and a little odoriferous; drawn by inciſion from a tree called terebinthus, very common in that iſland, as alſo in Cyprus, and ſome parts of France and Spain.

The reſin muſt be choſen of a ſolid conſiſtence, almoſt without either taſte or ſmell, and not at all tenacious, which diſtinguiſhes it from the falſe turpentine of Venice, commonly ſubſtituted for it, which has a briſker ſmell, a bitter taſte, and ſticks much to the finger. This turpentine of Chio is indiſputably the beſt, but its ſcarcity occaſions it to be little in uſe. The turpentine of Venice is falſely ſo called; for, though there was a turpentine anciently

ciently brought from Venice, yet, that now ſo called comes from Dauphiné.

It is liquid, of the conſiſtence of a thick ſyrup, and whitiſh, and flows either ſpontaneouſly, or by inciſion, from the larch-tree, chiefly in the wood de Pilatze.

That flowing naturally, called by the Peaſants bijon, is a kind of balſam, not inferior in virtue to that of Peru, for which it is frequently ſubſtituted. That drawn by inciſion, after the tree has ceaſed to yield ſpontaneouſly, is of conſiderable uſe in ſeveral arts, and it is even of this that varniſh is chiefly made. It muſt be choſen white and tranſparent, and care be taken it have not been counterfeited with oil of turpentine. The turpentine of Bourdeaux is white, and as thick as honey. It does not ooze from the tree in the manner it is ſent to us, but is properly a compoſition, wherein, among other ingredients, is a white hard ſort of reſin called galipot.

The turpentine of Straſburg, the product of the abies or ſilver fir, is that moſt commonly uſed among us, and is preferred by our people to that of Venice, which is diſtinguiſhed from it by its green hue, fragrant ſmell, and citron flavour.

The uſes of turpentine in medicine are innumerable. It is a great vulnerary, and very detergent, and as ſuch is preſcribed in abſceſſes, ulcerations, &c. It promotes expectoration, and as ſuch is preſcribed in diſeaſes of the lungs and breaſt; but it is moſt famous for clearing the urinary paſſages, and as ſuch preſcribed in obſtructions of the reins, in gonorrhœas, &c.

*Oil of* TURPENTINE. There are two kinds of oil drawn from turpentine, by diſtillation; the firſt white, the ſecond red, both eſteemed as balſams proper for the cure of wounds, chilblains, &c. But they are ſo little uſed among us, that it is not eaſy to procure either of them.

What is commonly ſold under the name of oil of turpentine, or etherial oil, is only a diſtillation of the reſinous juice of the tree freſh as it is gathered. It is uſed with ſucceſs in the cure of green wounds, as alſo by the painters, farriers, &c. To be good, it muſt be clear and white as water, of a ſtrong penetrating ſmell, and very inflammable.

TUTUCORIN. *See* PESCHERIE.

TUTTY, TUTIA, *or lapis* TUTIÆ, a kind of metallic recrement, which owes its origin truly and properly to zink. It is a recrement of mixed metals, in which lapis calaminaris is, which is the ore of zink, or in which zink in its metallic form is an ingredient; and is collected in the furnaces where braſs is made from copper and calamine, and where the other mixed metals are run.

In theſe furnaces they place under the roof, and about the upper parts of the ſides, rods of iron, and ſometimes rolls of dry earth, about which the tutty is afterwards found.

Our tutty is a hard and heavy ſemi-metallic recrement, ſometimes met with in the ſhops in thin flat pieces or flakes, but moſt abundantly in tubular cylindric pieces, reſembling ſegments of the barks of trees, puſhed off from the branches without breaking; theſe are of different lengths and diameters, and are often broken, or in halves or fragments of a ſmaller ſort. They are ſmooth and even on the inner ſurface, or that which has been next the rods or rolls placed in the furnace; but on the outer ſurface they are full of ſmall granules and protuberances that ſeem to reſemble, in miniature, the botroid appearances deſcribed in the ancient cadima. The fineſt is that which is of a fine deep brown on the outſide, and of a yellowiſh tinge within; the thickeſt, brighteſt, and moſt granulated, the hardeſt to break, and that which has leaſt foulneſs among it.

Tutty ſtands the foremoſt in the rank of ophthalmic remedies: it is abſtergent and deſiccative, but without any eroſion, whence it is of very happy uſe in ulcerations of the parts about the eye, either in form of unguent or a collyrium; in the latter form, made up only with roſe-water, it is of excellent uſe in itchings of the eye-lids, which are apt to provoke rubbing, in inveterate opthalmics, and in defluxions of humours on theſe parts. It is to be prepared for uſe by heating it ſeveral times red-hot, and quenching it ſuddenly in roſe or common water, then powdering it in a mortar, and finally levigating it with a little water upon a ſmooth hard marble, till there does not remain the leaſt gritty particle amongſt it; it is then to be dropped upon a chalk ſtone, and left to dry. Very particular care is to be taken in the levigating this ſubſtance, as it is intended to be uſed about ſo tender a part as the eye; for, if there be any coorſe particles among it, it is eaſy to ſee that it muſt create more evils than it was intended to prevent.

Fine powder of tutty mixed with four times its weight of pomatum, or of butter without any ſalt in it, makes an excellent liniment to be applied to the eye-lids in caſe of redneſs, itching, and beginning inflammation.

# V & U.

## V A L

V Is the twentieth letter in the alphabet, and the fifth vowel. The letter U ſeems to owe its original to the V conſonant, though it is abſolutely as different a letter from that, as E and F.

V is a numeral letter, and ſignifies five. When a daſh was added at top $\overline{\text{V}}$, it ſignified five thouſand.

VAL, a ſmall weight uſed in India for dollars or pieces of eight, each of which ought to weigh ſeventy-three vals. It alſo ſerves for weighing gold ducats, which muſt weigh nine vals and $\frac{5}{16}$ of an Indian carat, and whatever is wanting of theſe weights in either, the vender is obliged to make good.

VALERIAN, a root ſo little known in the ſhops, till of late, that its very name is omitted by many of the writers on the materia medica, in their liſts of drugs; yet it is not ſaying too much to affirm, that it has more virtue than half the roots they have been ſo laviſh in the praiſes of.

It is a pale-coloured root, conſiſting of a ſmall head or knob, from which there grow a vaſt number of fibres; the head bears ſo ſmall a proportion to the whole, that it is generally looked on as a merely fibrous root. The fibres are moderately large, uſually of the thickneſs of a packthread, they are not eaſily powdered, unleſs carefully dried firſt; they are moderately heavy, and are externally of a whitiſh colour, with a ſmall admixture of brown, and ſomewhat whiter within: they are eaſily cut through with a knife, or ſciſſars, and are of a very ſtrong ſmell, and that of a peculiar kind; there is evidently ſomething fragrant and aromatic in it, but have a faint bitterneſs, and their peculiar ſmell eaſily diſtinguiſhed.

Wild valerian is to be choſen in large, fair, and ſound roots, of the paleſt colour that may be, not brittle or duſty, and, above all things, of a ſtrong ſmell. They are often adulterated with the roots of the great water valerian; but the want of ſmell in theſe, and their fibres being longer, thicker, tougher, and whiter, eaſily diſtinguiſh them.

It is but of late that this medicine has been introduced into the ſhops. The old writers, indeed, ſpeak of valerian, but they mean only the great water valerian by that name. It has been pretended, that the phu of Dioſcorides, and the ancient Greeks, was this wild valerian; but whoever will carefully examine their works, will find that it was the water valerian they uſed the root of, not this wild mountain kind. We have it dug for medicinal uſe in our country; the heaths of Kent and Eſſex afford a great deal of it, nor are the reſt of the parts of England without it.

It has been attempted to be cultivated for uſe in gardens; but the root of this is never ſo good as that which has ſtood in a barren ſoil, and been expoſed to the violent heats of the ſun in ſummer, with a very ſmall ſupply of humidity.

The plant, which produces it, is one of the triandria monogynia of Linnæus, and one of the herbæ monoſpermæ of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed in Moriſon's hiſtory, under the name of valeriana ſylveſtris major foliis anguſtioribus, and by others under that of valeriana montana major. It grows to three feet, or more, in height; its leaves ſtand in pairs, and are large, hairy, and of a dead duſky green, divided down to the middle rib, ſo as to ſeem made up of many ſmall leaves affixed on the two ſides of a ſtalk; the flowers ſtand in large tufts at the tops of the branches, and are of a pale whitiſh red colour, and are ſucceeded each by a ſingle ſeed winged with down. The root taken

## V A N

immediately up, has a ſtrong ſmell, and grows much more ſcented in keeping.

This root taken up at a proper ſeaſon, and carefully dried, is one of the beſt nervous ſimples of the ſhops. The late Dr. James Douglas took great pains to introduce it into general uſe; and ſucceeded very happily in the attempt. It is given in powder for a doſe, and alſo in tinctures and infuſion. It is found of the greateſt ſervice in all diſorders of the nerves, and will go farther in curing an epilepſy, than, perhaps, any other ſingle medicine in uſe. many very deplorable caſes of this kind having been cured ſingly by it. It is alſo recommended againſt intermittent fevers, but it is leſs known, at preſent, in that intention. The college of phyſicians have thought ſo well of this root, as to order two tinctures of it to be kept in the ſhops, the one under the name of the ſimple, the other under that of the volatile tincture of valerian.

VALPARAISO is ſeated in a bay of the ſame name at the mouth of the river Topocalma, and ſerves as the port to St. Jago, the capital of Chili, built on the ſame river, fifteen leagues from the ſea. This port is one of the ſafeſt and moſt commodious of thoſe on the ſouth coaſt, and is where all the king's revenue of Chili is embarked for Peru, as alſo the effects of particulars deſtined for the North Sea, conſiſting eſpecially in gold, drawn from the mines near Baldivia and the Conception, or thoſe of Tiſtil, which are between Valparaiſo and St. Jago. There are alſo carried to Lima turquoiſes, which are found in an excellent rock, opened in the valley of Copiapo, in the northern part of Chili.

VALUE, *valor*, in commerce, the price or worth of any thing.

*Intrinſic* VALUE, denotes the proper, real, and effective worth of any thing, and is uſed chiefly with regard to money: the popular value whereof may be raiſed and lowered at the pleaſure of the prince; but its real or intrinſic value, depending wholly on its weight and fineneſs, is not at all affected by the ſtamp or impreſſion thereon.

VALUE, *in bills of exchange*, is uſed to ſignify the nature of the thing (as ready money, bills, debts, merchandizes, &c.) which is given, as it were, in exchange, for the ſum ſpecified in the bill. From four different manners of expreſſing this value, ſome diſtinguiſh four kinds of bills of exchange. The firſt bears value received, ſimply and purely, which comprehends all kinds of value: the ſecond value received in money or merchandize: the third value of myſelf; and the fourth underſtood.

VANILLA, or, as ſome call it, aracus aromaticus, is a pod of a plant containing its ſeeds, and is brought to us entire, and with the ſeeds in it. We meet with it five or ſix inches long, about half an inch broad, or leſs than that, and not rounded, but compreſſed ſideways. It is of an uneven, furrowed, and wrinkled ſurface, though ſmooth and gloſſy in the intermediate ſpaces; of a reddiſh colour, ſoft, tender, and unctuous in the touch; and is compoſed of a thin and friable membrane, ſupported by certain longitudinal fibres, and containing within its cavity, a reddiſh pulpy matter, in which there are lodged an almoſt innumerable quantity of minute and gloſſy black ſeeds. It is of a very high, aromatic, and perfumed ſmell, ſomewhat like that of balſam of Peru, but more agreeable, and of an acrid, unctuous, and aromatic taſte. Vanillas are to

to be chosen fresh, soft, and unctuous, not too dry or friable, of an agreeable smell, of a dusky reddish colour; our druggists have a way of recovering their lost unctuosity with oiling their surfaces; but this is easily discovered by a person who has been once advised of it. We sometimes meet with pods of the vanilla, which look, as it were, mouldy, and are, in reality, covered with fine long spiculæ, or efflorescences, of a greyish colour, looking like the shoots of the flowers of Benjamin; those are only crystallizations of the essential salt of the pod; and for present use, no pods are to be preferred to such as are most covered with them.

We meet with what are called three species of the vanilla, in the modern shops; the first has thicker and shorter pods, and is called by the Spaniards, pompona and bona; the second has longer and slender pods, and is called the genuine or legitimate vanilla; the third is smaller than either of the other, and is called scinarona, or the spurious vanilla. The first of these kinds is of a very strong, though not pleasant smell; it is apt to give people the head-ach, and to throw weak women into the vapours, only by smelling it. The pulpy matter, in this, is usually thinner than in any of the others, and the seeds considerably larger, not much less than mustard-seed; the third, or small kind, has less smell than either of the others, and contains much less, in proportion both of the pulpy matter and the seeds. The second is the only kind that should properly be used. We are not certain that these are not the produce of three several plants, though it is generally believed they are the fruit of the same species gathered long before ripe, when half ripe, and when fully ripe.

The plant which produces that which we use, however, we know to be of the number of the *gynandria diandria* of Linnæus, and of the *frutices siliquosæ floribus difformibus sive papilionaceis* of Ray. It is described by Plumier, under the name of *vanilla flore viridi & albo fructu nigricante*, and by Ray, under that of *volubilis siliquosa Americana folis plantaginis*, and the fruit by that of *lobus oblongus aromaticus*, among the old authors. It creeps upon the trees near which it grows, and covers them to a great height; its leaves are ten or twelve inches long, and resemble those of plantain, and are placed alternately on the stalks; the flowers are small, and of a greenish white colour. This is the description of the vanilla plant of St. Domingo; and this agrees perfectly with the true Mexican kind, except that the flowers of that are blackish, and the pods more scented; the species seem the same, and the little variation we find in the plants, is owing entirely to the soil. The pods of the vanilla are gathered from September to December for use; they are full of a superfluous moisture, when fresh, which would make them liable to rot, unless they were dried carefully for a fortnight or three weeks before they are packed up.

The high perfume of the vanilla is easily extracted by spirit of wine; a short infusion in this menstruum, serves to give it a very rich and highly flavoured tincture, and the remaining vanillas, when the liquor is thoroughly pressed from them, have no smell.

Chemically analysed, the vanilla yields a very large portion of an aromatic essential oil, a moderate quantity of an acid phlegm, and a small portion of an urinary liquor, and fixed salt.

Vanillas are accounted cordial, carminative, stomachic, and restorative; they are warm and strengthening to the stomach, and are diuretic, and promote the menses. With all these good qualities, however, we are not very fond of them in medicine, but they are a common ingredient in chocolate.

VARI, a small weight in use among the ancient inhabitants of Madagascar, weighing near half a dragme marc: here is likewise the sompi, saccare, nanqui, and nanque; none of which are used only for weighing gold and silver.

VARIATION, in geography, navigation, &c. a term applied to the deviation of the magnetic needle, or compass, from the true north point of the horizon.

Various hypotheses have been framed to account for this extraordinary phænomenon; but the most famous is that of the sagacious Dr. Halley, which we have given under the article MAGNET.

The knowledge of the variation of the compass is of great use in navigation. Under the articles AMPLITUDE and AZIMUTH, we have shewn the method of finding the amplitude or azimuth of a heavenly object; and under azimuth compass, the method of finding the magnetic amplitude and azimuth, whence it will be easy to discover the variation of the compass by the following rule:

Let both be counted from the north in north latitude, and from the south in south latitude, and the difference between the two azimuths or amplitudes will give the variation, which will be easterly or westerly, according as the magnetic north point falls to the eastward or westward of the true north.

Example. Being at sea in the latitude of thirty-one degrees, twenty minutes north, I found the sun's true azimuth to be sixty-four degrees, thirty-seven minutes, from the north easterly, and at the same time his magnetic azimuth was north forty-seven degrees, fifty minutes easterly: required the variation?

The difference of these two azimuths is sixteen degrees, forty-seven minutes. And, because the true north point exceeds the magnetic azimuth, it shews that the true north point is farther from the sun than the magnetic north is, and, consequently the variation is sixteen degrees, seventeen minutes easterly.

VARNISH, *or* VERNISH, *vernix*, a thick, viscid, shining liquor, used by painters, gilders, &c. to give a gloss and lustre to their works, and defend them from the weather, dust, &c. There are several kinds of varnishes in use, as the siccative or drying varnish, made of oil of aspin, turpentine, and sandarach, melted together.

White varnish, called also Venetian varnish, made of oil of turpentine, fine turpentine, and mastic.

Spirit of wine varnish, made of sandarach, white amber, gum-elemi, and mastic; serving to gild leather, picture-frames, &c. withal.

Gilt varnish, made of linseed-oil, sandarach, aloes, gamboage, and litharge of gold.

China varnish, made of gum-lacca, colophony, mastic, and spirit of wine.

Common varnish, which is only common turpentine, dissolved in oil of turpentine.

*White* VARNISH. Take gum-sandarach, of the clearest and whitest sort, eight ounces; gum-mastic, of the clearest sort, half an ounce; of sarcocolla, the whitest, three quarters of an ounce; Venice turpentine, an ounce and a half; benzoin, the clearest, one quarter of an ounce; white rosin, one quarter of an ounce; gum-animæ, three quarters of an ounce: let all these be dissolved, and mixed in the manner following:

Put the sarcocolla and rosin into a little more spirits than will cover them to dissolve; then add the benzoin, gum-animæ, and Venice turpentine, into either a glass or glazed earthen-vessel, and pour on as much spirits as will cover them an inch; then put the gum-mastic into a glass or glazed vessel, and pour strong spirits upon it, covering it also about an inch thick to dissolve it rightly; then put your gum-elemi in a distinct vessel as before, and cover it with spirits to dissolve.

For this purpose, you need only break the rosin a little, and powder the gum-animæ, sarcocolla, and benzoin.

Let all stand three or four days to dissolve, shaking the glasses, &c. two or three times a day, and afterwards put them altogether into a glazed vessel, stirring them well, and strain the liquors and gums gently, beginning with the gums, through a linen cloth.

Then put it into a bottle, and let it stand a week before you use it; and pour off as much of the clear only, as you think sufficient for present use.

*Amber* VARNISH, from a manuscript of Mr. Boyle. Take white rosin, four drachms, melt it over the fire in a clean glazed pipkin, then put into it two ounces of the whitest amber you can get (finely powdered): this is to be put in by little and little, gradually, keeping it stirring all the while with a small stick, over a gentle fire, till it dissolves, pouring in now and then a little oil of turpentine, as you find it growing stiff; and continue so to do till all your amber is melted.

But great care muſt be taken not to ſet the houſe on fire, for the very vapours of the oil of turpentine will take fire by heat only; but, if it ſhall happen ſo to do, immediately put a flat board or wet blanket over the fiery pot, and, by keeping the air from it, you will put it out, or ſuffocate it.

Therefore, it will be beſt to melt the roſin in a glaſs of a cylindric figure in a bed of hot ſand, after the glaſs has been well annealed or warmed by degrees in the ſand, under which you muſt keep a gentle fire.

When the varniſh has been thus made, pour it into a coarſe linnen bag, and preſs it between two hot boards of oak or flat plates of iron; after which it may be uſed with any colours in painting, and alſo for varniſhing them over when painted.

But, for covering gold, you muſt uſe the following varniſh: this is to be obſerved, that, when you have varniſhed with white varniſh, you may put the things varniſhed into a declining oven, which will harden the varniſh.

*Hard* VARNISH, which will bear the muffle. Take of colophony, an ounce; ſet it over the fire in a well glazed earthen veſſel, till it is melted; then, by little and little, ſtrew in two ounces of amber, keeping ſtirring it all the while with a ſtick; and when you perceive it begin to harden or reſiſt the ſtick, then put in a little turpentine oil, which will thin and ſoften it immediately; then put in two ounces of gum copal (finely powdered) ſprinkling it in as you did the amber, ever and anon pouring in a little oil of turpentine, and when it is done, ſtrain it as before directed.

*A* VARNISH *for braſs to make it look like gold.* Take two quarts of ſpirit of wine, and put it into a glaſs bolt-head; then add to it an ounce of gamboage, two ounces of lacque, and two ounces of gum-maſtic; ſet this in a ſand-heat for ſix days, or elſe near a fire, or you may put the body of the bolt-head frequently into warm water, and ſhake it two or three times a day; then ſet it over a pan of warm ſmall-coal duſt. Before you lay this varniſh over the metal, be ſure you ſee that it has been well cleaned, varniſh it over thinly with this varniſh, and it will appear of the colour of gold. Set it in a declining oven to harden, and it will not rub off.

N. B. This is a good varniſh to mix with any colours that incline to red, and the amber varniſh for mixing with thoſe that are pale.

VARNISH *for gold, or ſuch metals as imitate gold.* Take colophony, and, having melted it, put in two ounces of amber (finely powdered) and ſome ſpirit of turpentine, and, as the amber thickens, keep it well ſtirring; then put in an ounce of gum-elemi, well pulverized, and more ſpirit of turpentine, conſtantly ſtirring the liquor till it is well mixed and incorporated; but take care, however, to uſe as little turpentine as you can, becauſe, the thicker the varniſh is made, the harder it will be. Let this be done over a ſand-heat, in an open glaſs; then ſtrain it, as is directed for the preceding varniſh. This varniſh is to be uſed alone, firſt warming the veſſels made of paper-paſte; and lay it on with a painting-bruſh before the fire, but not too near, leſt the fire raiſe it into bliſters. After this has been done, harden it three ſeveral times in ovens; firſt with a ſlack heat, the next with a warmer, and the third with a very hot one; and the veſſels will look like poliſhed gold.

And as for ſuch veſſels, &c. as ſhall be made with ſaw-duſt and gums; the varniſh may be made of the ſame ingredients as above-mentioned, except the gum-elemi; and this will dry in the ſun, or in a gentle warmth.

VARNISH *for any thing covered with leaf ſilver.* Firſt paint the thing over with ſize and ground chalk or whiting; let them ſtand till they are thoroughly dry; and then do them over with very good gold ſize, of a bright colour (for there is much difference in the colour of it; ſome being yellow, and others almoſt white; the firſt is moſt proper for gold, and the laſt for ſilver.) When this ſize is almoſt dry, that it will juſt ſtick a little to the touch, lay on the leaf ſilver, and cloſe it well to the ſize.

VARNISH *for ſilver.* Melt, in a well glazed pipkin, ſome fine turpentine, and put in three ounces of white amber, finely powdered (more or leſs, according to the quantity your work will require) put it in by little and little, keeping it continually ſtirring, adding by degrees ſome ſpirit of turpentine, till all the amber is diſſolved; and then add to it an ounce of ſarcocolla well beaten, and an ounce of gum-elemi well levigated, adding now and then a little ſpirit of turpentine, till all is diſſolved; do this over a gentle fire, and keep it conſtantly ſtirring.

This varniſh will be white and ſtrong as the former, and is to be uſed warm, and hardened by degrees in an oven, as varniſhed gold, and it will look like poliſhed ſilver. When you lay on your varniſhes, take the following method:

1. If you varniſh wood, let your wood be very ſmooth, cloſe grained, free from greaſe, and rubbed with ruſhes.

2. Lay on your colours as ſmooth as poſſible, and, if the varniſh has any bliſters in it, take them off by a poliſh with ruſhes.

3. While you are varniſhing, keep your work warm, but not too hot.

4. In laying on your varniſh, begin in the middle, and ſtroke the bruſh to the outſide, then to another extreme part, and ſo on till all be covered; for, if you begin at the edges, the bruſh will leave blots there, and make the work unequal.

5. In fine works uſe the fineſt tripoli in poliſhing: do not poliſh it at one time only; but, after the firſt time, let it dry for two or three days, and poliſh it again for the laſt time.

6. In the firſt poliſhing you muſt uſe a good deal of tripoli, but in the next a very little will ſerve; when you have done, waſh off your tripoli with a ſponge and water; dry the varniſh with a dry linen rag, and clear the work, if a white ground, with oil and whiting; or, if black, with oil and lamp-black.

VARNISH alſo ſignifies a ſort of ſhining coat, wherewith potters-ware, Delft-ware, China-ware, &c. are covered, which gives them a ſmoothneſs and luſtre.—Melted lead is generally uſed for the firſt, and ſmalt for the ſecond.

VARNISH, *among medaliſts*, ſignifies the colours antique medals have acquired in the earth.

The beauty which nature alone is able to give medals, and art has never yet attained to counterfeit, enhances the value of them; that is, the colour which certain ſoils, in which they have a long time lain, tinges the metals withal; ſome of which are blue, almoſt as beautiful as the turquoiſe; others with an inimitable vermilion colour; others with a certain ſhining poliſhed brown, vaſtly finer than Braſil figures.

The moſt uſual varniſh is a beautiful green, which hangs to the fineſt ſtrokes without effacing them, more accurately than the fineſt enamel does on metals.

No metal but braſs is ſuſceptible of this; for the green ruſt, that gathers on ſilver, always ſpoils it; and it muſt be got off with vinegar or lemon-juice.

Falſifiers of medals have a falſe or modern varniſh, which they uſe on their counterfeits, to give them the appearance or air of being antique. But this may be diſcovered by its ſoftneſs, it being ſofter than the natural varniſh, which is as hard as the metal itſelf.

Some depoſit their ſpurious metals in the earth for a conſiderable time, by which means they contract a ſort of varniſh, which may impoſe upon the leſs knowing; others uſe ſal-ammoniac, and others burnt paper.

VAT, *or* FAT, a kind of veſſel uſed to hold wine, ale, beer, cyder, or any other liquor, in the time of its preparation.

VELOM, a kind of parchment, finer, evener, and whiter than the common ſort.

VELOM *and* PARCHMENT-MAKER. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs will have occaſion for neither much ſtrength, ingenuity, nor learning. Velom is made of calf-ſkin extended and drawn to a proper thinneſs when green, and parchment is made of ſheep-ſkins in the ſame manner. There are but few, if any, of this trade in London. They take from five to ten pounds with an apprentice, who may ſet up with ten or twenty pounds.

VELVET, a rich kind of ſtuff all ſilk, covered on the outſide with a cloſe, ſhort, fine, ſoft ſhag, the other ſide being a very ſtrong cloſe tiſſue.

The nap, or ſhag, called alſo the velveting of this ſtuff, is formed of part of the threads of the warp, which the work-

workman puts on a long narrow channeled ruler or needle, which he afterwards cuts, by drawing a ſharp ſteel tool along the channel of the needle to the ends of the warp.

The principal and beſt manufactures of velvet are in France and Italy, particularly in Venice, Milan, Florence, Genoa, and Lucca: there are others in Holland ſet up by the French refugees; whereof that at Haerlems is the moſt conſiderable, but theſe all come ſhort of the beauty of thoſe in France, and, accordingly, are ſold for ten or fifteen *per cent.* leſs. There are even ſome brought from China, but they are the worſt of all.

There are velvets of various kinds, as —— plain, that is, uniform and ſmooth, without either figures or ſtripes.

*Figured* VELVET, that is adorned and worked with divers figures, though the ground be the ſame with the figures; that is, the whole ſurface velveted.

*Ramage*, or *branched* VELVET, repreſenting long ſtalks, branches, &c. on a ſattin ground, which is ſometimes of the ſame colour with the velvet, but more uſually of a different one. Sometimes, inſtead of ſattin, they make the ground of gold and ſilver; whence the denominations of velvets with gold ground, &c.

*Shorn* VELVET, is that wherein the threads, that make the velveting, have been ranged in the channelled ruler, but not cut there.

*Striped* VELVET, is that wherein there are ſtripes of divers colours running along the warp, whether theſe ſtripes be partly velvet, and partly ſattin, or all velveted.

*Cut* VELVET, is that wherein the ground is a kind of taffety, or *gros de tours*, and the figures velvet.

VELVETS, are likewiſe diſtinguiſhed, with regard to their different degrees of ſtrength and goodneſs, into velvets of four threads, three threads, two threads, and a thread and a half: the firſt are thoſe where there are eight threads of ſhag, or velveting, to each tool of the reed; and the ſecond have only ſix, and the reſt four.

In general, all velvets, both worked and cut, ſhorn and flowered, are to have their warp and ſhag, or organſin, ſpun and twiſted, or thrown in the mill; and their woof of ſilk well boiled, &c. They are all of the ſame breadth. *See* SILK.

VENDOR, *and* VENDEE. Vendor is a perſon who ſells any thing, and vendee the perſon to whom it is ſold. Where a man ſells a thing to another, it is implied that the vendor ſhall make aſſurance by bill of ſale to the vendee, but not unleſs it be demanded.

A verbal ſale was made of a third part of a ſhip to B. B gives a bond for the money, and the ſhip is delivered into his poſſeſſion. B demands a bill of ſale of the vendor, without which he cannot make a ſatisfactory title to any other perſon. Vendor refuſes, B ſends the ſhip a voyage, and after ſues to his bond delivered up. Vendor then offers a bill of ſale. B refuſes. Decreed the bond to be delivered up, and the third part, &c. re-aſſigned to the defendant, 2 *Chan. caſes* 5. *Mich.* 2. *Car.* II. *Legate v. Hockwood.*

VENEERING, VANEERING, *or* FINEERING, a kind of marquetry, or inlaying; whereby ſeveral thin ſlices or leaves of fine wood, of different ſorts, are applied and faſtened on a ground of ſome common wood. There are two kinds of inlaying; the one, which is the more ordinary, goes no farther than the work of compartments of different woods; the other requires a deal more art, and repreſents flowers, birds, and the like figures.

The wood intended for veneering is firſt ſawed out into ſlices, or leaves, about a line thick: in order to ſaw them, the blocks or planks, are placed upright in a kind of ſawing-preſs.

The ſlices are afterwards cut into narrow ſlips, and faſhioned divers ways, according to the deſign propoſed. Then the joints being carefully adjuſted, and the pieces brought down to their proper thickneſs, with ſeveral planes for the purpoſe, they are glued down on a ground, or block of dry wood, with good ſtrong Engliſh glue.

The pieces thus joined and glued, the work, if ſmall, is put in a preſs; if large, it is laid on a bench covered with a board, and preſſed down with poles or pieces of wood. One end thereof reaches to the cieling of the room, and the other bears on the board.

When the glue is quite dry, they take it out of the preſs and finiſh it, firſt with little planes, then with divers ſcrapers, ſome whereof reſemble raſps, which take off the dents, &c. left by the planes.

When ſufficiently ſcraped, the work is poliſhed with the ſkin of a ſea dog, wax, a bruſh, and a poliſher of ſhave-graſs, which is the laſt operation.

VENICE. In the bottom of the Adriatic ſea, there were a quantity of ſmall marſhy iſles, ſeparated only by narrow canals, but covered, and (as one may ſay) ſecured by divers moraſſes, which rendered the taking them almoſt impracticable. Here ſome fiſhermen retired, and lived on the ſmall traffic which they made with their fiſh, and of the ſalt which they drew from the ponds on ſome of theſe iſles.

It was theſe iſlands which ſerved for a retreat to the Venetians, a people of that part of Italy which is along the gulf, when Alaric, king of the Goths, and afterwards Attila, king of the Huns, came to ravage Italy, particularly after that this laſt (who highly merited the name of the Scourge of God, which he had given himſelf) had taken Padua and Aquila, and had reduced them to aſhes.

Theſe new inhabitants of the moraſſes did not at firſt compoſe any body politic; but each of theſe ſeventy-two iſles of this little Archipelago had, for a long time, their proper magiſtrates, and, as one may ſay, a ſeparate ſovereignty.

When their commerce became ſo flouriſhing as to give jealouſy to their neighbours, the Venetian iſlanders thought of forming themſelves into a republic, and it was this union (firſt begun in the ſixth century, but not perfected till towards the middle of the eighth) which laid the moſt ſolid foundations of the power and commerce of the Venetians; particularly that of the laſt, which during more than four ages, had not, in any reſpect, its equal in all Europe.

Until the union of the iſles, the trade of their inhabitants ſpread but little beyond the coaſts of the Mediterranean; but the eſtabliſhment of the new republic, having given courage and ſtrength to their merchants, their fleets were in a ſhort time ſeen to viſit the moſt diſtant parts of the ocean, and afterwards thoſe of Egypt; and by the treaties made with the Sultans, under the Pope's approbation, ſecured the trade of ſpices, and other rich merchandizes of the Eaſt, which they went to purchaſe at Cairo, a new city the Saracen princes had built on the banks of the Nile.

The riches of the Venetians encreaſed to ſuch a degree, by the commerce with Egypt, that they thought themſelves ſtrong enough to undertake ſome conqueſts, and to form, from the taking a number of important towns, what they called their State of Terra Firma, which rendered them yet more conſiderable in Italy, though they loſt a part after the famous league of Cambray.

Animated by theſe firſt ſucceſſes, and ſupported by the reſources of their commerce, and by the inexhauſtible funds, which their merchants were capable of furniſhing to the treaſury of the republic, Venice happily carried her arms yet farther, and extended her conqueſts on the ſide of the Morea, and in many of the principal iſles of the Mediterranean and Archipelago, which ſhe ſubjected to her dominion; and, to complete her glory, ſhe had a great ſhare in almoſt all the croiſades which were made for the recovery of the Holy Land, or for the ſuccour of the chriſtians of the Levant, as well as at the taking of Conſtantinople, and the conqueſt of the beſt part of the Grecian empire, which paſſed under the dominion of the French princes, in the beginning of the thirteenth century.

Venice was in this ſtate of proſperity and glory, when ſhe experienced the lot of ſo many powerful cities, which the fall of their commerce had either ruined or weakened; ſhe found, in the diminution of her own, the fatal term of that puiſſance which had given umbrage to ſo great a number of princes combined to her deſtruction, who ſigned the treaty of Cambray in 1508; and two of her moſt celebrated hiſtorians take particular notice, that their ſage ſenate had not had ſo much trouble to re-eſtabliſh their public affairs after the famous battle of Aignadel, but becauſe the republic could not any longer find the ſame reſources as heretofore, in the trade of the merchants, already greatly enfeebled by the loſs of that of the ſpices, which the Portugueze had begun to carry from them, and which was yet diminiſhed from another ſide by the Pro-

vincials;

vincials, particularly by thoſe of Marſeilles, who became in greater eſteem than the Venetians at Conſtantinople, and in the principal ſea-ports of the Levant, and who knew ſo well how to maintain their credit, that very ſoon all the commerce of thoſe parts was only carried on under French colours.

The commerce of this republic is hardly to be imagined, though there is no compariſon between the preſent and former ſtate of it, when it was from hence that all the other European countries were furniſhed with the products of all the Eaſt; however, it is yet ſo conſiderable, as to ſtand the firſt (and we think by far) among the trading ſtates of that part of the globe.

The quantities of gold and ſilver tiſſues, and other ſilks made here, is prodigious, and are ſold in all parts of Europe, where theſe ſorts of commodities find a diſpatch; but the conſumption is more particularly great in all the Levant, where it ſpreads daily more and more; and it is aſſerted for a truth, that the Turks take off larger quantities than all Europe put together; beſides which, this ſtate produces rice, currants, looking glaſs and other cryſtal works, beads, laces, gloves, ſnuff-boxes, ſilk, coral, tartar, and cream of tartar, oil, olives, drugs, fine lacque, orpiment, anis and coriander ſeeds, brimſtone, fine ſteel, turpentine, and ſoap: they likewiſe make ſome cloth here, which was formerly greatly valued for its dye, though its quality is not a little inferior to the Engliſh, French and Dutch. The Armenians eſtabliſhed at Venice, and thoſe who annually arrive there, contribute greatly to the ſupport of its trade, in which the Engliſh and Dutch ſhips alſo find a convenience, as theſe are generally the carriers of the ſaid merchants goods from the Levant. We have already briefly mentioned the particulars of its trade with us, in which thirty or thirty-five ſhips are annually employed, in carrying there lead, tin, pepper, ſugar, ginger, dying woods, hides, woollen goods, herrings, ſalmon, pilchards, ſtock-fiſh, &c. which ſhips return loaden with currants, hemp, brimſtone, beads, drugs, oil, ſometimes rice, &c.

From Hamburgh, Holland, Norway, and the Baltick, ten or fifteen ſhips arrive yearly, with dying woods, pepper, cinnamon, cloves, mace, Ruſſia hides, braſs, iron, pitch, tar, ſtock-fiſh, &c. And theſe ſhips reload with the ſame goods as before-mentioned for England, with the difference that to theſe places are carried more ſilks.

Formerly there came annually from Liſbon to Venice near three thouſand cheſts of ſugar, in return for the cargoes of corn ſent there from Ancona, Sicily, and the Levant; as alſo rice, Turkey wheat, ſteel, looking, drinking, window glaſs, &c. But as for ſome years paſt, the ſame quantity of ſugars has been introduced from France, the trade from Portugal has in proportion gone decreaſing as this has augmented.

From Cadiz and other ports in Spain, Venice gets indigo, cochineal, wool, barilla, &c. for the produce of the ſame effects, as were ſent to Liſbon.

To Genoa and Leghorn are ſent many cargoes of corn, which the Venetian veſſels commonly load in the Archipelago, and ſome window glaſs, &c. ſometimes repaid in goods, but oftener by remiſſes.

There is ſent to the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, large parcels of ordinary cloths, ſteel, iron, writing-paper, looking, drinking, window glaſs, &c. and received from thence, oil of almonds, ſoſa, piſtachoes, ſilk, pitch, lemons, and lemon juice.

In fine, the trade which Venice carries on with the Morea in the gulfs of Lepanto and Athens ought not to be forgotten; as it is from theſe places, that a great deal of wool, ſilk, wax, galls, valonea, oil, cotton, grain, honey, tar, &c. are extracted, beſides a prodigious quantity of cheeſe; for which the Venetians generally pay in money, except ſome loadings of fir and larch planks, with a few nails and old iron, which, however, employ ſeveral ſhips continually.

This is the principal commerce that Venice carries on by ſea: that which ſhe tranſacts on terra-firma is alſo very conſiderable; for beſides what it has with a great part of Germany, it furniſhes all the wants (either from the Eaſt or Weſt) of the ſtates of Parma, and Placentia, Modena, Bolonia, Ferrara, Mantua, Milan, and all Lombardy; and even of Piedmont, by means of the rivers, which facilitate its providing all theſe places on eaſier terms than by Genoa, Leghorn, or Ancona; beſides this, it alſo ſends all ſorts of goods into its own and the Eccleſiaſtical State; more particularly a great quantity of wax, which is wrought, and finely blanched at Venice; here are likewiſe ſugar refineries, with which is carried on a good trade, as there is with ſoap, glaſs, &c. And the ſole privilege to ſell tobacco, (imported from Salonica and Albania) in the Venetian territories, actually produced in the year 1741, the ſum of ſeven hundred and thirty-ſix thouſand effective ducats (which make nine hundred and fifty thouſand current) for the term of five years.

And to preſerve the conſiderable trade carried on with Germany and Turkey (which in value ſurpaſſes all others) the republic has granted large privileges to the merchants of both nations, eſtabliſhed in this capital, and have aſſigned vaſt edifices to the one and the other, as well for their habitation, as a depoſit for their merchandize; that of the Turks, called the Palace of Turkey; and that of the Germans, Il Fondaco de Tedeſchi.

If any diſpute happens between the Turks and the republick's ſubjects, in which the former think themſelves offended, they demand ſatisfaction in ſo haughty a manner, and receive it ſo promptly, that it ſeems as if there was a fear to refuſe it them.

In regard of the traffick with the Germans in Stiria, it is partly by ſea and partly by land in waggons. *See* AGIO, BANK.

VERA CRUZ, called alſo St. John de Ulhua, from the name of its port, is ſituated at the bottom of the gulph of Mexico, in the nook formed by the Yucatan; and is in ſome manner a city of the greateſt trade in all the Spaniſh America, either on the one, or the other ſea; its merchants ſending their ſhips in all the northern ocean, and to the iſles of Cuba and St. Domingo, to Jucatan, Porto-Bello, Carthagena, and all other Spaniſh places where any trade is carried on: and though ſo extenſive a traffic might ſuffice to enrich a much larger city than this, it is however the leaſt object of its inhabitants commerce, as it is here (if we may be allowed the expreſſion) that all the riches of the old and new world unite; thoſe of the firſt brought annually in from the Manillas, and Eaſt-Indies, by the way of Acapulco; and from Europe by the flota; and the products of the latter, collected here from all parts of Mexico, to be forwarded to Old Spain. The number of the inhabitants is not very conſiderable, as they hardly exceed three thouſand; but theſe are all merchants, or factors to thoſe of Mexico, among which are many who have three or four hundred thouſand dollars to employ.

The fair begins on the flota's arrival, and laſts as long as it ſtays here, when the concourſe is very great; and in caſe its detention is all the winter (which ſometimes happens) this is the place it remains at; though it generally loads in April, and departs in May, if weather permits; if not, continues here till Auguſt, according as winds and other circumſtances are favourable, or otherwiſe.

VERDIGREASE, a kind of ruſt of copper of great uſe among painters for a green colour; alſo in phyſic.

This preparation of copper is ſtill in frequent uſe on many occaſions. It is properly no other than that metal diſſolved by a mild acid into the form of an ærugo or ruſt. After preſſing the grapes for wine, the huſks, ſtones, and other refuſe are laid to be dried in the ſun; they are then moiſtened with the ſtrongeſt wine that can be had, and laid together in veſſels till they begin to ferment; after nine or ten days the matter is preſſed, and worked into balls between the hands, and laid in an orderly manner over the bottom of an earthen veſſel, and as much wine is laid over them as will cover them half way up. The veſſels are then covered with a looſe lid, and ſet in a cellar where the balls are left in the wine about fifteen hours, a perſon turning them four or five times in that ſpace, in order to make the whole ſoak perfectly through them; after this ſome wooden bars are placed acroſs the veſſel about half an inch above the ſurface of the wine, and the balls are laid out of the wine upon theſe; the veſſels are then ſhut up, and the whole left in this ſtate ten days or more. At the end of this time the balls emit

a very penetrating ſcent, and are fit for diſſolving copper. They are now to be broken in pieces, and the outſide mixed with the internal part, which is moiſter; they are then laid with thin plates of copper *ſtratum ſuper ſtratum* in the ſame veſſels upon the bars, and the whole is left for a week or fortnight, at the end of which time the plates are found covered with verdigreaſe, which is not taken off immediately, but they are wrapped up in cloths wetted with wine, and laid by a week or more, and then the ærugo or verdigreaſe is taken off for uſe.

This ruſt of copper is rarely uſed internally, nor ought it to be unleſs in the moſt deſperate caſes, where an inſtantaneous vomiting is neceſſary. Externally it is much uſed as a detergent and deſiccative. It eats off fungous fleſh in ulcers, and, mixed with honey, is uſed in apthæ and ulcerations of the mouth. It is the baſis of what is called the Egyptian ointment, and of many other compoſitions in the ſame intention. This preparation of copper ſeems to have been known to all nations, and almoſt all times, though not prepared exactly, as is now done: indeed, wherever there was copper in uſe, the very effects of a damp air could not but point out a verdigreaſe to people. The Greek phyſicians called it *ios* and *xyſtos*, the Arabians *ziniar*.

There is a preparation of this ærugo of copper, in ſome uſe at preſent both in medicine and in painting, which ought not to be omitted here: it is called, though very imperfectly, diſtilled verdigreaſe; it is a cryſtallization of verdigreaſe, prepared thus:

Bruiſe to a coarſe powder ſome fine verdigreaſe, pour on it diſtilled vinegar, to the remainder continue to do this, till the liquor will no longer extract any colour from the maſs. Evaporate or diſtil theſe liquors all mixed together till a pellicle covers the ſurface, then ſet it in a cellar, and it will ſhoot into fine green cryſtals. Evaporate the remainder of the liquor, and ſet it to ſhoot again, till no more will be produced. Theſe are the cryſtals of verdigreaſe improperly called diſtilled verdigreaſe. They are better than the crude ſubſtance for eating away proud fleſh. A ſolution of them in common water is an excellent detergent for old ulcers, and they are uſed in the eye waters to clear away ſpecks and films. Theſe cryſtals, diſtilled in a retort, afford, after a uſeleſs phlegm is come over, a noble acid, the richeſt that can be procured from vinegar. It is by the chemical writers called *acetum eſuriens*; it is greatly celebrated for its virtues as a menſtruum, and worthy great praiſe, though not equal to all that is ſaid of it.

VERDITER, *or* VERDETER, a kind of mineral ſubſtance, ſometimes uſed by the painters, &c. for a blue; but more uſually mixed with a yellow for a green colour.

Verditer, according to Savary, ought to be made of the *lapis armenus*; or at leaſt of an earthy ſubſtance much like it, brought from the mountains of Hungary, &c. only prepared by powdering it, and cleanſing it by lotion.

But this ſtone and earth are very rare; and the verditer uſed is not a native, but a factitious ſubſtance; the proper way of preparing it, we are told, is by caſting wine or water upon the new copper, juſt as it comes red-hot out of the furnace, and catching the ſteams which riſe from it upon copper-plates. Others ſay it is prepared by diſſolving copper-plates in wine, much after the manner of verdigreaſe.

The method of practice among us is ſaid to be as follows: into an hundred pounds weight of whiting, the refiners pour the copper-water, and ſtir them together every day for ſome hours till the water grows pale; then they pour that away, ſet it by for other uſe, and pour on more of the green water, and ſo till the verditer be made; which being taken out, is laid on large pieces of chalk in the ſun till it be dry for the market.

VERJUICE, a juice or liquor drawn from ſour grapes, or apples, unfit for wine or cyder; or from ſweet ones, while yet acid and unripe.

Its chief uſe is in ſauces, ragouts, &c. though it is alſo an ingredient in ſome medicinal compoſitions, and is uſed by the wax-chandlers to purify their wax.

It has its name from a large ſort of grape called *verjus* or *bourdelas*; which is ſaid never to grow perfectly ripe, or rather which, in its utmoſt maturity, is too auſtere and ſour to be uſed in wine, whence it is commonly turned into verjuice; though, in France, all unripe grapes are denominated verjuice. There is alſo a tolerable verjuice made of crabs, gathered and laid to ſweat in a heap, the ſtalks, &c. ſeparated; then ſtamped or ground, and the crab marſh put in a hair bag; the juice ſqueezed in a preſs barrelled up cloſe, and ſet in a warm place to work for ten or twelve days.

VERMICELLI, *or* VERMICHELLI, a kind of mixture prepared of flour, cheeſe, yolks of eggs, ſugar, and ſaffron; and reduced into little long pieces, or threads like worms, by forcing it with a piſton through a number of little holes in the end of a pipe made for that purpoſe.

It was firſt brought from Italy, where it is in great vogue. In effect it is the great regale of the Italians. Other nations are not eaſily brought into the taſte of it. It is chiefly uſed in ſoups and pottages, to warm, provoke venery, &c.

Allowed to be imported free of duty from our American colonies by an act of 7 *Geo.* III.

VERMILION, a very bright and beautiful red colour, in great eſteem among the ancients, under the name of minium.

There are two kinds of it, the one natural, the other factitious. The natural is found in ſome ſilver mines in the form of a ruddy ſand, which is afterwards prepared and purified by ſeveral lotions and coctions.

The artificial is made of mineral cinnabar, ground up with *aqua-vitæ* and urine, and afterwards dried.

It is alſo made of lead burnt and waſhed, or of ceruſs prepared by fire; but this is not properly called vermilion, but red-lead.

Yet this laſt, however, ſeems to be the real vermilion of the ancients; and both apothecaries and painters ſtill give it the name, to enhance the price.

We have two kinds of vermilion from Holland, the one of a deep red, the other pale; but it is the ſame thing at the bottom: the only difference of colour proceeding from the cinnabar's being more or leſs ground: when the cinnabar is finely ground, the vermilion is pale; and this is preferred before that which is coarſer and redder.

It is of very great uſe with painters in oil and miniature; and among the ladies for a fucus, or paint, to heighten the complexion of ſuch as are too pale.

Vermilion ſome diſapprove of, to be uſed in painting prints, unleſs it be prepared by waſhing, as is directed for minium; and then chiefly for dry painting, except it be by thoſe perſons, who can uſe it moderately, and with judgment; for all heavy colours will drown the ſhades or ſtrokes of the engraver.

VESSEL, *vas*, *vaſe*, a thing proper to hold or contain liquids.

VESSEL, *in navigation*, is a name common to all ſorts of ſhipping, i. e. all floating machines or vehicles that move in the water.

Veſſels are diſtinguiſhed into many claſſes, according to their magnitude, ſhape, and uſe.

A veſſel of war, of the firſt rate, is the largeſt, which conſiſts of three decks, and is computed to be about eighteen hundred tuns.

Veſſels of war, of the ſecond and third rate, have alſo three decks, and none under the third rates have more than two. *See* SHIP.

Trading veſſels are commonly from five hundred tons to any inferior number.

The figure of veſſels is a thing of great importance with regard to their motion, ſailing, &c. and in determining what form is moſt commodious for the intent of the veſſel.

VEVAY, a pleaſant town, ſeated on the lake Leman, half a league from the Alps, maintains an extenſive commerce with Valois, Savoy, Piedmont, and the Milaneſe, from whence it gets a great deal of rice. This is the ſtaple of the merchandizes that come from thoſe countries, or that Switzerland ſends thither; here is a fabrick of hats, woollen ſtockings, and ſome works of horology. Its fairs are very frequent by the reſort of Savoyards, Valaiſans, and Montagnards, and are above all conſiderable for the ſale of cheeſe, from whence Geneva and Lyons are partly ſupplied. Vevay is at preſent rich and populous, and its inhabitants enjoy the franchiſe in France granted to the

Swiſs nation: in its neighbourhood are quarries of fine marble, and they have eſtabliſhed there water ſaws, which greatly facilitate the works, ſo that ſix may operate at the ſame time on one block, which has put the undertakers in a condition to furniſh very cheap marble for inlaying porticos and halls according to the modern taſte, and alſo to compoſe chimney pieces, &c. which they do in a very grand manner.

VICTUALLING-OFFICE, an office kept on Tower-Hill for the furniſhing his majeſty's navy with victuals.

It is managed by ſeven commiſſioners, who have their inferior officers; as ſecretaries, clerks, &c. beſides agents in divers parts of Great-Britain, Ireland, &c.

VICTUALS *and* VICTUALLERS. Inquiry to be made in eyre if butchers and cooks ſell wholeſale victuals, *Iudic. pillor.* 51. *H.* 3. *ſt.* 6. *f.* 3.

Magiſtrates keeping the aſſize of victuals, ſhall not ſell wine or victuals, *St. Ebor.* 12 *Ed.* II. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 6. 6 *R.* II. *c.* 9.

A reſtraint of the exceſs of tables, *St. de Cibar.* 10 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 3.

Victuals ſhall be ſold at reaſonable prices, 23 *Ed.* III. *c.* 6.

Victuals may be ſold freely in London, and the defaults of victuallers to be redreſſed by the mayor and aldermen, 31 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 10.

Prices of victuals fixed, 37 *Ed.* III. *c.* 3.

Shall be ſold by retail by Londoners only, 42 *Ed.* III. *c.* 7.

Aliens in amity may retail their victuals in London, 6 *R.* II. *c.* 10. repealed, 7 *R.* II. *c.* 11. enforced by 1 *Hen.* IV. *c.* 17.

Victuallers ſhall take reaſonable gains, at the diſcretion of the juſtices, 13 *R.* II. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 8. 2 *H.* VI. *c.* 14.

Patents ſhall not be granted of the ſurvey of victuals, 12 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 8.

When a victualler is choſen chief magiſtrate of a town, &c. two men ſhall be elected to have the correction of victuals, 3 *H.* VIII. *c.* 8.

Prices of victuals to be fixed by the lords of the council, and by the chief magiſtrates of towns, 25 *H.* VIII. *c.* 2.

Victuals ſhall not be exported without licence, 25 *H.* VIII. *c.* 2. *f.* 5. 1 *Ph.* and *Ma. c.* 5.

Conſpiracies of victuallers and handicraftſmen to raiſe their prices, prohibited on pain of pillory, &c. 2 and 3 *Ed.* VI. *c* 15.

Corn, beef, &c. may be exported when they do not exceed limited prices, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *f.* 11. 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13.

Importation of foreign beef, pork, and bacon, prohibited, 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 2. 20. *Car.* II. *c.* 7.

Beef, pork, bacon, butter, cheeſe, and candles may be exported, 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13 *f.* 4.

Duty on butter and cheeſe exported, 22 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. *f.* 5.

Beef, &c. may be exported free, 3 *W.* and *M. c.* 8.

Importation of foreign bacon permitted, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 2. *f.* 4.

A tax on the victuallers in London, in conſideration of their being prohibited to ſend out pots, 12 *Geo.* I. *c* 12. repealed, 16. *Geo.* II. *c.* 12.

Exportation of victuals reſtrained for a year, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 3.

Victuals may be imported from Ireland into Scotland, in time of dearth, 14 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7.

VINE, *Vitis*, a noble plant or ſhrub of the creeping kind, famous for its fruit, or grapes, and for the liquor they afford. *See the article* WINE.

Our gardeners find, that vines are capable of being cultivated in England, ſo as to produce large quantities of grapes; and thoſe ripened to ſuch a degree, as may afford a good ſubſtantial vinous juice. Witneſs the vineyards in Somerſetſhire; particularly that famous one at Bath.

In effect, it does not ſeem ſo much owing to the inclemency of our Engliſh air, that our grapes are generally inferior to thoſe of France, as to the want of a juſt culture.

Thoſe fitted for the Engliſh climate Mr. Mortimer finds to be the black grape, the white muſcadine, parſly grape, muſcadillo, white and red frontigniac.

Mr. Bradley recommends the July grape, the early ſweet water grape, lately brought from the Canaries, and the arbois, or French ſweet water grape: all which, if well managed, and the weather favourable, are ripe by the middle of Auguſt. He alſo recommends the claret and Burgundy grapes.

The beſt ſoil for vines, according to Mortimer, is the hotteſt gravel, ſand, or dry rocky ground, provided it be well watered and ſhaded. At firſt planting,

Mr. Bradley recommends chalky hills, as proper for vines.

To mend a ſoil that wants thoſe qualities, it is good to throw in the rubbiſh of old buildings, well mixed with twice as much earth, and ſifted about the roots of the vines.

Vines are propagated either by layers, or cuttings; that is, either by laying down the young branches, as ſoon as the fruit is gathered, or by making plantations of ſlips, or cuttings, at that time.

Mr. Mortimer ſays, it may be done any time in the winter before January; though Bradley ſays, he has done it, with ſucceſs, in March and April.

VINEGAR, *Acetum*, an agreeable acid penetrating liquor, prepared from wine, cyder, &c. by fermenting it a ſecond time.

*Method of making* VINEGAR *from the refuſe of fruits*, &c. Take the ſkins of raiſins, after they have been uſed in making wine; and pour three or four times their own quantity of boiling water upon them, ſo as to make a thin aqueous mixture. Then ſet the containing caſk, looſely covered, in a warmer place than is uſed for vinous fermentation; and the liquor, in a few weeks time, will become a clear and ſound vinegar; which being drawn off from its ſediment, and preſerved in another caſk, well ſtopped down, will continue perfect, and fit for uſe.

This experiment ſhews us a cheap and ready way of making vinegar from refuſe materials; ſuch as the huſks of grapes, decayed raiſins, the lees of wine, grounds of ale, beer, &c. which are frequently thrown away as uſeleſs. Thus, in many wine countries, the marc, rape, or dry preſſing of grapes are thrown in heaps, and ſuffered to putrify unregarded; though capable of affording as good vinegar, as the wine itſelf. In ſome places they bury copper-plates in theſe huſks, in order to make verdigreaſe; but this practice ſeems chiefly confined to the ſouthern parts of France. Our preſent experiment ſhews us how to convert them to another uſe; and the direction extends to all the matters that have once undergone, or are fit to undergo, a vinous fermentation, for that all ſuch matters will afford vinegar. Thus all our ſummer fruits in England, even black-berries; all the refuſe waſhings of a ſugar-houſe, cyder preſſings, or the like, will make vinegar, by means of water, the open air, and warmth.

The whole proceſs, whereby this charge is effected, deſerves to be attentively conſidered. And, firſt, the liquor to be thus changed, being kept warmer than in vinous fermentation, it, in a few days, begins to grow thick, or turbid; and without throwing up bubbles, or making any conſiderable tumult, as happens in vinous fermentation, depoſits a copious ſediment.

The effect of this ſeparation begins to appear firſt on the ſurface of the liquor, which gathers a white ſkin, that daily increaſes in thickneſs, till at length it becomes like leather; and now, if continued longer in this ſtate, the ſkin turns blue, or green, and would at laſt grow ſolid, and putrify: therefore, in keeping down this ſkin as it grows, and thruſting it gently down to the bottom of the veſſel, conſiſts much of the art of vinegar-making, eſpecially from malt.

It is to be particularly obſerved, that if wine were not bunged down, when arrived at its vinous ſtate, but ſuffered ſtill to remain open and expoſed to a warm air, it would ſpontaneouſly become vinegar; and the ſooner, if a ſomewhat greater degree of heat than ſerved for the making of wine, were employed. Whence we might have uſed wine for this purpoſe, as well as have added water to the huſks and ſediment, or lees; but we chooſe the latter way, to ſhew that every ſuch refuſe matter will afford vinegar; and again, to intimate how far the art of vinegar-making may be ſtill improved, both in England, where they brew a wort from malt, and in ſome wine countries, where they make their beſt wines into vinegars.

What we could chiefly obſerve for the preſent, is, that acetous fermentation requires a ſtronger heat than the vi-

nous; and that wines having once finiſhed their fermentation, as wines, do not naturally ſtop there; but, unleſs prevented by the care of the operator, proceed directly on to vinegars; where again they make no ſtop, but unleſs prevented, go on ſpontaneouſly to vapidity, ropineſs, mouldineſs, and putrefaction. From which latter obſervation we would deduce this axiom, that, to ſpeak philoſophically, the intention, or tendency of nature, is to proceed from the very beginning of vinous fermentation directly, in one continued ſeries, to putrefaction, and thence again to a new generation: which appears to be the grand circle wherein all natural things are moved; and all the philoſophical, or rather, chemical phænomena of the globe are moved.

And hence we ſee, by the interpoſition of man, how this general proceſs of nature may be ſtopped at different times, with different views; ſo as to procure ourſelves wines, vinegars, &c.

*Method of making cider* VINEGAR. The cider (the meaneſt of which will ſerve the purpoſe) is firſt to be drawn off fine into another veſſel, and a quantity of the muſt, or pouz of apples, to be added. The whole is ſet in the ſun, if their be a conveniency for the purpoſe; and, at a week or nine days end, it may be drawn off.

*Method of making beer* VINEGAR. Take a middling ſort of beer, indifferently well hopped; into which, when it has worked well, and is grown fine, put ſome rape, or huſks of grapes, uſually brought home for that purpoſe: maſh them together in a tub; then, letting the rape ſettle, draw off the liquid part, put it into a caſk, and ſet it in the ſun as hot as may be; the bung being only covered with a tile, or ſlate-ſtone: and in about thirty or forty days, it will become a good vinegar, and may paſs in uſe as well as that made of wine, if it be refined, and kept from turning muſty.

Or thus: to every gallon of ſpring water add three pounds of Malaga raiſins; which put into an earthen jar, and place where they may have the hotteſt ſun from May till Michaelmas: then, preſſing all well, tun the liquor up in a very ſtrong iron-hooped veſſel, to prevent its burſting: it will appear very thick and muddy, when newly preſſed; but will refine in the veſſel, and be as clear as wine. Thus let it remain untouched for three months, before it be drawn off, and it will prove excellent vinegar.

*Method of making wine* VINEGAR. Any ſort of vinous liquor, being mixed with its own fœces, flowers, or ferment, and its tartar firſt reduced to powder; or elſe with the acid and auſtere ſtalks of the vegetable from whence the wine was obtained, which hold a large proportion of tartar; and the whole being kept frequently ſtirring in a veſſel which has formerly held vinegar, or ſet in a warm place full of the ſteams of the ſame, will begin to ferment a-new, conceive heat, grow ſour by degrees, and ſoon after turn into vinegar.

The remote ſubjects of acetous fermentation are the ſame with thoſe of vinous; but the immediate ſubjects of it are all kinds of vegetable juices, after they have once undergone that fermentation which reduces them to wine; for it is abſolutely impoſſible to make vinegar of muſt, the crude juice of grape, or other ripe fruits, without the previous aſſiſtance of vinous fermentation.

The proper ferments for this operation, whereby vinegar is prepared, are: 1. The fœces of all acid wines. 2. The lees of vinegar. 3. Pulverized tartar, eſpecially that of Rheniſh wine, or the cream or cryſtals thereof. 4. Vinegar itſelf. 5. A wooden veſſel, well drenched with vinegar, or one that has long been employed to contain it. 6. Wine that has often been mixed with its own fœces. 7. The twigs of vines, and the ſtalks of grapes, currants, cherries, or other vegetables of an auſtere taſte. 8. Bakers leaven, after it is turned acid. 9. All manner of ferments, compounded of thoſe already mentioned.

The French uſe a method of making vinegar different from that above deſcribed. They take two very large oaken veſſels, the larger the better, open at the top; in each whereof they place a wooden-grate, within a foot of the bottom: upon theſe grates they firſt lay twigs, or cuttings of vines, and afterwards the ſtalks of the branches, without the grapes themſelves, or their ſtones, till the whole pile reaches within a foot of the brim of the veſſels: then they fill one of theſe veſſels with wine to the very top, and half fill the other, and with liquor drawn out of the full veſſel, fill up that which was only half full before; daily repeating the ſame operation, and pouring the liquor back from one veſſel to the other; ſo that each of them is full, and half full, by turns.

When this proceſs has been continued for two or three days, a degree of heat will ariſe in the veſſel, which is then but half full, and increaſe for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, without any appearance of the like in the veſſel which happens to be full during thoſe days; the liquor whereof will ſtill remain cool: and as ſoon as the heat ceaſes in the veſſel that is half full, the vinegar is prepared: which, in the ſummer, happens on the fourteenth or fifteenth day from the beginning; but in the winter, the fermentation proceeds much ſlower; ſo that they are obliged to forward it by artificial warmth, or the uſe of ſtoves.

When the weather is exceeding hot, the liquor ought to be poured off from the full veſſel into the other twice a day; otherwiſe the liquor would be over-heated, and the fermentation prove too ſtrong; whence the ſpirituous parts would fly away, and leave a vapid wine, inſtead of vinegar, behind.

The full veſſel is always to be left open at the top, but the mouth of the other muſt be cloſed with a cover of wood, in order the better to keep down and fix the ſpirit in the body of the liquor; for otherwiſe, it might eaſily fly off in the heat of fermentation. The veſſel that is only half full ſeems to grow hot, rather than the other, becauſe it contains a much greater quantity of the vine twigs and ſtalks, than that, in proportion to the liquor; above which the pile, riſing to a conſiderable heighth, conceives heat the more, and ſo conveys it to the wine below.

Every ton of vinegar imported for defraying the expences of coinage pays ten ſhillings, 18 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 6.

And every ton of vinegar imported, *S.* 8. 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 9. *ſ.* 2.

And if by Engliſhmen, four pounds, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 25.

And if by ſtrangers, ſix pounds, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 25.

Every barrel of vinegar, or liquor prepared for vinegar, that hath run through rape, &c. eight ſhillings, 2 *W.* and *M. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 2.

And four ſhillings, 4 *W.* and *M. c.* 3. *ſ.* 2. And four ſhillings, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 7. *ſ.* 27. And four ſhillings, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 20. *ſ.* 10.

And every barrel of vinegar beer made of Engliſh materials, ſixpence, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 23. *ſ.* 6. And ſixpence, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 1. And three ſhillings, 2 *W.* and *M. ſeſſ.* 2. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 2. And one ſhilling and ſixpence, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 7. *ſ.* 27. And one ſhilling and ſixpence, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 20. *ſ.* 10.

And made of Engliſh or foreign materials, eight ſhillings, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 9. And two ſhillings and four-pence, 4 *Ann. c.* 6. *ſ.* 9. And nine-pence, 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 1.

Drawback on the exportation of vinegar, 13 and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 25.

Penalties on concealing vinegar, from the gauger, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 16, &c.

Duties on vinegar by former acts taken off, and a new duty impoſed, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 8, &c.

What to be deemed vinegar or liquors preparing for vinegar, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 11.

Thirty-four gallons to be deemed a barrel of vinegar, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 2. *ſ.* 15.

Informations againſt vinegar-makers for a falſe miſ-entry, &c. to be laid within three months, 12 and 13 *W.* III. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 17.

Vinegar made for pickles for ſale to pay duties, 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 4.

Vinegar made by the manufacturers of white lead exempt from duties, 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 5.

Verjuice bought or made for ſale, how chargeable with duties, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 30. *ſ.* 28.

Every hogſhead of verjuice to pay five pence, 8 *Ann. c.* 7. *ſ.* 1.

Additional

Additional duty of eight-pence per tun on French vinegar imported, 3 *Geo.* III. *c.* 12.

And on all other vinegar imported, four pounds *per* tun, *ibid.*

VINEGAR-MAKERS. Theſe, on account of the greatneſs of their dealings, are frequently diſtinguiſhed by the name of vinegar-merchants. It is therefore a buſineſs that is only fit for youths of fortune; who, during their apprenticeſhip, have little elſe to do but to ſit in the office and perform the buſineſs of a clerk; all the laborious part of the buſineſs being performed by labourers. The maſter, or an overſeer, is ſufficient to manage the works: there can then be no room for the employment of many journeymen; and indeed the number of the maſters is very ſmall.

VINEYARD, a plantation of vines. The beſt ſituation of a vineyard is on the declivity of an hill lying to the ſouth.

The vine is propagated by ſlips, layers, or ſuckers, planted in a nurſery, and thence tranſplanted, about February, into the vineyard.

As to the ſoil, it is agreed, nothing can be too dry for them: and as to the ſorts of vines, none but the forward ones ought to be planted in England. Theſe are found to ripen very well in open borders, without walls.

They are planted in lines running north and ſouth, five or ſix feet apart, only two vines in each hole. The September following, the ſhoots of that ſummer are to be pruned ſhorter, according to their ſtrength, and the ſummer following, the ſtrongeſt will begin to ſhew a little fruit. They are now to be ſupported with ſtalks, &c. ſo as they may run above a foot above ground. The higher they run, the leſs danger they are in of being ſpoiled with wet; but the lower, the ſweeter the grapes, and the ſtronger wine.

If, notwithſtanding due pruning, they do not ſeem inclinable to bear large bunches, the ground is to be helped with a mixture of rubbiſh of ſome old building, with ſea-coal aſhes, or drift ſand. Thus managed, a vineyard, in five or ſix years, will produce good ſtore of grapes.

The celebrated vineyard at Bath, containing about ſix acres of ground, planted with white muſcadine, and black cluſter grapes, Mr. Bradley aſſures us, by ſuch management, ſome years ago, yielded ſixty hogſheads of wine at a vintage: though, in the year 1712, it only yielded three hogſheads. The ſame author mentions a little vineyard of a private perſon at Rotherhith; which, though only conſiſting of one hundred vines, and ſome of them only of the ſecond year's growth, yielded at a vintage ninety-five gallons of wine; which, he adds, had the true Burgundy flavour, as being made from that ſort of grape, and exceeded any made from any vineyard on this ſide Paris.

The owners of vineyards may make wine of Britiſh grapes only growing there, free from any duty, *ſtat.* 10. *Geo.* II.

VINOUS, *vinoſus*, ſomething that relates to wine, or has the taſte and ſmell thereof.

All vegetables, by a due treatment, afford a vinous liquor, as corn, pulſe, nuts, apples, grapes, &c.

VINTNER. A lad who is to ſerve his time to a vintner, ſhould be ſharp, ſober, quick of apprehenſion, nimble, active, and complaiſant; as to his education, he needs only the common qualifications of reading, writing, and arithmetic. The vintner, if he deals honeſtly, buys wine neat as imported, and his profits ariſe from the difference between buying and ſelling: but too many of them dabble in the buſineſs of the wine-cooper, and re-brew in the cellar, what had before been brewed in the wine-vaults. The vintners uſually take with an apprentice about twenty pounds, who, during his time of ſervitude, may obtain conſiderable profits from the liberality of his maſter's cuſtomers. He may afterwards become a drawer or waiter. Some of theſe receive wages, and others do not; but then it is ſuppoſed that their vales make a handſome equivalent. It will require five hundred pounds to ſet up maſter.

VINUM, a liquor, or drink, properly called wine. *See* WINE.

VINUM *Aromaticum*, made by infuſing aromatics or ſpices in new wine or muſt.

VINUM *Cydonites*, *quince wine*, made of the ſlices of that fruit ſteeped in muſt or new wine.

VINUM *Emeticum*, *emetic wine*, is wine wherein the glaſs or regulus of antimony, or *crocus metallorum*, has been ſteeped. It only takes a certain degree of efficacy from the matters; nor is it found any ſtronger at three month's end, than at the end of eight days. It purges both upwards and downwards.

VINUM *Hippocraticum*, *or hippocras*, ſo called of *manica Hippocratis*, or Hippocrates's ſleeve, through which it is ſtrained, is a ſort of ſpiced wine, in which ſugar and ſpices have for ſome time been ſteeped.

VINUM *Marinum*, a wine made by caſting ſea-water on the grapes in the vat.

VINUM *Picatum*, *pitched wine*, made of pitch infuſed in muſt.

VINUM *Roſatum*, *roſe-wine*, made by ſteeping roſes for three months in wine.

VIPER, a ſpecies of ſerpent, common to moſt parts of the world. The viper is by far the moſt noxious animal of the ſerpent kind, that our part of the world affords; and it is as much the moſt uſeful in medicine. Indeed, balancing the good we receive from it, and the miſchief known to be done by it, it ſeems far more our intereſt that ſuch a creature ſhould be among us.

Vipers are beſt taken for medicinal uſe in the months of July and Auguſt; they are then moſt vigorous and fatteſt, though thoſe which are taken in ſpring, as ſoon as they come out of their winter's torpid ſtate, are always found to be in very good caſe: they are beſt for uſe, when firſt taken; but the people who ſell them will never tell the truth on this head. They keep them alive in large cheſts, in which they will live a year or more without eating any thing.

Vipers are to be choſen large and vigorous; if intended for uſe, while freſh, they ſhould be killed immediately before the time, for their fleſh corrupts very ſoon. If for drying, they ſhould be killed at home, and after ſkinning hung up.

Thoſe who buy them ready dried, often have common ſnakes inſtead of vipers, and frequently ſuch as have died of themſelves in confinement.

The ancients, knew well enough the nature of the viper, to be convinced that its fleſh was not poiſonous; they eat vipers, and eſteemed them, as they truly are, nutritive, reſtorative, and cordial: the beſt way to feed on vipers is to cut them into pieces and boil them in chicken broth; they give it no diſagreeable taſte, though they communicate to it all their reſtorative virtues.

Dried or powdered, they are given twenty or thirty grains for a doſe; but this way they loſe the greater part of their virtues. The volatile ſalt is a noble ſudorific. Its doſe is from three to eight or ten grains. The oil is recommended to diſcuſs tumors, and to be held to the noſe of people in hyſteric fits; but it is ſo very fœtid, that it is now wholly out of uſe.

VIRGIN WAX, is that which has never been wrought, but remains as it came out of the hive. *See* WAX.

VIRGIN *Oil*, is what oozes ſpontaneouſly from the olive, &c. without preſſing.

VIRGIN *Gold*, is that metal, ſuch as it is got out of the ore without any mixture or alloy, in which ſtate it is ſometimes ſo ſoft that it will take the impreſſion of a ſeal.

VIRGIN *Copper*, is a native copper found in the mine, and which has never been melted down.

VIRGIN *Quick ſilver*, is that found perfectly formed and fluid in the veins of mines; or at leaſt is got from the mineral earth by mere lotion, without fire.

VIRGIN *Parchment*, is that made of the ſkin of an abortive lamb or calf.

VIRGINIA, this country was at firſt divided into north and ſouth Virginia, and was accordingly granted by king James I. in 1606, to two diſtinct ſets of men, the one to poſſeſs all the lands, &c. between thirty-four and forty-one degrees of latitude, to be called the firſt colony, and the others to have all thoſe lying between thirty-eight and forty-five degrees of latitude, with the denomination of the ſecond colony; and they immediately fitted out ſhips, and ſent many people there in the ſame year; and though their eſtabliſh-

eſtabliſhments were rendered as eaſy to them, as the nature of the thing would poſſibly admit, and their advantageous ſituation was very apparent, yet they could not ſubmit to the few labours and difficulties attending their firſt ſettling, though with the proſpect of ſoon obtaining from them a comfortable and eaſy abode, capable of daily improvements by an honeſt induſtry, but were continually breaking out into commotions and diſturbances, which proved ruinous to the colony, and their own deſtruction; and they were ſo contumacious as to fly in the face of juſtice; ſo that few of their governors could ſupport their authority, or bring them into any ſettled order or diſcipline; which was a good deal owing to the nature of the grants made in England by the patentees, and no ſmall ſhare of it charged on the company's male-adminiſtration; inſomuch, that on king Charles I. aſcending the throne, he diſſolved the company in 1626, reducing the country and government under his own immediate direction, and granting patents to particular adventurers, with the reſerve of a quit-rent of two ſhillings for every hundred acres.

This reſolution of his majeſty's at firſt ſeemed very agreeable to thoſe already ſettled, and animated many daily to encreaſe their number; but old diſcontents reviving, and the people proving reſtleſs under the governor's oppreſſions, gave an inſtance of their reſentment, by ſending the firſt his majeſty had ſet over them priſoner to England, for his diſagreement with his council, and violences on the inhabitants. And the ſubſequent troubles of king Charles's reign, and Cromwell's adminiſtration, hindered the good diſpoſitions from proving effectual that had before been taken for the colony's proſperity by their worthy chief Sir William Berkley. However, many continued ſollicitors for patents of large tracts, which has indeed proved very prejudicial to the country, as it is by this means that very few towns are to this day built in it, and thoſe few ſo ſmall as hardly to be worth naming.

It lies from thirty-ſix to thirty-nine degrees of north latitude, and between ſeventy-four and eighty degrees of weſtern longitude, being about two hundred and forty miles in length, and near one hundred and twenty in breadth; divided into twenty-five (ſome ſay twenty-nine) counties; of theſe, the firſt is James county, which contains five pariſhes, and the only two towns in the province; and theſe, as we ſaid before, ſo ſmall, that the principal, called James-Town, does not contain above eighty houſes; and Williamſburgh, though the ſeat of juſtice, not above half that number: the people, if we reckon men, women, and children, and join to theſe the negroes, may amount to above five hundred thouſand, which may reaſonably be ſuppoſed to bring no ſmall advantage to their mother country; as from hence they are all ſupplied with moſt of the neceſſaries of life; ſuch as linen, ſilks, India goods, wine, and other foreign manufactures; and of our home ones, cloths, ſerges, ſtuffs, bays, hats, and all ſorts of haberdaſhery ware; hoes, bills, axes, nails, adzes, and other iron tools; clothes ready made, knives, biſcuit, flour, ſtockings, ſhoes, caps for ſervants, and indeed almoſt every thing that is made in England, to the amount of near 1,000,000 *l.* ſterling, which is repaid moſtly in tobacco, of which it is ſuppoſed, by the niceſt calculators, that near one hundred thouſand hogſheads are (in times of peace) imported here yearly, employing between three and four hundred ſhips, navigated by upwards of four thouſand ſailors; and of theſe, about ſixty thouſand hogſheads are re-exported for foreign parts, which if computed only at five pounds *per* hogſhead, makes three hundred thouſand pounds, beſides the duties not drawn back, and the new freight it occaſions.

This ſettlement, it is to be obſerved, is only that part of the original grant, called the firſt, or London colony; the other, termed the ſecond, or Plymouth colony, ſhall be ſpoke of when we come to treat of New-England, of which they were the original planters.

VITRIFICATION, *or* VITRIFACTION, the act of converting a body into glaſs by means of fire.

Of all bodies, fern-aſhes, ſand, bricks, and pebbles, vitrify the moſt eaſily. Accordingly, it is of theſe that glaſs is principally made.

VITRIOL is of three different ſorts, white, blue, and green. White vitroil, which has been ſuppoſed, till of late, to be an artificial preparation of the common green vitriol, is prepared at Goſlar in Germany, from a particular kind of ore; though ſometimes it is found native in the mines. There appears to be a ſmall quantity of copper and iron in it; but they both ſeparate from it in its putrifiçation. Purified, it appears to be a vitriol of a particular kind.

The blue vitriol, which is at preſent in uſe among us, is not brought from abroad, but prepared in England: its cryſtals are not ſo perfect as the foreign ſort. Expoſed to the fire, it does not melt like green vitriol: it firſt turns white, then of a yellowiſh red on the outſide; and upon increaſing the fire, an acid vapour exhales, leaving behind it a dark red calc.

Blue vitriol is ſaid to be found ſometimes naturally formed, in great quantity, in the copper mines in Germany.

Green vitriol, is ſometimes found native in the bowels of the earth; but the ſort commonly to be met with, is artificially prepared from the pyrites and iron.

This ſort, being expoſed to a ſoft fire, runs into a liquid form; and, its aqueous parts exhaling, becomes a white calx: upon increaſing the fire, an acid vapour ariſes, the calx becomes red, and at length, in an intenſe fire, aſſumes a purpliſh colour.

The acid liquor extracted from vitriol, by a chemical analyſis, appears to be perfectly ſimilar whatever kind of vitriol it be obtained from. Their various colours are owing to the mineral or metallic parts contained in them: the blue colour ſprings from copper; the green from iron; the baſis of the white is probably calamine. Each of theſe vitriols contains, in its cryſtalline form, different quantities of an aqueous fluid; the blue contains the leaſt, and the green, the moſt.

ULTRAMARINE, *ultramarium*, a beautiful blue colour uſed by the painters, prepared from lapis lazuli. *See* LAPIS LAZULI.

UMPIRE, one choſen by compromiſe to deal indifferently between both parties.

UMPIRAGE, is where there is but one arbitrator of matters ſubmitted to award; and is uſually when the parties ſubmit themſelves to the arbitrament of certain perſons; and if they cannot agree, or are not ready to deliver their award in writing before ſuch a time, then to the judgment of another as umpire: and this is often the effect of bonds of ſubmiſſion to arbitration, 1 *Roll. Abr.* 261, 262. *See* ARBITRATION.

UNDER-CURRENTS. Diſtinct from the upper, or apparent currents of the ſea; ſome naturaliſts conclude there are, in divers places, under-currents, which ſet or drive a contrary way.

Dr. Smith, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, brings the hypotheſis of under-currents to ſolve that remarkable phœnomenon, the ſea's ſetting ſtrongly through the ſtreights, into the Mediterranean, with a conſtant current twenty leagues broad. What ſhould become of the vaſt quantity of water poured in this way, as alſo that running from the Euxine, through the Boſphorus, into the Helleſpont, and thence into the Archipelago, is a ſpeculation that has long employed the philoſophers. This author's conjecture is, that there is an under-current, whereby as great a quantity of water is carried out as comes in. To confirm which, he obſerves that between the north and ſouth Foreland, it is either high or low water upon the ſhore three hours before it is ſo off at ſea: a certain ſign, that though the tide of flood runs aloft, yet the tide of ebb runs under-foot, or cloſe by the ground.

He adds an account from an able ſailor in the Baltic Sound, that going with their pinnace into the middle ſtream, they were carried violently away by the current: but that, ſinking a bucket with a large cannon bullet to a certain depth of water, it gave a check to the boat's motion, and ſinking it ſtill lower, the boat was driven to the windward againſt the upper-current, which was not above four or five fathoms deep.

Dr. Halley ſolves the currents ſetting in at the Streights without overflowing the banks, from the great evaporation, without ſuppoſing any under-current.

UNDERTAKER. This buſineſs requires no great genius, and only a common education. No other qualifications are neceſſary, beſides the power of a ſteady melancholy countenance at command. Their buſineſs is to

watch the approaches of death, and to furniſh out the funeral folemnity with all the pomp and feigned ſorrow which the heirs of the deceaſed chuſe to purchaſe, in order to ſhew their reſpect or their vanity. Thoſe of this buſineſs do not take apprentices as undertakers; for they are generally all coffin-makers, common carpenters, upholſterers, or herald-painters. They employ as journeymen people of a ſolemn countenance, whom they pay at ſo much a job.

UNDERWALD, in Switzerland, has a revenue and trade ſimilar to Schwitz (which *ſee*) with the addition that here the natives ſpin the thread they uſe in manufacturing their linen.

UNGUENT, *unguentum*, *ointment*, in chirurgery. Ointments are divided into ſimple and compound, though it ſo happens, that ſome of the former are conſiderably compounded; and, amongſt the latter, there are ſome ſimple ointments, and others very little compounded.

It frequently occurs, that turpentine, ceruſs, lard, and ſome other things are ordered to be waſhed in roſe-water, or the juice of ſome herbs; but this is a circumſtance that avails ſo little to any purpoſe of moment, that we never knew it complied with: ſo that a continuation of ſuch directions ſeems principally to be in compliment to the old preſcriptions, which abound in ſuch minute exactneſs. It may here alſo be obſerved in general, that where oil is directed in an ointment or plaiſter, the wholeſale traders, who ſeek only profit, generally ſubſtitute lard; and where ceruſs, minium, or litharge are concerned, they are generally uſed in over-proportions, becauſe they make ſuch a weight come out much cheaper.

UNICORN, in natural hiſtory, an animal famous among the Greek authors, and called by the Latins *unicornu*.

Theſe creatures were figured under the ſhape of horſes, deer, hogs, and bulls; but all with the ſingularity of an enormous horn in their foreheads. They, however, have no exiſtence in nature, being only imaginary, as well as the virtues aſcribed to this horn. That ſubſtance known in the ſhops under the name of the unicorn's horn, is the tooth of a large cetaceous fiſh, frequent in the ſeas bordering on Greenland and Iceland, where it is called *narwhal*: the authors who have written on fiſhes in general, call it *monocerus piſcis*, the unicorn fiſh.

UNION, *or the* UNION, by way of eminence, is more particularly uſed, among us, to expreſs the act whereby the two ſeparate kingdoms of England and Scotland were incorporated into one, under the title of the kingdom of Great-Britain.

The happy union, in vain attempted by king James the Firſt, was at length effected in the year 1707, by the general conſent of the queen and eſtates of each realm.

UNITED-PROVINCES. *See* AMSTERDAM, DUTCH, HOLLAND.

VORTEX, whirlwind, in meteorology, a ſudden, rapid, violent motion of the air in gyres, or circles.

VORTEX, *vorago*, is alſo uſed for an eddy or whirl-pool of a body of water, in certain ſeas or rivers, which run rapidly around, forming a ſort of cavity in the middle.

VOUA. *See* KEN.

VOULE, a ſmall meaſure uſed by the natives of Madagaſcar, in retailing their huſked rice; it contains near half a pound of rice, and twelve of them make the troubahouache or monka, and one hundred the zaton.

UPHOLSTERER, *or* UPHOLDER. The boy who is diſpoſed to be of this buſineſs requires no very extraordinary genius, nor any uncommon education. The upholſterer makes beds with all their furniture, as the valence, teſter, &c. though all the wood work is performed by the bedſtead-maker, carver, &c. They ſtuff and cover eaſy chairs and ſettee beds, and make all kinds of curtains both for beds and windows. They keep large ſhops, in which they ſell beds, blankets, quilts, counterpains; and ſome of them deal in all kinds of furniture, which they buy of the cabinet-makers, chair-makers, &c. They take from twenty to fifty pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will be able to get twelve or fifteen ſhillings a week They employ women, who earn a ſhilling or eighteen-pence a day; and an apprentice, when out of his time, requires from one hundred to one thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

URGENS, the capital of Charaſſm, is ſituated in a large plain to the north of the river Arnu, about twenty-five German leagues from the eaſtern border of the Caſpian ſea. This city was once very conſiderable; but ſince it became ſubject to the Tartars, and the Arnu, that run at the foot of its walls, has taken another courſe, it is fell greatly to decay.

URI, is a canton in the vallies of the High Alps, and abounds in excellent paſtures; its principal revenue conſiſts in cattle, and its cheeſe find a ready ſale in Lombardy. At Altorf, a chief borough of the canton, is eſtabliſhed a fabrick for cutting and poliſhing cryſtals, of which here are very fine mines, and the canton produces ſeveral ſorts of linens for various uſes.

USALTON. *See* ABAGI.

USANCE, *uſo*, in commerce, is a determinate time for the payment of bills of exchange, reckoned either from the day of the bills being accepted, or from the day of their date; and thus called, becauſe regulated by the uſage and cuſtoms of the places whereon they are drawn.

Bills of exchange are drawn at ſingle or double uſance, either from ſight or from date.

This term is longer or ſhorter, according to the different countries. In France, uſance is fixed at thirty days; at London, uſance is a calendar month, and double uſance two months, or ſixty days.

At Venice, Genoa, and Leghorn, three months.

At Hamburgh, uſance of bills drawn at Ferrara, Bologna, Florence, Lucca, and Leghorn, is five days after ſight. From Naples, Augſburg, Genoa, and Vienna, fifteen days after ſight. From Mantua, Modena, and Milan, twenty days after date. From Amſterdam, Antwerp, and Hamburgh, two months after date; and, from London, three months after date.

At Milan, uſance of bills drawn from Genoa, is eight days after ſight. From Rome, ten days after ſight, and from Venice, twenty days after date.

At Florence, uſance of bills, drawn from Bologna, in three days after ſight. From Rome, ten days after ſight. From Venice and Naples, twenty days after date.

At Rome, uſance of bills drawn in Italy was originally ten days after ſight; but, by an abuſe, this term has been extended to fifteen.

At Leghorn, uſance of bills drawn from Genoa is eight days after ſight; from Rome, ten days; from Naples, three weeks; from Venice, twenty days after date; from London, three weeks; and, from Amſterdam, forty days.

At Amſterdam, uſance of bills drawn from England and France is a month after date; from Venice, Madrid, Cadiz, and Seville, two months.

At Genoa, uſance of bills from Milan, Florence, Leghorn, and Lucca, is eight days after ſight; from Venice, Rome, and Bologna, fifteen days; from Naples, twenty-two days; from Sicily, a month after ſight, or two months after date; from Sardinia, a month after ſight; from Antwerp, Amſterdam, and other places in the Low Countries, three months after date. *See Bills of* EXCHANGE.

USES *and cuſtoms of the ſea*, are certain maxims, rules, or uſages, which make the baſe or ground-work of the maritime juriſprudence, by which the policy of navigation, and commerce of the ſea are regulated.

USQUEBAUGH, a ſtrong, rich, compound liquor, chiefly taken by way of dram; its baſis being brandy, or rectified ſpirits of wine.

The proceſs is ſomewhat various, and the ingredients numerous.—We ſhall give one, formerly much commended, as a ſpecimen.

To two gallons of brandy, or ſpirits, put a pound of Spaniſh liquorice, half a pound of raiſins of the ſun, four ounces of currants, three of dates ſliced; tops of thyme, balm, ſavory, mint, and tops of flowers of roſemary, of each two ounces; cinnamon and mace bruiſed, nutmegs, anniſeeds, and coriander ſeeds bruiſed likewiſe, of each four ounce; citron, or lemon and orange-peel ſcraped, of each an ounce.

All theſe to be left to infuſe forty-eight hours in a warm place, often ſhaking them together: then ſet them in a cool place for a week, after which the clear liquor is to be decanted off, and to it an equal quantity of neat

white port-wine, and a gallon of Canary, are to be added. The whole to be ſweetened with a proper quantity of double-refined ſugar.

USURY, is defined to be money given for the uſe of money, or the gain of any thing by contract above the principal, or that which was lent; exacted in conſideration of the loan, whether it be of money or any other thing, 3 *Inſt.* 151.

Some declare uſury to be an exaction of profit for a loan made to a perſon in want and diſtreſs; and Mr. Malynes in his Lex Mercatoria terms it a *biting*, from the etymology of the Hebrew word *neſhech* (by Mr. Humphreys in his annotations *neſech*, which he ſuppoſes a general one for uſury); but after all, it properly conſiſts in extorting an unreaſonable rate for money, beyond what is allowable by law.

The letting money out at intereſt, or upon uſury, (theſe being formerly regarded as ſynonimous terms) was againſt the common law; and in times paſt, if any one after his death was found to have been an uſurer, all his goods and chattels were forfeited to the king, &c. and according to ſeveral ancient ſtatutes, all uſury is unlawful; but now neither the common nor ſtatute law abſolutely forbid it, *Ditto* 151, 152.

On the contrary, a reaſonable (that is a lawful) intereſt may be taken for money at this day. The ſtat. 27 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 9. allowed ten *per cent.* for money lent on mortgages, &c. which was revived by 13 *Eliz. c.* 8. And 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 17. ordained eight *per cent.* The 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 13. lowered intereſt to ſix *per cent.* and 12 *Ann c.* 16. to five *per cent.* at which it has remained fixed ever ſince.

It hath been adjudged on this laſt ſtatute, that a contract for ſix *per cent.* made before the ſtatute, is not within the meaning of it; and therefore that it was ſtill lawful to receive ſuch intereſt, in reſpect of ſuch a contract: and if a man, when intereſt was at ſix *per cent.* lent money at that rate, and after the ſtatute comes and ſinks the intereſt to five *per cent.* if he continues the old intereſt on that bond, the bond ſhall not be void as uſurious, but it is ſaid the party ſhall be liable to forfeit treble value. *Hawk.* 246. 1 *Mod.* 69.

The receipt of higher intereſt than the law allows, by virtue of an agreement ſubſequent to the firſt contract, doth not avoid an aſſurance fairly made; and a bond made to ſecure a juſt debt, payable with lawful intereſt, ſhall not be avoided by a corrupt uſurious agreement between others, to which the obligee was no ways privy; nor ſhall miſtakes in drawing writings make void any fair agreement. *Ibid.*

If the original contract be not uſurious, nothing done afterwards can make it ſo; and a counter bond, to ſave one harmleſs againſt a bond made upon a corrupt agreement, will not be void by the ſtatutes; but if the original agreement be corrupt between all the parties, and ſo within the ſtatutes, no colour will exempt it from the danger of the ſtatutes againſt uſury, 1 *Brownl.* 73. 2 *And.* 428. 4 *Shep. Abr.* 170.

A fine levied, or judgment ſuffered, as a ſecurity for money, in purſuance of an uſurious contract, may be avoided by an averment of the corrupt agreement, as well as any common ſpecialty, or parole contract: and it is not material whether the payment of the principal and the uſurious intereſt be ſecured by the ſame or by different conveyances, for all writings whatſoever, for the ſtrengthening ſuch a contract, are void; alſo a contract reſerving to the lender a greater advantage than allowed, is uſurious, if the whole is allowed by way of intereſt, or in part only under that name, and in part by way of rent for a houſe let at a rent plainly exceeding the known value; ſo where part is taken before the end of the time, that the borrower hath not the profit of the whole principal money, &c. 1 *Hawk.* P C. 248. 3 *Nelſ. Abr.* 509.

By *Holt* C. J. If A owes B one hundred pounds, who demands his money, which A acquaints him he hath not ready, but is both willing and deſirous to pay it, if B can procure the loan from any other perſon; and thereupon B having preſent occaſion for his money, contracts with C that if he will lend A one hundred pounds he will give him ten pounds, on which C lends the money, with which the debt is paid to B; this is a good and lawful contract, and not uſurious, between B and C. *Carth. Rep.* 252.

It is not uſury if there be not a corrupt agreement for more than ſtatute intereſt; and the defendant ſhall not be puniſhed, unleſs he receive ſome part of the money, in affirmance of the uſurious agreement. 3 *Salk.* 390.

There can be no uſury without a loan; and the court hath diſtinguiſhed between a bargain and a loan, 1 *Lutw.* 273. *Sid.* 27.

If a man lend another one hundred pounds, for two years, to pay for the loan thirty pounds, but if he pays the principal at the year's end, he ſhall pay nothing for intereſt; this is not uſury, becauſe the party may pay it at the year's end, and ſo diſcharge himſelf, *Cro. Jac.* 509. 5 *Rep.* 69.

And it is the ſame where a perſon, by ſpecial agreement, is to pay double the ſum borrowed, &c. by way of penalty for non-payment of the principal debt; the penalty being in lieu of damages, and the borrower might repay the principal at the time agreed, and avoid the penalty, 2 *Inſt.* 89. 2 *Rol. Abr.* 801.

A man ſurrenders a copyhold eſtate to another, upon condition that if he pays eighty pounds at a certain day, then the ſurrender ſhall be void; and after it is agreed between them, that the money ſhall not be paid, but that the ſurrenderer ſhall forfeit, &c. in conſideration whereof the ſurrundree promiſes to pay to the ſurrenderer, on a certain day, ſixty pounds or ſix pounds *per annum*, from the ſaid day, *pro uſu & intereſſe* of the ſaid ſixty pounds till that ſum is paid: this ſix pounds ſhall be taken to be *intereſſe damnorum*, and not *lucri*, and but limited as a penalty for non-payment of the ſixty pounds as a *nomine pœnæ*, &c. 2 *Roll. Rep.* 469. 1 *Danv. Abr.* 44.

On a loan of one hundred pounds or other ſum of money for a year, the lender may agree to take his intereſt half-yearly or quarterly, or to receive the profits of a manor or lands, &c. and be no uſury, though ſuch profits are rendered every day, *Cro. Jac.* II.

If a grant of rent, or leaſe for twenty pounds a year of land, which is worth one hundred pounds *per annum*, be made for one hundred pounds it is not *uſurious*, if there be not an agreement that this grant or leaſe ſhall be void upon payment of the principal and arrears, &c. *Jenk, Cent*, 249.

But if two men ſpeak together, and one deſires the other to lend him one hundred pounds, and for the loan of it he will give more than legal intereſt; and to evade the ſtatute, he grants to him thirty pounds *per annum*, out of his land, for ten years; or makes a leaſe for one hundred years to him, and the leſſee regrants it, upon condition that he ſhall pay thirty pounds yearly, for the ten years; in this caſe it is uſury, though the lender never have his own one hundred pounds again, 1 *Cro.* 27. *See* 1 *Leon.* 119.

A man granted a large rent for years, for a ſmall ſum of money; the ſtatute of uſury was pleaded; and it was adjudged, that if it had been laid to be upon a loan of money, it had been *uſurious*, though it is otherwiſe if it be a contract for an annuity, 4 *Shep. Abr.* 170.

If one hath a rent-charge of thirty pounds a year, and another aſketh what he ſhall give for it, and they agree for one hundred pounds, this is a plain contract for the rent-charge, and no uſury, 3 *Nelſ.* 510.

The grant of an annuity for lives, not only exceeding the rate allowed for intereſt, but alſo the proportion for contracts of this kind, in conſideration of a certain ſum of money, is not within the ſtatutes againſt uſury; and ſo, of a grant of an annuity on condition, &c. *Cro. Jac.* 253. 2 *Lev.* 7. *See* 1 *Sid.* 182.

Where intereſt exceeds five pounds *per cent. per annum* on a bond, if poſſibly the principal and intereſt are in hazard, upon a contingency or caſualty; or if there is a hazard that one may have leſs than his principal, as when a bond is to pay money upon a return of a ſhip from ſea, &c. theſe are not uſury, 2 *Cro.* 208, 508. 1 *Cro.* 27. *Show.* 8.

Though where B lends to D three hundred pounds on bond, upon an adventure during the life of E for ſuch a time; if therefore D pays to B twenty pounds in three months, and at the end of ſix months the principal ſum, with

with a further premium at the rate of ſix-pence *per* pound a month; or if before the times mentioned E dies, then the bond to be void; this, differing from the hazard of a bottomry bond, was adjudged an *uſurious* contract, *Carthew* 67, 68. *Comberb.* 125.

One hundred pounds is lent to have one hundred and twenty pounds at the year's end, upon a caſualty; if the caſualty goes to the intereſt only, and not the principal, it is uſury: the difference in the books is, that where the principal and intereſt are both in danger of being loſt, there the contract for extraordinary intereſt is not *uſurious*; but when the principal is well ſecured, it is otherwiſe, 3 *Salk.* 391.

A perſon ſecures the intereſt and principal: if it be at the will of the party who is to pay, it is no uſury, 2 *Cro.* 509.

And a lender accepting a voluntary gratuity from the borrower, on payment of principal and intereſt, or receiving the intereſt before due, &c. without any corrupt agreement, ſhall not be within the ſtatutes againſt uſury, 2 *Cro.* 677. 3 *Cro.* 501.

Alſo if one gives an *uſurious* bond, and tenders the whole money, yet if the party will take only legal intereſt, he ſhall not forfeit the treble value by ſtatute, 4 *Leon.* 43.

On an information upon the ſtatute of uſury, he who borrows the money may be a witneſs after he hath paid the money, *Raym.* 191.

In action for uſury, the ſtatute againſt uſury muſt be pleaded, and a corrupt agreement ſet forth: it is not ſufficient to plead the ſtatute, and ſay that for the lending of twenty pounds, the defendant took more than five pounds *per cent.* without ſetting forth a corrupt agreement or contract, *Lutw.* 466. 2 *Lill.* 672. 3 *Nelſ.* 514.

And in pleading an *uſurious* contract by way of bar to an action, the whole matter is to be ſet forth ſpecially, becauſe it lay within the party's own privity; but in an information on the ſtatute, for making ſuch a contract, it is enough to mention the corrupt bargain generally, by reaſon matters of this kind are ſuppoſed to be privily tranſacted; and ſuch information may be brought by a ſtranger, 1 *Hawk.* 248.

In caſe of uſury, &c. an obliger is admitted to aver againſt the condition of a bond, or againſt the bond itſelf for neceſſity's ſake, *Paſch.* 6. *W. and M.* B. R.

The word corruptive is neceſſary in a declaration for uſury, &c.

Uſury has been decried in all ages, both by Jews and Chriſtians; the former were by their laws prohibited to take it of their brethren, though Moſes (as Sir Joſiah Child ſuppoſes) for a political reaſon, permitted them to receive it from ſtrangers, as a ſure means of enriching the Hebrews; and though any ſhare of intereſt or uſury was ill thought of by the fathers and others in the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, it has for ſome time paſt been eſteemed rather an advantage than a detriment to a trading people, and conſequently been encouraged (though with proper limitations) by the legiſlature; a lawful intereſt has therefore now loſt the name of uſury, which is only continued to thoſe illegal exactions that are the ruin of many, when extortioners find means to evade the wholeſome laws ſubſiſting againſt them, and prey upon the neceſſities of their poor neighbours: theſe may juſtly be ſaid greedily to drink up the widows and orphans tears; and we have too many of ſuch miſcreants among us, who being loſt to all ſenſe, not only of religion, but even of humanity, improve the opportunity of others preſſing neceſſities to their own advantage, and grow rich and opulent upon the ſpoils and deſtruction of their fellow creatures.

# W.



W A letter peculiar to the northern languages and people.

WADD, *or* WADDING, in gunnery, a ſtopple of paper, hay, ſtraw, but at ſea, ſpun-yarn, or rope-yarn, made from old junk, forced into a gun upon the powder, to keep it cloſe in the chamber; and, where a cannon is loaded with ball, there is one put in to keep it from rolling out.

WAGER *of law*, is a particular mode of proceeding, whereby in an action of debt brought upon a ſimple contract between the parties, without deed or record, the defendant may diſcharge himſelf by ſwearing in court in the preſence of compurgators, that he oweth the plaintiff nothing in manner and form as he hath declared. And this waging his law, is ſometimes called making his law, 5 *Bac. Abr.* 428.

The reaſon, wherefore, in an action of debt upon a ſimple contract the defendant may wage his law, is, for the defendant may ſatisfy the party in ſecret, or before witneſſes, and all the witneſſes may die, ſo the law doth allow him to wage his law for his diſcharge; and this is peculiar to the law of England, and no miſchief iſſueth hereupon; for the plaintiff may take a bill or bond for his money; or if it be a ſimple contract, he may bring his action upon his caſe upon his agreement or promiſe, which every contract executory implieth, and then the defendant cannot wage his law, 2 *Inſt.* 45.

It hath been ſaid, however, that the only true reaſon of wager of law, is the inconſiderableneſs of the ground of the plaintiff's demand, and it ſufficeth that the nature of the defendant's diſcharge be of equal validity with the grounds of the plaintiff's charge, *per Hatſel Juſtice.* 12 *Mod.* 670. *The city of London v. Wood.*

Originally it was not only a priviledge of the defendant to charge himſelf, but one which the plaintiff had when he had no witneſs of his debt, to put the defendant under a neceſſity of giving him his oath to diſcharge himſelf; ſo it was a kind of equity in law, that the plaintiff might put him to take his oath that he owed nothing to him, or confeſs the debt, rather than the plaintiff ſhould loſe his

debt, in cases where he had no witnesses of it at all, or had some who were then dead, *per Holt, chief Justice.* 12 *Mod.* 678. *The city of London* v. *Wood.*

The plaintiff's bare affirmance was formerly sufficient to put the defendant to wage his law; but it is provided by *magna charta*, that no bailiff shall put any man to his law, nor to an oath, without bare saying, without witnesses brought in. Before this, as has been premised, the plaintiff on his declaration upon bare affirmance, might make the defendant swear there was nothing due. At this day, if the plaintiff produce witnes to prove his demand, the court may put the defendant to wage his law; and in such case the defendant is not at liberty to cross examine, no more than where the plaintiff in a prohibition produces witnes to prove his suggestion, 2 *Salk.* 683. *Mood* v. *the mayor of London.*

The manner of waging of law is thus: he that is to do it, must bring six compurgators with him into court, and stand at the end of the bar towards the right hand of the chief justice; and the secondary asks him, whether he will wage his law? If he answers that he will, he lays his right hand on the book, then the judges admonish him and his compurgators to be advised, and tell them the danger of taking a false oath; and if they still persist, the secondary says, and he that wageth his law repeats after him: Hear this ye justices, that I A B do not owe to C D the sum, &c. nor any penny thereof in manner and form as the said C D hath declared against me: so help me God. The compurgators then severally make oath, that they believe he swears truly. But before the defendant takes the oath the plaintiff is called by the cryer thrice; and if he does not appear, he becomes nonsuited, and then the defendant goes quit without taking his oath; and if he appear, and the defendant swears that he owes the plaintiff nothing, and the compurgators do give it upon oath that they believe he swears true, the plaintiff is barred for ever; for when a person has waged his law, it is as much as if a verdict had passed against the plaintiff. If the plaintiff do not appear to hear the defendant perform his law, so that he is in nonsuit, he is not barred, but may bring a new action, 2 *Lil. Abr.* 824. Day given for waging the law is peremptory. Per three justices against one. 3 *Bulst.* 316.

Where the defendant wages his law instanter, that is, the same term without day giveth over, the plaintiff need not be called; consequently cannot be nonsuited. Thus,

In debt by assignees of commissioners of bankrupts. Defendant came in and waged his law instanter, and it was debated if the plaintiff might be nonsuited; and at length it was agreed, inasmuch as the defendant came instanter, that the plaintiff cannot be nonsuited; for which reason the plaintiff was not called, but the defendant waged his law; and so the plaintiff was barred. *Sid.* 366. *Buckeridge* v. *Brown.*

But in debt, where the defendant tendered to make law immediately that he owed nothing, &c. because the plaintiff appeared in court, it was awarded that the defendant should make his law; and this was the folly of the plaintiff; for he might have imparled to the law, and then at the day he might have been nonsuited; but Brooke makes a *quære*, if he may be nonsuited at another day in the same term. *Br. Ley gager, pl.* 85, *cites* 3 *H.* IV. *c.* 2. *Brooke tit. Nonsuit. pl. IV. S. C.*

Wager of law shall not be required without witnesses. *M. C.* 9 *H.* III. *c.* 28.

For the plaintiff *se nihil recepisse*, &c. *ft. Wall.* 12.

Shall be admitted in London, notwithstanding the plaintiff's papers, 38 *Ed.* III. *c.* 5.

Granted in trespass committed by compulsion in an insurrection, 6 *Rich.* II. *ft.* 2. *c.* 5.

Where the plaintiff suggests an account taken, the justices may take him or his attorney, and admit the defendant to his law, 5 *H.* IV. *c.* 8.

Trials in Wales to be by wager of law, or verdict of six men, 34 and 35 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. *f.* 74. *See* 5 *Bac. Abr. tit. wager of law*, and 15 *Vin. Abr.* p. 58.

WAGES, is what is agreed upon by a master to be paid to a servant, or any other person which he hires to do business for him. The wages of servants, labourers, &c. is to be assessed by justices, 5 *Eliz. c.* 4. 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 6. And justices of peace may order payment of wages for husbandry, &c. but not in other cases. The statute of labourers extends to covenant servants in husbandry; though an order of justices was quashed in B. R. because made upon the servant's oath, without other evidence. *Raym.* 1305. Wages of seamen, *see stat.* 4 and 5 *Ann.* 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. For the better adjusting and more easy recovery of the wages of certain servants, *see stat.* 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 7. *See* LABOURERS, MANUFACTURERS.

WALES, is part of England, on the west-side, formerly divided into three provinces, North-Wales, South-Wales, and West-Wales, and inhabited by the offspring of the ancient Britons, chased thither by the Saxons, called in to assist them against the Picts and Scots. England and Wales were originally but one nation, and so they continued till the time of the Roman conquest: but when the Romans came, those Britons, who would not submit to their yoke, betook themselves to the mountains of Wales, from whence they came again soon after the Romans were drove away by their dissensions here: after this came the Saxons, and gave them another disturbance, and then the kingdom was divided into an heptarchy; and then also began the Welsh to be distinguished from the English; yet it is observable, that though Wales had princes of their own, the king of England had superiority over them, for to him they paid homage.

The laws and liberties of England granted to the people of Wales, 27 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. 34 and 35 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. *f.* 91.

The lordships and marches divided into counties, 27 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. *f.* 3, &c. 28 *H.* VIII. *c.* 3. 33 *H.* VIII. *c.* 13.

The county of Monmouth severed from Wales, 27 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. *f.* 4.

A president and council established in Wales like those in the north, 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 50. 34 and 35 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. *f.* 4. Taken away, 1 *W.* and *M. c.* 27. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 16.

The counties of Wales ascertained, 34 and 35 *H.* VIII. *c.* 26. 21 *Jac.* I. *c.* 10.

Judgment signed in the courts of great sessions to be docketed, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 25. *f.* 6.

And to be good against purchasers only from the time they are signed, *ibid.*

In personal actions under ten pounds in the courts of great sessions, the defendant to be served with the copy of the writ, and if he does not appear, the plaintiff may enter his appearance, 6 *Geo.* II. *c.* 14.

Wales and Berwick included in England in acts of parliament, 20 *Geo.* II. *c.* 42. *f.* 3. The reader may see an account of the several counties of Wales in their alphabetical order.

WAPPING. An act was made for the partition of Wapping marsh, *ft.* 25 *H.* VIII. *c.* 9. And persons sheltering themselves from debts, and obstructing the execution of writs in Wapping, Stepney, &c. to be guilty of felony, by 11 *Geo.* I. *c.* 22.

WAR, the proclaiming of war, or settling of peace, is one of the prince's prerogatives, though both the one and the other are frequently approved, and confirmed by act of parliament; and a general war is either solemnly denounced, or not; the former is, when war is publickly declared by our king against another state, (as that in 1671 against the Dutch) and an unsolemn one is, when two nations slip into a war without any proclamation of it, as was the case of the Spanish invasion, where a real, though not a solemn war, arose thereby; and a late breach with that monarch, was commenced and carried on without any formal denunciation, till their example made it necessary to proclaim to the people the enmity broke out, and in consequence thereof, to put into their hands weapons to defend themselves, we mean letters of marque, which were not granted previous to a public declaration of the rupture.

War and peace are always proclaimed by a herald at arms, accompanied by proper notaries with some of the guards, and when they enter London, they are joined by some of the city officers: the proclamation is read by the notaries to the herald, who repeats it, (all being bare-

headed) and is firſt begun at St. James's, then at Charing-Croſs, Temple-Bar, Cheapſide, and laſt at the Royal-Exchange.

When war is proclaimed, it is cuſtomary to prohibit (though not always) a commerce with the enemy, by interdicting the entrance of any of the commodities of his country into ours, as was done in the late war.

WARDEN, or *Lord warden of the Cinque-ports*, is the governor of thoſe noted havens; who has the authority of an admiral, and ſends out writs in his own name.

WARDEN of the *Mint*, is an officer whoſe buſineſs it is to receive the gold and ſilver bullion brought in by the merchants, to pay them for it, and overſee the other officers. He is alſo called keeper of the Exchange and Mint.

WARDHUUS, *or* WARDHUYS, is the northernmoſt fort in Norway, where the king of Denmark keeps a ſmall garriſon: it lies in 70 deg. 45 min. latitude, and its longitude from the meridian of London is 27 deg. 50 min. Near it the river Tanne takes its riſe, and runs through Lapland: from the different ports of which, and Finland, ten or twelve ſhips of about two hundred ton load yearly, with fiſh for Copenhagen, and from the latter many to Bergen and Drontheim.

WARES. Certain wares not to be brought into this realm from abroad, to be ſold or exchanged here, on pain of forfeiture. *See ſtat.* 5 *Eliz. c.* 7.

WAREHOUSE-MEN. Under this denomination are comprehended ſeveral branches of tradeſmen, who have a particular ſpecies of goods brought from the county or counties where they are made, and depoſited in warehouſes, whence they ſell them either by wholeſale to foreign merchants, or to the retail traders of this metropolis. The principal of theſe are the dealers in Manchester goods, the dealers in blankets, rugs, &c. They are diſtinguiſhed by the name of the place where the goods are manufactured, or by that of their commodities. The Manchester warehouſe-man takes from one to three or four hundred pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have from twenty to fifty pounds a year and his board; or, if he has one thouſand pounds, may ſet up maſter.

WARP, in the manufactures, is the threads, whether of ſilk, wool, linen, hemp, &c. that are extended lengthwiſe on the weaver's loom; and acroſs which, the workman, by means of his ſhuttle, paſſes the threads of the woof, to form a cloth, ribband, fuſtian, or other matter.

For a woollen ſtuff to have the neceſſary qualities, it is required that the threads of the warp be of the ſame kind of wool, and of the ſame fineneſs throughout; that they be ſized with Flanders or parchment ſize, well prepared, and that they be in ſufficient number with regard to the breadth of the ſtuff to be wrought.

WARREN, *warrena*, a franchiſe, or place privileged either by preſcription or grant from the king, to keep beaſts and fowl of warren in; as rabbits, hares, partridges, pheaſants, &c.

By a ſtatute 21 *Edw.* III. a warren may lie open, and there is no need of cloſing it in, as there is a park.

WARWICKSHIRE feeds large flocks of ſheep, like thoſe of Lancaſhire, though the greateſt part of their wool is ſold, and only ſo much retained as to manufacture ſome woven ſtockings, and at Coventry tammys (or Coventry ware) and plaiding; hats of felt, caſtor, and beaver, are alſo made here. Birmingham is famous for its curious works in iron and ſteel, ſupplied by the mines of this county, which alſo produces coals, corn, and cheeſe in plenty; of this latter (joined to what comes from Leiceſterſhire) above five hundred tons are ſent yearly by land to London, and ſome ſmall quantities from hence by barges to Oxford and Abingdon; beſides which theſe two counties produce at leaſt a thouſand tons, which is diſpoſed of in the manner mentioned under Leiceſterſhire.

WASHING, in painting, is when a deſign, drawn with a pen or crayon, has ſome one colour laid over it with a pencil, as Indian-ink, biſtre, or the like, to make it appear the more natural, by adding the ſhadow of prominencies, apertures, &c. and by imitating the particular matters, whereof the thing is ſuppoſed to conſiſt.

Thus they waſh with a pale red to imitate brick and tile; with a pale Indian blue, to imitate water and ſlate; with green, for trees and meadows; with ſaffron or French berries, for gold or braſs; and with ſeveral colours for marbles. Theſe waſhes are uſually given in equal teints or degrees throughout; which are afterwards brought down and ſoftened over the lights with fair water, and ſtrengthened with deeper colours for the ſhadows.

WASHING *of colours*. Some colours are of ſuch a gritty, ſandy nature, that it is impoſſible to grind them ſo fine as ſome curious works require; therefore, in order to get forth the flour and fineneſs of the colour, you muſt do thus:

Take what quantity of colour you pleaſe to waſh, and put it into a veſſel of fair water: ſtir it about till the water be all coloured therewith, and, if any filth ſwim on the top of the water, ſcum it off, and, when you think the groſſeſt of the colour is ſettled at the bottom, then pour off that water into another earthen veſſel, that is large enough to contain the firſt veſſel full of water four or five times; then pour more water into the firſt veſſel, and ſtir the colour that remains till the water be thick; and, after it is a little ſettled, pour the water alſo into the ſecond veſſel, and fill the firſt veſſel again with water, ſtirring it as before; do this ſo often, as till you find all the fineſt of the colour drawn forth, and that none but coarſe gritty ſtuff remains in the bottom; then let this water in the ſecond veſſel ſtand to ſettle till it is perfectly clear, and that all the colour be ſunk to the bottom; which when you perceive, then pour the water clear from it, and reſerve the colour in the bottom for uſe, which muſt be perfectly dried before you mix it with oil to work. The colour thus ordered, are red lead, blue and green bice, verditer, blue and green ſmalt, and many times Spaniſh brown, when you would cleanſe it well from ſtones for ſome fine work, as alſo yellow oker, when you intend to make gold ſize of it.

WASHING, *or* WASHES, among goldſmiths, coiners, &c. are the lotions whereby they recover the particles of gold and ſilver out of the ſweep, *i. e.* aſhes, earths, ſweepings, &c.

This is performed by ſimply waſhing them again and again, or by putting them in the waſhing-mill.

To make one of theſe waſhes, they not only gather together the aſhes of the furnaces and ſweepings of the workhouſes, but they alſo break and pound the old earthen crucibles, and the very bricks whereof the furnaces are built; little particles of gold, &c. being found to ſtick to them by the crackling natural to theſe metals, when in their laſt degree of heat.

Theſe matters, being ground and mixed together, are put in large wooden baſons, where they are waſhed in ſeveral waters which run off by inclination into troughs underneath; carrying with them the earth, and the inſenſible particles of the metals, and only leaving behind them the larger and more conſiderable ones which are viſible to the eye, and taken out by the hand without more trouble.

To get out the finer parts gone off with the earth, they uſe quick-ſilver and a waſhing mill. This mill conſiſts of a large wooden trough, at bottom of which are two metalline parts, ſerving as mill-ſtones; the lower being convex, and the upper, which is in form of a croſs concave.

A-top is a winch placed horizontally, which turns the upper piece round; and at bottom, a bung to let out the water and earth, when ſufficiently ground.

To have a waſh, then the trough is filled with common water, into which they caſt thirty or forty pounds of quick-ſilver, and two or three gallons of the matter remaining from the firſt lotion. Then turning the winch, they give motion to the upper mill ſtone, which grinding the matter and the quick ſilver violently together, the particles of gold and ſilver become the more eaſily amalgamated therewith. This work they continue for two hours, when, opening the bung, the water and earth runs out, and a freſh quantity is put in.

The earths are eaſily paſſed thus through the mill three times, and the ſame quantity of mercury uſually ſerves all the three times. When there is nothing left in the mill but the mercury united with the gold or ſilver which it has amalgamated, they take it out, and waſhing it in divers waters, they put it in a ticking bag, and lay it in a preſs to

ſqueeſe

fqueeze out the water, and the looſe quick-ſilver; the remaining quick-ſilver they evaporate by fire, in a retort, or an alembic. The metal which remains, they refine with lead, or part it with aqua-fortis.

WATCH, at ſea, ſignifies a meaſure or ſpace of four hours, becauſe half the ſhip's company watch, and do duty in their turns, ſo long at a time; and they are termed ſtarboard dwatch, and lar-board watch.

WATCH, is alſo uſed for a ſmall portable movement or machine for the meaſuring of time; having its motion regulated by a ſpiral ſpring. For the laws and regulations relating to the making of clocks and watches, *ſee* CLOCK.

WATCHETT. The duties by the private act, 6 *Anne*, for repairing the harbour and key of Watchett, in the county of Somerſet, granted for twenty-one years, from the twenty-fifth of March, 1708, ſhall, after the expiration of the ſaid term, be paid for the farther term of twenty-one years, 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 1.

Nothing herein ſhall diſcontinue the payment of the duties by the ſaid act, 6 *Anne*, made payable for the conſtant reparation of the key or harbour, after the expiration of the twenty-one years, 7 *Geo.* I. *c.* 14. *ſ.* 2.

WATER, in which are included navigable rivers and ſtreams; for the ſtatutes relating thereto, *ſee* RIVERS.

WATER-BAILIFF, an officer in port-towns, for ſearching of ſhips. Alſo, in London, there is a water-bailiff who hath the ſuperviſing and ſearching of fiſh brought thither; and the gathering of the toll ariſing from the Thames, and he attends on the lord mayor, having the principal care of marſhalling the gueſts at his table, and arreſts men for debt, or other perſonal or criminal matters upon the river Thames, 28 *H.* VI. *c.* 5.

WATERFORD is a moſt delightful county, in Ireland, whether conſidered in regard to riches or pleaſure; and Waterford, the chief city (and the third for bigneſs in the iſland) is very wealthy, populous, and well ſituated for trade, in which it is very conſiderably engaged; and its exports are as large in leather, butter, &c. as moſt in the kingdom: it ſtands at a good diſtance from the ſea, yet ſhips of a large burthen may come up to, and ſafely lie at the key, of which it had of its own, in 1723, one hundred and ſeventy-ſix, with ſeven thouſand five hundred and fifty-four tons.

WATER-GAGE, a ſea wall or bank, to reſtrain the current and overflowing of the water: and it ſignifies an inſtrument to gage or meaſure the quantity or deepneſs of any waters.

WATER-MEASURE, is greater than Wincheſter meaſure, and uſed for ſelling of coals in the pool, &c. mentioned in *ſtat.* 22, *Car.* II.

WATERMAN. The boy deſigned for this buſineſs ſhould have great ſtrength, and a robuſt conſtitution. The watermen ply in ſmall boats on the Thames.

It is a laborious buſineſs; and they take about five pounds with an apprentice, who ought to be at leaſt fourteen before he is bound. If when out of his time, he can purchaſe a boat, which will coſt about fifteen pounds, he may earn from a guinea to thirty ſhillings a week.

The fares of London watermen limited, 6 *H.* VIII. *c.* 7.

Regulations of the watermen upon the Thames, 2 *Ph.* and *Ma. c.* 16.

Penalty on watermen abſconding in the preſs by commiſſion for the king's ſea-ſervice, 2 and 3 *Ph.* and *Ma. c.* 16.

Mariners licenſed by the Trinity-houſe may ply as watermen upon the Thames, 8 *El. c.* 13. *ſ.* 5.

What apprentices watermen may take, 1 *Jac.* I. *c.* 16. 4 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 1. 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 15.

Rules for ſtationing ferries on Sundays, 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 13.

Court of aldermen may amend the by-laws of the watermen's company, 4 *Ann. c.* 13. *ſ.* 2.

Watermen ſummoned by the rulers of the company to ſerve on board the fleet, and not appearing, to be diſabled, &c. 4 *Ann. c.* 19. *ſ.* 18.

Watermen not to take apprentices, without regiſtering their habitations, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 5.

Owners of keys may uſe their craft, 2 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26 *ſ.* 8.

Kingſton ferry-boats, &c. exempted from the rules of the watermen's company, 4 *Geo.* II. *c.* 24.

Not to take apprentices under fourteen years of age, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31.

Number of paſſengers limited, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 8.

If they exceed the number, and any paſſenger be drowned, felony, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 8.

A tide-bell to be rung at Graveſend and Billingſgate, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 31. *ſ.* 12.

WAX, *or* BEES-WAX, is one of the products of the bee-hive, which, though it is, as well as the honey, of a vegetable origin, yet, as we have no way of procuring it but by means of the bees that have ſtored it up for us, is to be reckoned in the ſame manner as the honey among the number of drugs which we receive from the animal kingdom.

Wax is a firm and ſolid ſubſtance, moderately hard, and of a fine yellow colour; it melts with a gentle heat, and is inflammable; it is ſoluble in oil, but not in aqueous or ſpirituous menſtruums; it is almoſt inſipid to the taſte, but of a fragrant and agreeable ſmell; and, in its original ſtate, is the matter which compoſes the honey-comb; it is prepared in the cakes we ſee it in, merely by melting, and ſtraining through a cloth, which ſeparates the droſs and foulneſs, and lets the clear wax through. It may be further purified by melting again, and ſcumming it while in fuſion, and repeating the ſtraining; by this means it will become of good conſiſtence, and high colour: it is to be choſen of a ſtrong yellow colour, and fragrant ſmell; and ſuch as breaks tolerably eaſy, and on chewing in the mouth, does not ſtick to the teeth.

The chemical preparations of wax are very little regarded in its own form: however, it is of very great uſe both in medicine, and in many of the arts and manufactures. It is ſometimes given internally, as in dyſenteries, and other eroſions of the inteſtines; but its great uſe is in making ointments and plaiſters for external uſes; the greater part of thoſe of the ſhops owe their conſiſtence to it.

Wax is, indeed, excellently fitted for theſe purpoſes, being a kind of fatty reſin and turpentine, and qualified to anſwer all the uſes of a mixed body of that nature. It is, indeed, ſo evidently a vegetable production in its original, that it is not only found almoſt pure in the farina of plants, but it is, ſometimes, exfudated from their very leaves. There is ſcarce any known plant, the ſtamina of which ſeems ſo much to abound with wax, as thoſe of roſemary; and theſe are not the only parts that contain it. Whoſoever will handle the leaves of roſemary, will find a viſcid matter in conſiderable quantity; and this will, on continuing to handle them, be collected on the fingers in ſuch quantity, as to be rolled off in little lumps, which, when examined, are real wax, at leaſt as pure as that in the farina of any plant in the world.

Spirit of wine, digeſted, on freſh roſemary leaves, will alſo draw a ſort of tincture from this waxy matter on their ſurface, and this, when evaporated, will yield the ſame ſmell of wax as the tincture of the farina does, and will leave the ſame kind of ſoluble wax in the cake at leaſt.

However ſingular the total volatility of wax may appear to thoſe not uſed to chemical experiments, there is this to be obſerved in regard to it, that it ſhews the truth of the aſſertion, that it approaches the nature of turpentine; for turpentine, with a fire properly managed, will in the ſame manner all riſe over into the receiver: both theſe ſubſtances agree, alſo, with camphire, in this reſpect: though the diſparity between camphire and them, in regard to the degree of volatility, or the degree of fire neceſſary to raiſe them, is immenſe. They all have their ſeparate qualities alſo; after having thus been raiſed by fire, camphire becomes camphire again, and not a liquid oil; the very liquid oil of turpentine kept a conſiderable time loſes its fluidity, and becomes as thick as the turpentine it was made from; whereas the butter of wax remains unaltered for ever ſo great a number of years, never becoming thicker than at firſt. It is alſo ſingular, that the repeated diſtillations of it, though they render it more thin and fluid, and greatly more penetrating, yet it becomes all the time more and more mild and gentle, leſs, not more acrimonious, as might be expected.

From the common yellow wax, by the mere effect of ſun and air, or by what is called bleaching, is formed what we term white wax, and ſome, very improperly, virgin wax. As the greater the ſurface in proportion to the quantity

quantity is, the ſooner and more perfectly this operation is performed; the uſual way is to melt the wax in hot water; when melted, they preſs it through a ſtrainer of tolerably fine linen, and pour it into round and very ſhallow moulds. When hardened by cooling, it is taken out, and expoſed to the ſun and air, ſprinkling it now and then with water, and often turning it; by this means it becomes white wax. This ſhould be choſen dry, hard, and brittle, of a good ſmell, and not too ſoft in the mouth. It is an ingredient in ſome of the cerates and ointments of the ſhops, and is uſed in many of the nicer arts and manufactures where wax is required.

The ſoft red and green wax have alſo this for their baſis. They make it by melting wax over a gentle heat, with ſuch a proportion of Venice turpentine, as, when cold, will give it a due conſiſtence. This they determine by repeated trials, firſt putting in but a little turpentine, and afterwards more and more, till, dropping a piece upon a marble to cool, they find it of a due conſiſtence; they then colour it with vermillion, or red lead, or with verditer, or what other colours they pleaſe, the mixture, in this ſtate, receiving any. This is the wax uſed in large ſeals to ſome of our law writings. The thicker and thinner oil of wax, or, as they are uſually called, the butter of wax, and the rectified oil of wax, deſerve to be more regarded than they are at preſent. The butter is an extremely ſoft and anodyne unguent, highly emollient and relaxing, agreeable to the nerves, and when rubbed on contracted limbs, proves of great benefit. It is an excellent liniment for the piles, and takes off the pain attending them in a very ſudden and ſurpriſing manner. It alſo keeps the ſkin ſoft and ſupple, and is one of the beſt things known to keep it from cracking or chopping in the winter.

The rectified butter, as it is called, or the thin oil of wax, poſſeſſes the ſame ſort of qualities, and many of them in a much higher degree. It is good in a liniment in nervous caſes. It cures chopped nipples in women who give ſuck, beyond any other application, and is as ſucceſsful againſt chopped lips, and cracking of the ſkin on the hands, only rubbing them once in three or four days with it. It is of great uſe in diſcuſſing cold tumors ariſing on the face, and thoſe on the fingers in winter, and in curing contracted tendons, and the rigidity of the limbs ariſing hence. It has, indeed, a very ſingular virtue in reſtoring flexibility to the parts, and if the uſe of it be aſſiſted with bathing in warm water, or by fomentation and motion, it is ſcarce to to be credited what effects it will produce in caſes where little ſeems to be expected. Frequently rubbed on the abdomen, it prevents coſtiveneſs, and uſed in the ſame manner, is excellent in many of the diſeaſes of children.

*Sealing* WAX, a compoſition uſed in ſealing letters. &c. Fine ſealing wax is made in the following manner:

Take half a pound of ſhell-lac, an ounce of vermilion, and a drachm of gum-benjamin; melt, and mix them well over the fire, and when of a proper coolneſs, make it up into rolls or cakes.

*Green Sealing* WAX, is made after the ſame manner, and in the ſame proportions, by mixing with the ingredients verdigreaſe inſtead of vermillion.

*Blue Sealing* WAX, is alſo made after the ſame manner, by putting in fine blue ſmalt or ultramarine.

*Purple Sealing* WAX is ſo made, by putting in vermilion mixed with ivory-black, or lamp-black.

*Black Sealing* WAX, is made with ivory-black, inſtead of vermilion.

WAX-WORK. Here we muſt not forget that pretty invention of Mr. Beuvilt, a man famous at Paris for his figures of wax. Being by profeſſion a painter, he found the ſecret of forming moulds on the faces of living perſons, even the faireſt and moſt delicate, without any danger either to their health or complexion: in which moulds he caſt maſks of wax; to which, by his colours and glaſs eyes, imitated from nature, he gave a ſort of life; inſomuch that, when clothed in proper habits, they bore ſuch a reſemblance, that it was difficult to diſtinguiſh between the copy and original.

*Grafting* WAX, is a compoſition ſerving to bind or fix the bud, or graft in the cleft of the ſtock.

Inſtead of grafting wax, the country gardeners only uſe clay, which they lay over a piece of linen cloth, and ſo keep it moiſt, and to prevent its cracking with the heat of the ſun, tie moſs over it. But the wax ordinarily uſed is a compoſt of one pound and a half of pitch, a quarter of a pound of wax, and an ounce of oil of almonds melted and mixed together, with the addition, in ſpring and autumn, of a moderate quantity of turpentine.

For cleft-grafting, whip-grafting, and grafting by approach, Mr. Mortimer recommends tempered clay, or ſoft wax; but for rind-graſting, clay or horſe-dung.

WAX-CHANDLER. This is one of thoſe buſineſſes that require no particular genius or education. Wax-candles are neither caſt in moulds nor dipped, but rolled and drawn. The wax-chandler alſo makes flambeaus, ſealing-wax, wafers, &c. His trade is very profitable. He takes from ten to fifteen pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may get from twelve to fifteen ſhillings a week; or, with one hundred pounds, may ſet up for himſelf: but, if he gives much credit, he will want five times that ſum.

The price of their wares limited, 11 *H.* VI. *c.* 12. Wax ſhall be truly wrought and marked, and penalty of mixing roſin with tar, 23 *Eliz. c.* 8. Penalty of five pounds or pillory on counterfeit marks, 23 *El. c.* 8. *f.* 6. Wax imported to what duty liable, 4 *W.* and *M. c.* 5. *f.* 2.

WAY *of a* SHIP, is ſometimes uſed for the ſame with the rake or run of her; but the term is more commonly underſtood in reſpect of her ſailing. When ſhe ſails ſwiftly, they ſay ſhe has good way; and the account they keep of her ſailing by the log, they call keeping an account of her way.

WEAR, (*wera*) a great dam a-croſs a river, accommodated for the taking of fiſh, or to convey a ſtream to a mill. *Cowell, edit.* 1727.

Wears ſhall be put down, *M. C.* 9 *H.* III. *c.* 23. 25 *Ed.* III. *ſt.* 4. *c.* 4. 45 *Ed.* III. *c.* 2. 21 *R.* II. *c.* 19. 1 *H.* IV. *c.* 12. 1 *H.* V. *c.* 2.

Commiſſions ſhall be awarded to keep the waters and great rivers, and to correct defaults, 1 *H.* IV. *c.* 12. 4 *H.* IV. *c.* 11.

To put down wears in the Thames out of the liberties of London, 2 *H.* VI. *c.* 9. in Southampton harbour, 11 *H.* VII. *c.* 5. 14 and 15 *H.* VIII. *c.* 13.

The penalty of not reforming wears, 12 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 7.

Shall not be erected along the coaſt or near a harbour, 3 *Jac.* I. *c.* 12.

The new wear on the Exe near Exeter ſhall be continued, 7 *Jac.* I. *c.* 19.

Regulations of wears upon the Thames, 6 and 7 *W.* III. *c.* 16.

Owners of ancient wears may repair them, 1 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *f.* 18.

WEATHER-GLASSES, are inſtruments contrived to indicate the ſtate or diſpoſition of the atmoſphere, as to heat, cold, gravity, moiſture, &c. to meaſure the changes befalling in thoſe reſpects; and to predict the alteration of weather, as rains, winds, ſnow, &c.

Under the claſs of weather-glaſſes, are comprehended barometers, thermometers, hygrometers, manometers, and anemometers, of each whereof there are divers kinds.

WEATHER-GAGE, *at* SEA. A ſhip is ſaid to have the weather-gage of another, when ſhe is to the windward of her.

WEATHERING, a doubling or ſailing by a point or pleace.

WEAVERS. This is an extenſive buſineſs, divided into many ſeparate branches, which altogether form the principal articles of trade and the ſtaple commodities of theſe kingdoms. Some of theſe are carried on in Scotland and Ireland, and others in the different counties in England. The ſilk manufacture is almoſt the only branch carried on in London; and this is divided into almoſt as many branches as there are different kinds of ſilk. Indeed the Spittlefields weavers, who are employed in the ſilk manufacture, are a numerous body. The plain ſilk weaver requires but little ingenuity; but the weavers of plain velvets, and more particularly thoſe that are figured, together with the weavers of flowered ſilks, damaſks, and brocades, are very ingenious artiſts, and ought to learn drawing, to enable them to deſign their own patterns. Indeed our pattern drawers in this branch of buſineſs, have

have arrived to a great degree of perfection, and now much exceed the French in the beauty of their deſigns and the elegance of the execution; ſo that nothing, but a very criminal partiality in favour of the French, can induce our nobility and gentry to furniſh themſelves with theſe articles of commerce from our neighbours. *See the articles* LIVERY-LACE-WEAVER, RIBBON-WEAVER, SILK-WEAVER, &c.

Regulations of the trade of woollen-weavers, 2 and 3 *P.* and *M. c.* 11. Repeal of a clauſe prohibiting weavers out of corporate towns to take apprentices, 5 *W.* and *M. c.* 9. *See* WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE.

WEB, a ſort of tiſſue or texture formed of threads interwoven with each other, ſome whereof are extended in length, and called the warp, and others drawn acroſs them, called the woof.

WEIGH, WAY, *or* WEY, *Waga*, a weight of cheeſe, wool, &c. containing two hundred and fifty-ſix pounds avoirdupoiſe. Of corn, the weigh contains forty buſhels; of barley or malt, ſix quarters. In ſome places, as Eſſex, the weigh of cheeſe is three hundred pounds.

WEIGHER, an officer in divers cities appointed to weigh the commodities bought or ſold in a public balance.

WEIGHING, the act of examining a body in the balance to find its weight.

WEIGHING anchor, is the drawing it out of the ground it had been caſt into, in order to ſet ſail, or quit a port, road, or the like.

WEIGHTS. The weights in common uſe throughout Great-Britain, are troy and avoirdupois; the former conſiſting of grains, pennyweights, ounces, and pounds, whereof twenty-four grains make a pennyweight, twenty pennyweights an ounce, and twelve ounces a pound, by which bread (in corporation towns only) gold, ſilver, and apothecaries medicines are weighed; and to this weight corn meaſures are reduceable, as eight pounds troy make a gallon, ſixteen pounds a peck, and conſequently ſixty-four pounds a buſhel; liquid meaſures are alſo dependent on it, as their concavities correſpond in their different ſizes thereto, from a pint, conſiſting of twelve ounces (or a pound) up to a tun, containing 252 gallons, and weighing two thouſand and ſixteen pounds, or one thouſand eight hundred and ninety pounds avoirdupois; two pints make a quart, four quarts a gallon (containing two hundred and thirty-one cubical inches) ſixty-three gallons a hogſhead, forty-two a tierce, 126 a pipe, and 252 a tun of brandy, cyder, wine, &c.

Refiners and jewellers alſo make uſe of this weight in part; the former calling their ſmalleſt fractions blanks, of which twenty-four make a perit, twenty perits a droite, twenty droites a mite, twenty mites a grain, and then as above. The jewellers divide the ounce into one hundred and fifty-two parts, or carats, and theſe into grains, whereof four make a carat.

By avoirdupoiſe weight, all groſs goods and baſe metals are weighed, ſuch as grocery, roſin, pitch, tallow, ſoap, butter, cheeſe, iron, lead, copper, allum, &c. its component parts are drachms, ounces, &c. of which ſixteen drachms make an ounce, ſixteen ounces a pound, twenty-eight pounds a quarter of a hundred weight, or a hundred and twelve pounds, and twenty hundred weight, or two thouſand two hundred and forty pound a ton; but beſides this hundred weight there is another called the ſtannery hundred, by which tin, &c. is weighed to the king. The avoirdupois ounce is lighter than the troy ounce, by near a twelfth part, fifty-one ounces troy being equal to fifty-ſix avoirdupois; but the avoirdupois pound is heavier than the troy, ſeventeen pound of this latter being equal to fourteen pounds of the other.

Wool is generally ſold by the tod, or clove, allowing ſeven pounds to the clove, fourteen pounds to the ſtone, twenty-eight pounds to the tod, a hundred and twenty-eight pounds to the wey, three hundred and ſixty-four pounds to the ſack, and four thouſand three hundred and ſixty-eight pounds to the laſt.

Lead is bought by the fodder, which at London, Newcaſtle, &c. weighs 19 ½ hundred weight of a hundred and twelve pounds; but at Hull 19 ½ ſtannery hundred of a hundred and twenty pounds; and at Cheſter, &c. it is ſtill different.

In Eſſex, butter and cheeſe are weighed by the clove (or half ſtone) being eight pounds, of which thirty-two, or two hundred and fifty-ſix pound is a wey; but in Suffolk forty-two cloves or three hundred and thirty-ſix pounds are allowed to the wey. Of butter a firkin muſt weigh fifty-ſix pounds, and that of ſoap ſixty pounds, and four firkins of either make a barrel.

A ſtone of beef at London is eight pounds, but in the country it is commonly fourteen pounds; horſe-racers alſo reckon fourteen pounds to the ſtone; and it is the ſame with iron, ſhot, or wool, double the quantity of iron and ſhot being called a quarter, though a ſtone of ſugar, cinnamon, nutmegs, pepper or allum, is but thirteen pounds and a half.

A faggot of ſteel is one hundred and twenty pounds, and a burden of gad ſteel one hundred and eighty pounds.

A barrel of gunpowder is one hundred pounds, and twenty-four barrels make a laſt.

A ſeam of glaſs is twenty-four ſtone, (of five pounds each) or one hundred and twenty pounds.

A truſs of hay fifty-ſix pounds, and a load or ton of it thirty-ſix truſſes.

Raw ſilk is ſold here by the pound of twenty-four ounces, or more properly one pound and a half avoirdupois; but organcines, trames, &c. by the common pound of ſixteen ounces.

In France, Holland, and moſt other places of Europe, the pound is termed mark weight, by reaſon that two marks of eight ounces compoſe it, ſo that in all places where this pound is uſed, it conſiſts of ſixteen ounces, as with us; and as moſt authors who have calculated the correſpondency of theſe different weights, have taken thoſe of Paris for a ſtandard, we ſhall follow their example, as it is eaſy to reduce any not mentioned in the following table by the rule of three, and we ſhall only take notice of ſuch as are not inſerted therein, or that make uſe of more weights than one.

Coningſberg reckon their weights by ſchipponds, conſiſting of four hundred pounds, divided into ten ſteens of forty pounds each, one hundred pounds of Paris make one hundred and twenty-five pounds of Coningſberg, and one hundred pounds of Coningſberg make eighty pounds of Paris, ſo that the French hundred of ſalt yields near ten laſts (which is little more than forty thouſand pounds) at this place.

Dantzick's ſchippond conſiſts of three hundred and twenty pounds, containing twenty lieſponds of ſixteen pounds each, of which one hundred pounds make eighty-eight pounds eight-ninths at Paris; and on the contrary, one hundred pounds of this laſt city make one hundred and twelve pounds one-half at Dantzick. The hundred of French ſalt produces eleven one-half to twelve Dantzick laſts, (the laſt of that ſalt being eighteen ton) though the laſt of this commodity from Lunenbourg and Haran is only twelve tons.

Elbing's weights are the ſame with thoſe of Dantzick.

Stetin's ſchippond contains one hundred and eighty, and its pierre twenty-one pounds, the one hundred and ten pounds making one hundred pounds of Paris. The hundred of ſalt from France, yields here ten laſts.

Lubeck, the ſchippond here is three hundred pounds, divided into twenty lieſponds of fifteen pounds each; and one hundred pounds of this place make ninety-five pounds one-fourth of Paris, and one hundred pounds of Paris one hundred and five pounds of Lubeck.

Breſlau, one hundred pounds of this place make eighty pounds at Paris, and one hundred pounds Pariſian make one hundred and twenty-five pounds here.

Bremen's one hundred pounds are reckoned equal to ninety-ſeven pounds of Paris, and one hundred pounds of Paris are eſteemed one hundred and three pounds of Bremen.

Naumbourg makes uſe of the ſame weights as Leipſick, calculated in the table.

Erfort computes one hundred pounds to equal ninety-two pounds of Paris, and that one hundred pounds of Paris, make one hundred and eight pounds two-thirds here.

Berne, the one hundred pounds here are computed to make ninety pounds of Paris, and the one hundred pounds of Paris to make one hundred and eleven pounds of theſe.

Cologne's one hundred pounds make ninety-ſix pounds at Paris, and one hundred pounds of Paris are equal to one hundred and four pounds here.

Ghent, Bruſſels, Malines, Bruges, } correſpond exactly in weights with Antwerp.

Liſle, one hundred pounds of this place make eighty-eight pounds three fourths of Paris, and one hundred pounds of Paris make one hundred and fourteen pounds here.

St. Malo is commonly ſuppoſed to have its weights equal with thoſe of Paris, though by ſome reckoned to be two *per cent.* leſs.

Bayonne has its weights equal with thoſe of Paris; and at Lyons two ſorts of weights are in uſe; thoſe of the city, by which all ſpecies of groſs goods are ſold, and whoſe pound, conſiſting of ſixteen ounces, only makes fourteen ounces mark weight: the other for ſilk only, containing fifteen ounces the mark, ſo that one hundred pounds of ſilk make one hundred and eight pounds city weight.

Genoa, this city has five ſorts of weights, the firſt called the great weight, uſed in the cuſtom-houſe; the ſecond caſh weights, for plate and coin; the third cantaro, or the common quintal, by which are weighed groſs goods that are ſold; the fourth called the great balance, by which raw ſilks are weighed; and the fifth is called the ſmall balance, that ſerves for weighing fine goods.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| $90\frac{4}{5}$ rotoli or pounds, | great weight | make 100 lb. of Paris. |
| 100 rotoli | caſh weight | |
| 100 rotoli | common weight | |
| 144 lb. | great balance | |
| 153 lb. | ſmall balance | |

Rome, one hundred pounds of this city, make within a trifle ſeventy-one pounds one-half at Paris, and one hundred pounds of Paris make one hundred and forty pounds of Rome.

At Leghorn they make uſe of two ſorts of weights, viz. great and ſmall.

93 lb. great weight, 140 lb. ſmall weight } of Leghorn, make 100lb. of Paris.

The quintal is reckoned variouſly, according to the ſpecie of goods ſold by it, viz. the quintal of Roman allum, of poorjack, dried and pickled herrings, and ſalted ſalmon, is ſold here by that of one hundred and fifty pounds. The quintal for ſugars one hundred and fifty-one pounds, and for wool and fiſh one hundred and ſixty pounds.

Florence has the ſame weights as at Leghorn.

Lucca has likewiſe two ſorts of weights, viz.

Great weight, of which $94\frac{1}{3}$ rotoli, or pounds, Small weight, of which $141\frac{1}{3}$ rotoli, or pounds } make 100lb. of Paris.

Palermo in Sicily uſes alſo two ſorts of weights, of which,

100 rotoli, great weight, 100 lb. ſmall weight } make a trifle leſs than { $141\frac{2}{3}$ lb. / 65 lb. } of Paris.

At Venice the weights are likewiſe different, the pound of the ſmall weight conſiſting only of twelve ounces, and the pound of the great weight $18\frac{24}{25}$ of the ſame ounces; or it is otherwiſe reckoned that

100 lb. great weight make 158 lb. ſmall weight, and
100 lb. ſmall weight $63\frac{1}{2}$ lb. great weight;
100 lb. great weight, 100 lb. ſmall weight } making { $95\frac{1}{2}$ lb. / 60 lb. } of Paris.
And 100 lb. of Paris make at Venice { 104 lb. great weight, / 166 lb. ſmall weight.

Bologne, one hundred pounds of this place make ſixty-ſix pounds at Paris, and one hundred pounds of Paris make one hundred and fifty-one pounds one-half of Bologne.

Bergame, like Venice, has two ſorts of weights, viz. great and ſmall; this latter has only twelve ounces to the pound, and the great has thirty ounces or two and a half ſmall pounds. The ſmall ſerves for weighing ſilk, cochineal, indigo, wax, and other drugs; and the great for wool, and other groſs goods

100 lb. ſmall weight, 100 lb. great weight } of Bergame, make { 59 lb. / $147\frac{1}{2}$ lb. } of Paris and
100 lb. of Paris, makes { 169 lb. ſmall weight, / 68 lb. great weight } of Bergame.

The weights of Naples are the ſame with theſe of Bergame.

Smyrna uſes the cantar, or quintal, with its fractions for the weight of goods.

The quintal weighs forty-five oques, or okkes, or one hundred routels.

The barmen makes ſix oques,
The ſechie two ditto,
The routel makes one hundred and eighty dragmes,
The oque four hundred ditto.

The quintal of one hundred routels or forty-five oques as above, is equal to one hundred and fourteen pounds of Paris; on which footing one hundred pounds of Paris makes about eighty-ſeven five-ſeventh routels of Smyrna.

It is reckoned that the oque weighs a trifle more than two and a half pounds of Paris, but this is according to the goods weighed by it.

Conſtantinople has the heavieſt weights in all the Levant, though they are diſtinguiſhed as at Smyrna. The quintal conſiſts of forty-five oques, and the oque of four hundred dragmes, correſponding to $2\frac{9}{16}$ lb. of Paris.

It is reckoned that the quintal of Conſtantinople weighs { $112\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of Paris, / 181 lb. of Venice. / 160 lb. of Leghorn.

Being divided into rottes, oques batmens, &c. as at Smyrna.

At Aleppo, they make uſe of diverſe ſorts of weights, viz.

The quintal, or cantar, of one hundred rottels, each conſiſting of ſeven hundred and twenty dragmes.

The ſurlo, which is $27\frac{1}{4}$ rottels.

The rottel, with which moſt goods are weighed containing (as above) ſeven hundred and twenty dragmes, which make $4\frac{3}{13}$ lb. of Paris.

The rottel for weighing the ſilks growing in the neighbourhood, is of ſeven hundred dragmes, and weighs $4\frac{10}{13}$ lb. of Paris.

The rottel for weighing Perſian ſilks, legi de burma, ardaſſe, and ardaſſete, contains ſix hundred and eighty dragmes, and weighs $4\frac{16}{19}$ lb. of Paris.

The damaſſin rottel, with which braſs, lattin wire, amber, camphire, benzoin, ſpikenard, balm of Mecca, and aloes wood, are weighed, contains ſix hundred dragmes, and makes $3\frac{16}{78}$ lb. of Paris.

The ok, or oque, weighs four hundred dragmes.

The metical, with which pearls and ambergreaſe are weighed, is $1\frac{1}{2}$ dragme.

1 lb. of Paris, 1 lb. ſmall weight of Venice, 1 lb. great weight of ditto } make at Aleppo { 156 / 98 / 112 } dragmes.

The quintal of Tripoli make $1\frac{1}{4}$ quintal of Aleppo of ſeven hundred and twenty dragmes.

At Seyda (the ancient Sidon) two ſorts of weights are in uſe, viz.

The rottel damaſſin, or damaſquin, by which all ſorts of ſilks and cotton thread are ſold; it is reckoned ſix hundred dragmes, which make $3\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of Paris. And the acre, by which moſt of the groſs goods are ſold, equal to $4\frac{4}{5}$ lb. of Paris.

Alexandria makes uſe of a cantar or quintal for the weighing of goods, which varies according to the different ſpecies weighed by it, as for ſome it conſiſts only of one hundred rottels, and for others, 105, 110, $112\frac{1}{2}$, 115, 120, 125, 130, and 133.

The rottel farfarin is 144 dragmes, 100 of which rottels are reckoned equal to 125 lb. of Leghorn.

The rottel gerouin is 312 dragmes.

The okke, or oque is 400 dragmes.

The cantar, or quintal of 100 rottels, is ſuppoſed equal to 120lb. of Paris.

Roſetto has its weights the ſame as thoſe laſt mentioned of Alexandria.

Grand Cairo make uſe of the quintal, or cantar of 100 rottels, for the weighing moſt of its goods, reckoned equal to 88 lb. of Paris; though a quintal of coffee yields 95 lb. at Amſterdam, which are (as has been obſerved) the ſame with thoſe of Paris.

Theſe are all, or at leaſt the principal places of trade, whoſe weights are not mentioned in the ſubſequent table, ſo that we have nothing more to add on this ſubject.

A Table

# A TABLE of the AGREEMENT which the WEIGHTS of the PRINCIPAL PLACES in EUROPE have with each other.

*N, B.* As the weights of *Amſterdam, Paris, Bourdeaux, Straſbourgh, Beſançon*, and ſeveral other places, have but the minuteſt difference, they are all comprehended under that of *Amſterdam*, as thoſe of *Nuremberg* are under *Francfort*, and others in the ſame manner.

| Are equal to | Of *England, Scotland, and Ireland.* | Of *Amſterdam, Paris, &c.* | Of *Antwerp, or Brabant.* | Of *Rouen*, the Vic. county Weight. | Of *Lyons*, the City Weight. | Of *Rochelle.* | Of *Toulouſe, and Upper Languedoc.* | Of *Marſeilles, or Provence.* | Of *Geneva.* | Of *Hamburgh.* | Of *Francfort, &c.* | Of *Leipſic, &c.* | Of *Genoa.* | Of *Legborn.* | Of *Milan.* | Of *Venice.* | Of *Naples.* | Of *Seville, Cadiz, &c.* | Of *Portugal.* | Of *Liege.* | Of *Ruſſia.* | Of *Sweden.* | Of *Denmark.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 100 lb. of *England, &c.* | 100 | 91 8 | 96 8 | 88 | 106 | 90 9 | 107 11 | 113 | 81 7 | 93 5 | 89 7 | 96 1 | 137 4 | 132 11 | 153 11 | 152 | 154 10 | 97 | 104 13 | 96 5 | 112 $\frac{2}{3}$ | 107 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 89 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Amſterdam, Paris, &c.* | 109 8 | 100 | 105 8 | 96 4 | 116 | 99 | 118 | 123 8 | 89 | 102 | 98 | 105 0 | 150 | 145 | 168 | 166 | 269 | 106 | 114 8 | 105 4 | 123 $\frac{1}{12}$ | 117 | 97 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Antwerp* | 103 12 | 94 12 | 100 | 91 4 | 110 | 93 13 | 111 12 | 117 | 84 5 | 96 10 | 92 13 | 99 8 | 142 2 | 137 6 | 159 3 | 157 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 160 2 | 108 | 108 8 | 99 11 | 116 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 110 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 92 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Rouen* | 113 14 | 104 | 109 12 | 100 | 120 8 | 102 15 | 122 11 | 128 8 | 92 9 | 106 | 102 | 109 4 | 156 | 150 13 | 174 11 | 172 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 175 12 | 110 4 | 119 | 109 7 | 128 | 121 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 101 $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Lyons* | 94 3 | 86 | 90 12 | 82 12 | 100 | 85 2 | 101 8 | 106 4 | 76 8 | 87 12 | 84 4 | 90 5 | 129 | 124 11 | 144 8 | 142 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 145 6 | 91 3 | 98 8 | 90 8 | 106 $\frac{1}{24}$ | 101 | 84 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Rochelle* | 110 9 | 101 | 106 8 | 97 3 | 117 | 100 | 119 3 | 124 12 | 89 14 | 103 | 99 | 106 | 151 8 | 146 7 | 169 11 | 167 10 | 170 11 | 107 | 115 10 | 106 5 | 124 | 117 $\frac{1}{12}$ | 98 13 |
| 100 lb. of *Toulouſe, &c.* | 92 6 | 84 12 | 89 6 | 81 8 | 98 5 | 83 15 | 100 | 105 4 | 75 7 | 86 7 | 83 | 89 8 | 127 2 | 122 14 | 142 6 | 140 | 143 4 | 89 13 | 97 | 89 3 | 104 $\frac{9}{16}$ | 99 $\frac{5}{12}$ | 83 $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Marſeilles* | 88 11 | 81 | 85 8 | 78 | 94 | 80 3 | 95 9 | 100 | 72 | 82 10 | 79 6 | 85 8 | 121 8 | 117 7 | 136 1 | 134 8 | 136 14 | 85 13 | 92 12 | 85 4 | 99 $\frac{9}{16}$ | 94 $\frac{3}{4}$ | 79 $\frac{3}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Geneva* | 123 | 112 6 | 118 8 | 108 | 130 5 | 111 6 | 132 9 | 128 4 | 100 | 114 10 | 110 2 | 118 | 168 9 | 163 | 188 13 | 186 8 | 189 14 | 119 2 | 128 8 | 118 4 | 138 $\frac{9}{16}$ | 131 $\frac{7}{12}$ | 109 $\frac{7}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Hamburgh* | 107 5 | 98 | 103 6 | 94 4 | 113 10 | 97 | 115 10 | 121 | 87 4 | 100 | 89 11 | 102 15 | 147 | 142 2 | 164 10 | 162 11 | 165 10 | 103 13 | 112 4 | 103 2 | 120 $\frac{11}{12}$ | 114 $\frac{7}{12}$ | 95 $\frac{7}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Francfort, &c.* | 111 11 | 102 | 107 8 | 98 3 | 118 5 | 101 | 120 6 | 126 | 90 12 | 104 | 100 | 107 1 | 153 | 147 14 | 171 6 | 169 5 | 172 6 | 108 2 | 116 13 | 107 6 | 125 $\frac{19}{24}$ | 119 $\frac{5}{12}$ | 100 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Leipſick, &c.* | 104 5 | 95 4 | 100 | 91 12 | 110 8 | 94 4 | 112 6 | 117 12 | 84 12 | 92 2 | 93 5 | 100 | 142 13 | 38 1 | 160 | 158 2 | 161 | 101 | 109 | 100 4 | 117 $\frac{19}{24}$ | 111 $\frac{5}{12}$ | 93 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Genoa* | 73 | 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ | 70 5 | 64 | 77 5 | 66 | 78 10 | 82 5 | 59 5 | 68 | 65 5 | 70 | 100 | 96 11 | 112 | 110 11 | 112 11 | 70 11 | 76 5 | 70 6 | 83 $\frac{19}{24}$ | 79 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 66 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Leghorn* | 75 8 | 69 | 72 12 | 66 6 | 80 | 68 5 | 81 6 | 85 4 | 61 6 | 70 6 | 67 10 | 72 8 | 103 8 | 100 | 116 | 114 8 | 116 9 | 73 | 79 | 72 10 | 84 $\frac{7}{12}$ | 80 | 67 $\frac{7}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Milan* | 65 3 | 59 8 | 62 12 | 57 4 | 69 | 58 14 | 70 3 | 73 8 | 53 | 60 1 | 58 5 | 62 8 | 89 4 | 86 4 | 100 | 98 12 | 100 8 | 63 | 68 2 | 62 10 | 73 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 69 | 58 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Venice* | 65 11 | 60 | 63 6 | 57 12 | 69 10 | 59 6 | 70 13 | 74 2 | 53 6 | 61 3 | 58 13 | 63 | 90 | 87 | 100 13 | 100 | 101 6 | 63 5 | 68 11 | 63 2 | 74 | 70 | 58 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Naples* | 64 10 | 59 | 62 4 | 57 | 68 7 | 58 6 | 69 10 | 72 14 | 52 8 | 60 2 | 57 13 | 62 | 88 8 | 85 8 | 99 2 | 98 | 100 | 62 8 | 67 9 | 62 | 72 $\frac{13}{16}$ | 69 | 57 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Seville, Cadiz, &c.* | 103 7 | 94 8 | 99 12 | 91 | 109 10 | 93 9 | 111 8 | 116 11 | 84 2 | 96 6 | 92 10 | 99 4 | 141 12 | 137 | 158 12 | 156 14 | 159 12 | 100 | 108 3 | 99 14 | 116 | 110 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 92 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Portugal* | 95 4 | 87 8 | 92 | 84 4 | 101 8 | 86 10 | 103 4 | 108 | 77 14 | 89 4 | 85 12 | 91 13 | 131 4 | 126 13 | 147 | 145 4 | 148 | 92 12 | 100 | 92 | 107 $\frac{13}{16}$ | 102 | 85 $\frac{3}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Liege* | 104 | 95 | 100 3 | 91 7 | 110 3 | 94 | 112 | 117 5 | 84 8 | 96 14 | 93 | 99 12 | 142 8 | 137 12 | 159 9 | 157 11 | 160 10 | 100 9 | 108 12 | 100 | 116 $\frac{15}{16}$ | 111 | 92 $\frac{1}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Ruſſia*, or *Muſcovy* | 88 12 | 81 4 | 85 $\frac{2}{3}$ | 78 | 94 $\frac{1}{2}$ | 80 6 | 95 9 | 100 5 | 72 4 | 82 13 | 79 6 | 85 4 | 121 13 | 117 13 | 136 7 | 134 15 | 137 4 | 86 3 | 93 1 | 85 8 | 100 | 95 | 79 $\frac{7}{16}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Sweden* | 93 7 | 85 8 | 90 2 | 82 3 | 99 | 84 9 | 100 9 | 105 9 | 76 1 | 87 3 | 83 9 | 89 12 | 128 3 | 124 | 143 9 | 142 | 144 7 | 90 9 | 97 15 | 90 | 105 $\frac{5}{24}$ | 100 | 83 $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 100 lb. of *Denmark* | 111 12 | 102 4 | 107 13 | 98 5 | 118 7 | 100 15 | 120 5 | 126 4 | 91 | 104 4 | 99 14 | 107 5 | 153 5 | 148 4 | 171 11 | 169 13 | 172 12 | 109 1 | 117 1 | 107 10 | 125 | 119 $\frac{7}{12}$ | 100 |

By means of this TABLE may be eaſily ſeen, the agreement which the weights of one place have with thoſe of another; *as for example*, if it is wanted to be known how many pounds 100 Engliſh make at Amſterdam, look for England, &c. in the firſt column, and from thence along the line to the column under Amſterdam, and it will there be found, that 91 lb. 8 oz. Dutch, correſpond with 100 Engliſh, and ſo with any other weight ſought for, and *vice verſa*; noting that the above calculations are in pounds, and ounces of 16 to the pound.

WELD, *or* WOLD, a plant uſed by the dyers to give a yellow colour, and, for this reaſon, called in latin *luteola*, of luteus, yellow.

This plant is ſown in a light ground, in the month of March or September, and is ripe in June or July. In hot countries, it is frequently dry enough, when gathered; but in the colder, care muſt be taken to dry it. Great circumſpection is to be uſed, that it be not gathered before thorough ripe, as alſo to prevent its getting wet, when gathered.

Weld, is much cultivated in Kent, for the uſe of the London dyers. With the help of pot-aſhes, it yields a deep lemon colour; but either by the ſmallneſs of the proportion put into the tincture, or by taking from it a ſlighter tincture, it ſerves to dye all colours between white and deep yellow. Its dye will hold well, unleſs againſt urine and tartarous liquors.

WESTMONY, and *Iceland* fiſhing ſhips, may not proceed on their voyage till the 10th. of March yearly, upon forfeiture of ſhips and fiſh, 15 *Car.* II. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 1.

WESTMORELAND. The products of this county are but few, though what the ſoil denies, is ſupplied by the induſtry of the natives; as at Kendal and Kerby Lonſdale the manufactures of cloths, druggets, ferges, rugs, penniſtons, duffels, cottons, hats, and ſtockings, are very conſiderable; ſo that notwithſtanding its terrene infertility, that of its looms furniſhes a very handſome part, both to the home and foreign trade.

WESTPHALIA in Germany. This circle ſtretches along the weſt ſide of the Weſer, from the German ocean on the north, to Heſſia on the ſouth, and between Lower Saxony, on the eaſt, and the Netherlands on the weſt. The air, eſpecially in the north part, is very cold, and great part of the ſoil marſhy and barren; however, it has plenty of corn and paſture, but the fruit is very ordinary, and uſed chiefly to feed the hogs, which are numerous, and of an excellent kind; ſo that the bacon they ſend abroad is very much eſteemed. It is divided into ſeveral dominions or provinces.

*Oſnaburg*, which is the capital of the biſhopric of that name, is a neat well-built city: the inhabitants, who are very induſtrious, not only breed abundance of hogs and other cattle, but have a conſiderable trade in making linen, in brewing a palatable, though thick ſort of beer, called buſe, and in baking the beſt white bread in Weſtphalia.

*Oldenburg* has a good trade by barges, which come up from the Weſer to its bridge.

*Pyrmont*, famous for its mineral waters, lies on the borders of Hanover. It is the capital of a county. There is a great reſort of German and other nobility hither to drink the waters, which are preferred even to thoſe of the Spa, and exported far abroad from Bremen, to which they are carried by the Weſer.

*Lude* is of note alſo for its medicinal fountain, for which it is much frequented. This commonly goes by the name of Pyrmont water.

*Hoxter*, on the river Weſer, is a fair conſiderable trading town.

*Soeſt* is a populous city on the river Arſe, but having no trade is not very rich.

*Dortmund*, though a ſmall place, is rich and populous, having a pretty good trade, and communication with the Rhine by its river Empſer.

*Cleve*, the metropolis of the dutchy of that name, is ſo called from its ſituation among cliff's, and on the declivity of a hill, between the Rhine and the Maeſe, is one of the fineſt countries of Germany. It is now ſmall, but well-built and peopled. The river Hel, which runs by the foot of its caſtle, is navigable by ſmall veſſels to the Rhine.

*Emmerick* is a large, rich, beautiful town, pleaſantly ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the Rhine, and has a pretty good trade.

*Calcar*, on the river Men, which falls into the Rhine, ſoon after it was built grew populous and rich, by a trade in linen; but ſince one of its dukes built a vaſt granary here, for the boors to bring their corn to, it has been more conſiderable for making malt and beer.

*Weſel*, called *Nether Weſel*, to diſtinguiſh it from Upper Weſel, in the electorate of Treves, ſtands on the caſt ſide of the Rhine, near the mouth of the river Lippe. It is not only a large and well-built town, but populous, and well ſeated for trade. It grew rich by the concourſe of merchants, who fled hither from the perſecution in the Spaniſh Netherlands.

*Duiſburg* is a ſmall city on the Roer, which falls a little lower into the Rhine. Fairs were held in the town formerly, which brought a great trade to it, but are ſince removed to Frankfort.

*Duſſeldorp* has its name from the little river Duſſel, that here falls into the Rhine. The town is large and well built. Here are three weekly markets for corn, which is imported hither from the Low Countries, and exported in great quantities to Cologne, and other parts of Germany.

*Solingen*, a ſmall city on the river Wipper, is only noted for making good cutler's ware.

*Aken*, by the French called Aix la Chapelle, is of chief note and greatly frequented on account of its baths.

The adjacent country abounds with corn, fruit, and paſturage. They have alſo rich coal mines, beſides others of iron, lead, vitriol, ſulphur, and *lapis calaminaris*, and are well ſupplied with neceſſaries by the Rhine and Maeſe.

WETTERAW in Germany. This is the general name of the country that lies between Heſſe on the north, the river Mayne on the ſouth, the Rhine on the weſt, and the county of Reineck on the eaſt. The principal dominions of it are,

*The County of Naſſau*, which is bounded on the north by Weſtphalia; on the weſt by Berg, Triers, and the Rhine; on the eaſt by Heſſe and Solms; and the electorate of Mentz on the ſouth. The ſoil and product of it is various. In ſeveral parts they have good mines of iron, lead, copper, and other metals.

*Dilemberg* on the river Dilla, has a good trade in cattle and woollen goods.

*Sigen*, near which there is a very good iron mine, ſtands on the river Siega.

*Embs* is noted for its baths.

*Herborn*, upon the river Dilla, is a city of a pretty good trade in cotton and woollen cloths.

*Wiſbaedn* is an ancient large town frequented by reaſon of famous hot baths in it, from whence it has the name.

*Hanau*, the capital of a county or diviſion ſo called, ſtands pleaſantly on the river Kintz, and is reckoned one of the neateſt and moſt regularly built towns in Germany; it is much frequented by merchants of ſeveral nations, particularly the French and Dutch. The Walloons here have eſtabliſhed ſeveral manufactures, viz. woollen-ſtuffs, ſnuff, &c.

But the chief of the imperial and free cities in Wetteraw, of which it is the capital, is *Frankfort*. It is a large, populous, and rich city; it has a great trade by the Mayne and the Rhine, and ſeveral other rivers which fall into them, and is very well ſituate for bringing corn and wine in abundance from the Palatinate and Franconia. It has two annual fairs, frequented by merchants with all ſorts of commodities, particularly books from moſt parts of Europe, of which they diſtribute printed catalogues; ſo that there is greater choice here than in any other town in Chriſtendom, during their mart, which laſts three weeks.

On the north ſide of the city is a ſpacious horſe-fair or market, where a vaſt number of good horſes are ſold to the French king, and the neighbouring princes, particularly the former, who buys ſome thouſands in a year to remount his cavalry. The Jews are the chief jockies.

WEXFORD, is very fruitful, and produces plenty of corn and graſs; it likewiſe abounds in cattle; and Wexford, the borough town, was formerly reckoned the chief city in all Ireland; and though it is not ſo now, yet it continues a place of good trade, having a very commodious haven at the mouth of the river Urem or Slany, to which belonged in 1723, twenty-one ſhips (with ſix hundred and forty tuns.)

WEYMOUTH *and* MELCOMBE REGIS. The preamble of 22 *Geo.* II. ſets forth, that the mayor, aldermen, burgeſſes and commonalty of the borough and town of Weymouth and Melcombe Regis, in the county of Dorſet, have, for time immemorial, received, and been entitled to receive, petty cuſtoms, or wharfage duties, upon the importation and exportation of all goods and merchandizes into, and out of, the harbour of Weymouth and Melcombe Regis, and alſo harbour dues, and ballaſt duty; which ſeveral duties have been conſtantly under the management of the mayor, aldermen, &c. of the ſaid town, as truſtees and managers, and have been applied for

References.
A. County of E. Friesland.
B. County of Oldenburg.
C. Lower Bishop.k of Munster.
D. Bishop.k of Munster.
E. County of Hoy.
F. County of Bentheim.
G. Bishop.k of Osnabrug.
H. Bishop.k of Minden.
I. Duchy of Cleves.
K. Bishop.k of Paderborn.
L. Bishop.k of Liege.
M. Duchy of Juliers.
N. Arch Bishop.k of Cologne.
O. To Hesse.
P. County of Diepholt.
Q. To Hesse.
R. County of Scamburg.
S. County of Coppenburg.
T. County of Starpford.
U. County of Ravensburg.
W. County of Tekkenburg.
X. County of Ritberg.
Y. County of Lipe.
Z. County of Mark.
a. Duchy of Westphalia.
b. Duchy of Berg.
c. Duchy of Ferden.
THE NORTH SEA OR GERMAN OCEAN
SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES
AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS
DUCHY OF LUXEMBURG
PART OF FRANCE
CIRCLE OF THE LOWER RHINE
CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE
SAXONY
HANOVER
A New MAP of the CIRCLE of WESTPHALIA &c. Drawn from the best Authorities.
British Miles 69 to a Degree
German Miles 15 to a Degree
Long.d E. from London
B. Williams Sculp.

for repairing the harbour, quays, and wharfs, and other public buildings and works, within the ſaid borough and town: and whereas of late years ſeveral perſons have refuſed to pay the ſaid duties, and have been induced thereto, by means of the great difficulties, in ſupporting by ſtrict and legal evidence, preſcriptive claims and rights to duties on each particular ſpecies of goods, and the preciſe ſums payable for the ſame; and although the ſaid corporation, in ſupport of their right, have brought ſeveral actions, and obtained verdicts of damages, by which their right, in general hath been eſtabliſhed; yet, by the expences in carrying on ſuch ſuits, and the many evaſions and refuſals of payment, the fund for the repairing of the ſaid harbour, quays, and wharfs, and other publick buildings and works, hath been conſiderably leſſened; and the ſaid wharfs, &c. will be entirely deſtroyed, if not timely prevented: for remedy whereof, *It is enacted*, that, from and after the twenty-fourth of June, 1749, the reſpective rates, duties and cuſtoms, enumerated in the ſchedules hereunto annexed, ſhall be paid by all perſons whatſoever, on the importation and exportation of all goods, wares, merchandizes, and commodities, into, and out of, the ſaid harbour of Weymouth and Melcombe Regis, and for all veſſels coming into the ſaid harbour, to the mayor, aldermen, &c. of the ſaid town and borough; and no other rates whatſoever, either under the denomination of, or under a claim to, a wheelage duty or otherwiſe; and the ſaid ſchedules are to be deemed as part of this act; and the ſaid corporation are impowered to meet, from time to time, and to appoint, under their hands, a collector of the rates, a quay maſter, and a treaſurer, and to remove them at pleaſure; and alſo to appoint each of the ſaid officers ſuch a reaſonable ſalary, as they ſhall think proper, out of the rates, not exceeding two ſhillings in the pound of the money reſpectively received by them.

The ſaid magiſtrates ſhall be anſwerable for the acts and receipts of the ſaid officers, and ſhall take ſecurity of each of them, &c.

The collectors and treaſurers ſhall keep books, and the ſaid magiſtrates ſhall meet yearly, on the Friday next after the twenty-fourth of June, between eight and twelve in the forenoon, in the Guild-hall of the town of Weymouth and Melcombe Regis, (or oftner if they ſhall think fit) and ſhall then ſummon the ſaid officers, and audit their accounts, &c.

The duties and cuſtoms impoſed by this act, upon importation, may be demanded by the ſaid magiſtrates, their collector, &c. either of the reſpective proprietors, or from the keeper of any warehouſe, wherein the goods ſhall be depoſited, upon the firſt landing, or to whom the ſame ſhall be delivered, or who ſhall take charge thereof, or ſhall carry off the ſame from the wharfs or quays, at the election of the perſons authorized to receive the ſame; and alſo the duties and cuſtoms upon exportation of goods, (except for ſuch ſtone only as ſhall be taken out of one veſſel into another in the ſaid harbour) may be demanded from the waggoner, carter, carrier, or other perſons bringing, or delivering the ſame on board, at the option of the receiver of the ſaid rates; and alſo the duties upon veſſels, coming into the ſaid harbour; and for ſuch ſtone as ſhall be taken out of one veſſel into another in the ſaid harbour, may be demanded of the maſters, or perſons having charge of ſuch ſhips.

On nonpayment of the rates within twenty-four hours after demand, the ſaid magiſtrates are impowered to ſue for and recover the ſame by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of the courts of record at Weſtminſter, &c.

All maſters of veſſels, coming into, or going out of the ſaid harbour, ſhall, as ſoon as conveniently may be, delivered to the collector, at his requeſt, his wharfage bill, or a true account of all goods on board, and ſhall permit him to take a copy thereof, at his own expence, under penalty of forfeiting five pounds for every ſuch offence, &c.

The quay maſters, for the more commodious loading and unloading veſſels, or taking in, or caſting out ballaſt, ſhall order all maſters, and other perſons having charge of any veſſels, lying in the ſaid port or harbour, to ſtation, anchor, and moor the ſame, in ſuch proper births, near unto, or adjoining the ſaid wharfs or quays, as they ſhall appoint; and if any maſter of any veſſel ſhall refuſe to comply with ſuch orders, he ſhall forfeit forty ſhillings, &c.

As often as any damage ſhall happen to be done to the bridge, wharfs, or quays, by any veſſel breaking looſe from their moorings, through default of the mariners, the mayor, &c. or any three of them, upon the ſame being notified to them upon oath, ſhall detain ſuch veſſel till the damage be aſcertained, and adjuſted by three indifferent perſons upon oath; and, if it ſhall appear to them that the damage has been done through wilful default or neglect, they ſhall liquidate the ſum payable for the ſame, and return their adjudication, ſigned by them, unto the mayor, &c. who ſhall thereupon ſummon the maſter of ſuch veſſel, and demand payment; and, upon nonpayment thereof, within three days after demand, they ſhall diſtrain the veſſel, and all her tackle, apparel and furniture; and, within three days after, payment not being then made, the collector, or quay maſter, by a written order from the mayor, &c. ſhall ſell the ſame, &c.

All the monies to be raiſed by this act, and all penalties and forfeitures, ſhall be applied in cleanſing, and keeping the harbour in order, and for keeping the bridge, wharfs, quays, and other public buildings and works, within the ſaid borough and town in repair, as the ſaid magiſtrates ſhall think requiſite.

None ſhall be exempted from keeping ſuch wharfs or quays in repair, which they were obliged to, by tenure or uſage, &c. before the making of this act.

This act ſhall be deemed a publick act, &c.

WHALES, whale-bone, fins, oil, and blubber, the king's prerogative in whales, 17 *Ed.* II. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 11.

Whale-fins, bones, oil, or blubber, where to pay double aliens cuſtom, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *f.* 5.

*Whale-bone*, cut, except in fins, may not be imported, upon forfeiture, and double the value, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 26. *f.* 12.

Maſters of ſhips knowing thereof, forfeit fifty pounds, 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 12. *f.* 6.

The perſon in whoſe cuſtody found, forfeits thirty pounds, beſides the goods and double the value, 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 12. *f.* 6.

Proof of being cut beyond the ſeas, not to lie on the ſeizure, &c. 4 and 5 *Ann. c.* 12. *f.* 6.

Encouragement of the whale fiſhery in the gulf, &c. of St. Lawrence, and on the coaſts in America, 4 *Geo.* III. *c.* 29. *See* FISHERY.

WHALE-BONE MERCHANT. There are but few of this buſineſs. They buy the whale-fin or whale-bone, chiefly of the Dutch, and of the Engliſh merchants engaged in the whale-bone fiſhery. Theſe fins are prepared for the ſhops, by being boiled in a very large copper; when, being taken out while hot, they are cut into pieces, and ſplit by being put into a vice, where the workman follows the grain of the fin with the knife. The whale-bone merchant, however, only buys the whale-bone, depoſits it in his ſhop, or warehouſe, and ſells it in pieces, by wholeſale or retail. It is a buſineſs that requires neither learning nor ingenuity; and no other qualification is neceſſary, but writing and the knowledge of accounts. The whale-bone merchants are great dealers. They take from fifty to two or three hundred pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, will require from five hundred to two thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter. They give a journeyman from twenty to fifty pounds a year and his board.

WHARFS. *See* KAYS.

WHEEL-WRIGHT. Thoſe of this buſineſs make both the bodies and wheels of carts and drays: but have nothing to do with coach-wheels. It is a laborious buſineſs that requires a good deal of ſtrength. The wheel-wright takes about ten pounds with an apprentice; who, generally works from ſix till nine. He gives fifteen or eighteen ſhillings a week to a journeyman; who, will require about two hundred pounds to ſet up for himſelf.

WHIP-MAKER. It requires ſome little ingenuity to be a complete maſter of this buſineſs. Whips are made with a wooden handle and whale-bone covered with cat-gut; and the ſmall round plate at the top is furniſhed by the ſadler's founder. The maſters in a ſmall way, who work only for the ſadlers, and wholeſale tradeſmen, take

five pounds with an apprentice; but the more conſiderable dealers will not take leſs than twenty pounds. A journeyman may earn from ten to eighteen ſhillings a week; and it will require five hundred pounds and upwards to ſtock a ſhop or warehouſe.

WIRLWIND, a wind that riſes ſuddenly, is exceedingly rapid and impetuous, when riſen, but is ſoon ſpent.

There are divers ſorts of whirlwinds diſtinguiſhed by their peculiar names, as the preſter, which is a violent wind breaking forth with flaſhes of lightning.

The echnephia, a ſudden impetuous wind, breaking out of ſome cloud, frequent in the Ethiopic ſea, particularly about the Cape of Good Hope. The ſeamen call them travados. The echnephia generally accompanies the preſter. The exhydria is a wind burſting out of a cloud with a great quantity of water. A typho is an impetuous wind, running rapidly every way, and ſweeping all round the place. It is frequent in the eaſtern ocean, eſpecially on the coaſts of Siam, China, &c. and renders the navigation of thoſe parts exceeding dangerous.

WHITBY. By 1 *Ann. ſt.* 1. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1. from the firſt of May, 1702, for nine years, there ſhall be paid unto the truſtees herein named, viz. the lord of the manor, Ralph Boys, and others, for re-building the piers of the port of Whitby, by the owners of every ſhip that ſhall load coals at the port of Newcaſtle, or at Sunderland, Blithe, Seaton Sluce, or any other member of the ſaid port, one farthing *per* chaldron, and for all the coals landed within the port of Whitby, for every chaldron, town meaſure, ſix-pence, and for every ton weight of ſalt, landed at the port of Whitby, two ſhillings; and for every quarter of malt, corn, and grain, four-pence; and for all foreign goods imported in Engliſh bottoms, three-pence *per* ton; and all foreign bottoms importing ſuch goods, ſix-pence *per* ton; and for all butter ſhipped off from Whitby, one penny *per* firkin; for all dried fiſh and mud fiſh, ſhipped off from Whitby, one penny *per* ſcore; for all barrelled fiſh ſo ſhipped off, *per* barrel, three-pence. Every Engliſh ſhip, which ſhall enter within the piers, ſhall pay one ſhilling; and for every top of ſuch ſhips, four-pence; and all foreign ſhips two ſhillings; and for every top of ſuch ſhip four-pence, &c.

All money received by virtue of this act, ſhall be employed for the re-building and repairing the ſaid piers, except the charge of collecting, &c.

If the duties ſhall raiſe ſix thouſand pounds over and above the charge of collecting and intereſt, the duty of one farthing *per* chaldron upon coals ſhall ceaſe.

All ſhips Engliſh built, and manned according to the act of navigation, belonging to Great Yarmouth, ſhall be free from the ſaid duty of one farthing *per* chaldron; ſo as the maſter of ſuch ſhip, or ſome marriner on his behalf, produce a certificate made upon oath before the bailiffs of Yarmouth, that ſuch ſhips does belong to Yarmouth, and that the inhabitants thereof are owners of the major part of ſuch ſhip.

Continued until the firſt of May, 1723, by 7 *Ann*, and by 7 *Geo.* I. the duties before granted (except the ſaid duty of one farthing *per* chaldron) were made perpetual; and by 8 *Geo.* II. it was enacted, that from and after the firſt of June, 1735, the ſaid duty of one farthing *per* chaldron by 1 *Anne*, ſhould be revived for the term of thirty-one years, to commence from the firſt of June, 1735. And to rebuild or repair the Eaſt and Weſt piers of the ſaid harbour, an additional duty of a farthing *per* chaldron is granted by 23 *Geo.* II. to be paid from and after the firſt of June, 1750, for thirty-one years, by all veſſels loading or ſhipping coals at the port of Newcaſtle upon Tyne, or at Sunderland, Blythe, Seaton Sluice, Cullercoats, or any other harbour, colliery, or place, reputed a member of the port of Newcaſtle, &c.

WHITE, one of the colours of natural bodies. *See the article* COLOUR.

*White*, is a compoſition of all the colours; it being demonſtrated by Sir Iſaac Newton, that thoſe bodies only appear white, which equally reflect all the coloured rays.

WHITE LEAD. *See* LEAD.

WHITE-PEPPER. *See* PEPPER.

*Spaniſh* WHITE, a beautiful white colour, made of a ſolution of biſmuth in ſpirit of nitre, and precipitated by ſalt water.

WHITE-ASHES, may not be ſhipped, nor conveyed towards parts beyond the ſeas, upon forfeiture of ſix ſhillings and eight-pence *per* buſhel, 2 and 3 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 1.

WHITE-HAVEN. Whereas the town of Whitehaven, in the county of Cumberland, is, of late years, greatly improved in trade and ſhipping, and is yet capable of farther improvements therein, to the great advancement of her majeſty's revenue, the increaſe of ſhipping and navigation, and the benefit of the ſaid inhabitants, and of the adjacent country, if the harbour of the ſaid town can be preſerved, and was enlarged and regulated in a proper manner: and whereas the application of the accuſtomed duties, beſides ſeveral very conſiderable ſums, are found inſufficient to defray the growing charges of maintaining the ſaid harbour, and of making ſuch new works as are ſtill neceſſary for ſecuring it: to the end therefore that ſuch courſe may be for ever eſtabliſhed as ſhall be effectual for the purpoſes aforeſaid.

It is enacted by 7 *Ann*, that all that precinct, included within the limits and bounds herein after expreſſed, viz. beginning at the wharf, on the north-weſt end of Marlborough-ſtreet, and from hence, in a line north-eaſt and by north, till the middle of Lowther-ſtreet, open upon it, and from thence in a ſtreight line parallel to the range of the ſame ſtreet, directly to the low-water mark, from thence, by the low-water mark to the rock whereon the new mole is begun to be erected, and ſo along the ſaid rocks, by the low-water mark, till it anſwer the line of the ſaid mole, from thence along that line till it comes up to the ſaid mole, and ſo along the ſame mole, till it join upon the old pier at the platform, and from thence, including the ſaid platform, along the new wharf, till it meet with the wharf of the weſt ſtrand, near the houſe of Mary Addiſon, widow, from thence, along the ſame wharf by the cuſtomhouſe key, in a ſtreight line to the weſt ſide of the timber-yard, and ſo along the wall of the ſaid yard, to the north-weſt corner thereof, and from thence by the north-weſt wall of the ſame yard to the wharf where it began, as the ſame has lately been ſet out and bounded, is, and ſhall be from henceforth for ever, the harbour of Whitehaven aforeſaid, and appropriated to the lying, anchoring, and mooring of all ſuch ſhips, veſſels, and boats, as ſhall have occaſion, at any time or times hereafter, to make uſe of the ſame, and to no other uſe or purpoſe whatſoever.

No houſes, encloſures, or buildings whatſoever, ſhall, at any time hereafter, be made nearer the ſaid harbour, than is hereafter limited, viz. On the Weſt Strand, nearer than the preſent houſes, &c. there, on the new wharf between Mrs. Addiſon's houſe, and the north-eaſt corner of Henry Walker's ground-plot, nearer than the range of the ſaid houſe and ground, and from thence to the iron oar ſteaths, nearer than forty-eight yards at Henry Walker's, drawn to forty yards, at the ſaid ſteaths; from thence to the north-eaſt corner of the ſaid ſteaths, nearer than the eaſt range of the ſame, and from thence to the anchor-ſmith's, nearer than eighteen yards, and from hence to the platform, nearer than the range of Hewſon's ſmithy, and from the platform along the new mole, to the elbow of the ſaid mole, nearer than twelve yards, and from thence to the low-water mark, nearer than a line ſtretching to the north-weſt, and along the counter mole intended to be made on the north-eaſt ſide of the ſaid harbour, nearer than the range of the north-eaſt ſide of Lowther-ſtreet, nor from thence to the timber-yard, nearer than fifteen yards; but that all the ſpace aforeſaid ſhall be left free and open for the erecting of poſts for the mooring of ſhips and veſſels, and for the other uſes of common wharfs or keys for the conveniency of the ſhipping in repairs or otherwiſe; and that nothing ſhall be taken or demanded, for, or upon, the accounts of wharfage, for the uſe of any of the ſaid warfs or keys, nor for cranage thereon, unleſs James Lowther, Eſq; or his heirs, &c. and eleven or more of the truſtees herein after appointed, ſhall agree to erect or make any crane or cranes, or other engine, on the ſaid wharfs, or any of them, which they are hereby impowered to do, as they ſhall think convenient, for the better loading and unloading of any goods, in which caſe a reaſonable cranage, or recompence, ſhall be paid for the uſes of the ſaid harbour,

bour, by ſuch merchants, or others, as ſhall be willing to make uſe of the ſame, and not otherwiſe.

Provided, that the ſaid James Lowther, his heirs, &c. lords of the manor of St. Bees, in the ſaid county of Cumberland, ſhall and may, from time to time, continue the watch-houſe, and the blockmaker's ſhop, and ſtore-room at the end of the pier, and repair or rebuild the ſame, and receive the rents and profits thereof to his and their own uſe.

A ſufficient way, open and free for carts, and other carriages, ſhall be left along each of the ſaid wharfs, and along the ſaid pier, and through the wharf between Henry Walker's ground plot and the iron oar ſteaths, from the ground of the ſaid James Lowther behind the ſame wharf, not leſs than three yards, next adjoining upon the ſaid ſteaths; any thing in this act contained to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And as it is found neceſſary to compleat and finiſh the new mole aforeſaid, and to make a counter-mole and head on the north-eaſt ſide of the ſaid harbour, to ſtrengthen and repair the pier with a new bulwark and other works, and to cleanſe and deepen the ſaid harbour; be it *farther enacted*, that, in lieu of the aforeſaid accuſtomed duties of anchorage, which have been heretofore uſually paid (all which duties are hereby wholly and for ever taken away and diſcharged) there ſhall be paid, from and after the twenty-fifth of March, 1709, for the term of fourteen years then next enſuing, the ſeveral rates and duties herein after mentioned, viz. One half-penny for every ton, computing one hundred and ninety-two gallons, Wincheſter meaſure, to the ton, for all coals that ſhall be delivered to be put on board any ſhip or veſſel in the ſaid harbour for exportation; which duty on coals ſhall be paid by the maſter or other perſon, who ſhall have the rule or command of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, after the ſaid coals are ſo ſhipped, and before ſuch ſhip or veſſel go out of the ſaid harbour, and ſhall be diſcounted with the owner or proprietor of the ſaid coals out of the price of the ſame; and the ſaid maſter, &c. is hereby impowered to diſcount and detain the ſaid duty accordingly.

There ſhall be paid, for all goods and merchandize, which ſhall be imported and landed or diſcharged out of any ſhip or veſſel in the ſaid harbour, from and after the ſaid twenty-fifth of March, for, and during all the term aforeſaid, the ſeveral rates and duties following, viz. For every hogſhead of tobacco three-pence, for every hogſhead of ſugar ſix-pence, for every ton of wine, brandy, or other exciſeable liquors, two ſhillings, for every ton of hemp or flax one ſhilling and ſix-pence, for every hundred of deals eight-pence, for every laſt of pitch or tar eight-pence, for every ton of iron twelve-pence, for every ton or raft of other timber four-pence, for every barrel of herrings one-penny, for every pack of linen, containing two hundred weight, computing one hundred and twelve pounds to the hundred weight, one ſhilling; and proportionably for every greater or leſs quantity of the ſaid goods and merchandizes reſpectively, and for all other goods and merchandizes ſo imported, two-pence in every twenty ſhillings of the value, as they ſhall be rated and charged at the cuſtom-houſe; all which ſums of money and duties upon importation ſhall be paid by the merchant, or other perſon, into whoſe cuſtody or poſſeſſion, or by whoſe order, the ſaid goods and merchandize ſhall be delivered.

From and after the ſaid twenty-fifth of March, for, and during the term aforeſaid, every maſter, &c. commanding any ſhip or veſſel, ſhall pay for every ſuch ſhip or veſſel, upon her arrival at the ſaid port and harbour from any other port or place in the kingdoms of Great-Britain or Ireland, the ſum of two-pence *per* ton, and from any port or place of her laſt diſcharge in Europe, other than the kingdoms of Great-Britain or Ireland, the ſum of four-pence *per* ton; and from any port or place of her laſt diſcharge in Aſia, Africa, or America, the ſum of eight-pence *per* ton, according to the tonage of each ſhip or veſſel ſo arriving there, the ſaid tonage to be admeaſured as is deſcribed in an act the 5th and 6th of *Will.* and *Mar.* intituled, *An act for granting to their majeſties ſeveral rates and duties upon tonage of ſhips*, &c.

Provided, that for every ſhip or veſſel, which, during the term aforeſaid, ſhall, by ſtreſs of weather, be drove into the ſaid harbour of Whitehaven, or ſhall otherwiſe come into the ſame for ſecurity or preſervation (the ſaid port or harbour not being the port of their diſcharge or lading) there ſhall be paid one fourth part of the aforeſaid duties of tonage upon ſhipping, according to the ports or places from whence they ſhall arrive, as aforeſaid, reſpectively and no more.

From and after the expiration of the aforeſaid term of fourteen years, one-third part of the rates and duties herein before charged upon the tonage of ſhips and veſſels, and no more, ſhall for ever continue and be paid in manner aforeſaid, for the perpetual repairing, cleanſing, and maintaining, of the ſaid harbour of Whitehaven.

And, for the better collecting and diſpoſing of the ſeveral ſums of money, rates, and duties, hereby made payable, as well after the expiration of the ſaid term, as during the continuance of it, and for the making and ordering of the works herein before enumerated, and for the perpetual good order and regulation of the harbour aforeſaid; *be it enacted*, that the ſaid James Lowther, his heirs and aſſigns, lords of the manor of St. Bees aforeſaid, for the time being, or, in his or their abſence, any perſons deputed by them, under their hands and ſeals, and ſix other perſons to be likewiſe nominated, appointed, and changed, from time to time, by the ſaid James Lowther, his heirs and aſſigns aforeſaid, under their hands and ſeals, and William Feryes, Clement Nicholſon, Thomas Lutwidge, Robert Blacklock, Eliſha Gale, &c. merchants, until the firſt Friday in the month of Auguſt, 1716; and if, during that term, any of them happen to die or reſign, then ſuch perſon and perſons, as the greater part of the ſurvivors of them ſhall nominate and elect, during the reſidue of the ſaid term, and from thenceforth fourteen perſons to be choſen, nominated, and appointed, every three years, by ballot, by the majority of the inhabitants of the ſaid town of Whitehaven, at the time of ſuch election, dealing by way of merchandize in the goods ſubjected to the payments and duties aforeſaid, or any of them; or being maſter, or having any part or ſhare, not leſs than one-ſixteenth, of any ſhip or veſſel then actually belonging to the port of Whitehaven; the firſt election to be made on the ſaid firſt Friday in Auguſt, 1716, aforeſaid, at the courthouſe in the town of Whitehaven; and ſo, from time to time, on every firſt Friday of every month of Auguſt, in every third year after the ſaid firſt election ſucceſſively for ever, *ſhall be*, and are hereby conſtituted and appointed truſtees, for the ordering and directing the collection, receipt, and diſpoſal of the ſums of money and duties, which, from time to time, by virtue of this act, ſhall become due and payable, and for ordering and directing the building, and making the works in this act before enumerated, and for deepening, cleanſing, and regulating the ſaid harbour of Whitehaven, in ſuch manner as in this act is provided.

And to the end the ſaid duties and payments may be duly collected, levied, and paid, according to the true intent and meaning of this act, *it is further enacted*, that it ſhall be lawful for eleven or more of the ſaid truſtees, to chuſe and appoint ſuch collectors and receivers of the duties and monies payable by this act, and to diſplace them, and appoint others, as they ſhall think fit.

Provided, that the ſaid truſtees take for ſuch collectors, &c. good and ſufficient ſecurity for the faithful diſcharge of their reſpective duties, &c.

The ſaid collectors and receivers ſhall receive for their pains, in executing their offices, ſuch ſums as the truſtees ſhall think fit, not exceeding for all together, 12*d.* in the pound; and the truſtees are hereby impowered to meet on the firſt Friday in the month of June, in every year (or oftner, if they think fit) at the courthouſe in Whitehaven, to audit the ſaid collectors, &c. accounts, which, with all their proceedings relative to the truſts, ſhall be fairly entered into books provided for that purpoſe.

All the ſums of money and duties, collected by virtue of this act, ſhall be applied and diſpoſed for the uſes of the ſaid harbour, and in ſuch manner as is in this act directed, and for no other uſe, intent, or purpoſe whatſoever, viz. eleven or more of the ſaid truſtees ſhall, and may, from time to time, direct and order the making of the aforeſaid works, and the deepening and cleanſing of the ſaid harbour, in ſuch manner as they ſhall think moſt neceſſary

and

and conducive to the ends and purpoſes aforeſaid, according to the true intent and meaning of this act; and ſhall likewiſe order and direct the fixing and erecting of poſts for mooring, on the ſaid pier and wharfs, as they ſhall think expedient, and the perpetual repairing of the ſaid pier, moles, wharfs, and mooring poſts, and the cleanſing and maintaining of the ſaid harbour; and ſhall order the removal of all annoyances to the ſaid harbour and wharfs, and may contract with workmen; but firſt repay the charges of paſſing this act, &c.

Provided always, that no other walls, encloſures, or breaſt-works, but what are directed in this act, be made within the limits of the ſaid harbour, upon any pretence whatſoever, without the conſent and approbation of the ſaid James Lowther, his heirs, &c. and of ſeventeen, or more, of the reſt of the ſaid truſtees for the time being.

*And be it further enacted*, that no ſhip ſhall unload any ballaſt in the ſaid harbour in the night time, nor throw any thing into it, either of ſtone, rubbiſh, &c. There ſhall not be kept any fire, nor any lighted candle, (except in a lanthorn, or in caſe of neceſſity) on board any ſhip or veſſel lying in the ſaid harbour, under different penalties, &c. That, if any ſhip or veſſel ſhall, through miſmanagement or careleſneſs, run foul, or bilge upon the pier, moles, or new wharf, belonging to the ſaid harbour, whereby the ſame ſhall be any ways damnified, the maſter or ruler of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall, with all convenient ſpeed, upon notice, repair the damages ſo ſuſtained, at the charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, under the penalty of double the value thereof, for every ſuch neglect. That, for the natural ſecurities of the ſaid harbour, no perſon ſhall quarry, take, or carry away any ſtones, either below the high-water mark, or from the Baurgh, &c.

Provided nevertheleſs, that the ſaid James Lowther, &c. and any ſeventeen, or more, of the reſt of the truſtees, may, from time to time, as they ſhall ſee occaſion to explain or alter, all, or any, the aforeſaid orders, in this act particularly provided, or the penalties of the ſame; and alſo to ſubſtitute or make any farther or other orders and by-laws, for the better government and regulation of the ſaid harbour, and the wharfs aforeſaid, and under ſuch penalties, not exceeding ſix ſhillings and eight-pence for any one offence, as they ſhall judge requiſite for that purpoſe; and that they may alſo, by the like concurrence, make any other work or works, in, or about the ſaid harbour, as well for the better preſerving, ſecuring, cleanſing, and deepening the ſame, as alſo for the more convenient docking, repairing, and cleanſing of ſhips or boats, or for any other uſes, improvement, or accommodation of the ſaid harbour, or of the ſhipping therein, as they ſhall find neceſſary or expedient; any thing in this act contained to the contrary hereof notwithſtanding.

And for the more effectually preventing the throwing of aſhes, &c. into the harbour, fifteen, or more, of the truſtees, with the conſent of the ſaid James Lowther, may appoint and agree with a ſcavenger, within the ſaid town, for carrying away the dirt, &c.

All penalties for any offence committed within the precincts of the ſaid harbour, after deducting the charges of proſecution, and allowance to informers, as the truſtees ſhall think fit, ſhall be applied to the uſes of the ſaid harbour, which penalties may be recovered by diſtreſs and ſale, &c.

In caſe the collectors and maſters of ſhips cannot agree about the tonage, it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid collectors, at all convenient and ſeaſonable times, to enter into ſuch ſhips, and to admeaſure the ſame, according to the directions of the act of parliament for that purpoſe, which admeaſurement ſhall be the rule to charge ſuch ſhips, then, and at all times afterwards; and, in caſe any maſter, &c. do not, upon reaſonable demand, pay the aforeſaid duty upon coals, chargeable upon him by this act, and to be diſcounted upon the coal owner, as aforeſaid; and likewiſe, in caſe any ſuch maſter do not, upon like reaſonable demand, after the tonage of the ſaid ſhip is agreed unto, pay the ſaid duty upon tonage, it ſhall be lawful for the collectors to take any tackle, &c. belonging unto ſuch ſhip or veſſel, by way of diſtreſs, and to ſell the ſame, in caſe payment is delayed for three days, &c.

And, in caſe the ſums, appointed by this act to be paid for any goods or merchandizes imported, ſhall not be paid by the merchant, or owner thereof, upon reaſonable demand made, the collectors may diſtrain all, or any part thereof, or any other goods belonging to the ſaid merchants or owners, which ſhall then or afterwards come to, or be found in, the precincts of the ſaid harbour; and, in caſe of non payment in three days, may ſell the ſame, &c.

The officers of the cuſtoms at the port of Whitehaven, ſhall permit the collectors of the duty hereby given, without fee, to reſort unto, inſpect, and take cognizance, of any entries which ſhall be made there, of any goods or merchandize, chargeable by this act; and the ſaid officers of the cuſtoms ſhall not diſcharge any ſhip outwards or inwards, until the duties hereby granted for tonage on ſhips and coals ſhall be paid, to be proved by the maſter's producing a certificate thereof under the collector's hand, &c.

And, the better to cleanſe and deepen the ſaid harbour, it ſhall be lawful for eleven or more of the truſtees, to order the digging and removing any ſtones, &c. within the precincts of the ſaid harbour, &c. and likewiſe they ſhall have free liberty to dig, quarry, and take all ſuch ſtones within the ſaid harbour, as may be uſeful for walling or otherwiſe, and to uſe the ſame in the works of the ſaid harbour, and to ſell ſuch part of them as there ſhall be no occaſion for, and apply the money ariſing by ſuch ſales to the uſes of the ſaid harbour only; and, if there be not ſtones ſufficient for the ſaid work, to be got within the precincts of the ſaid harbour, they ſhall have liberty to quarry, and take ſo much more, as together with the ſtones ariſing within the ſaid harbour, ſhall be neceſſary for the uſes and purpoſes of it, in any place or places upon the ſea ſhore, within the manor of St. Bees, beyond the aforeſaid line, drawn from the weſtern points of Tombeard-Rocks to the Baurgh.

Eleven or more of the truſtees ſhall, by writing under their hands, appoint a pier-maſter, to continue during their pleaſure, who ſhall have power to order the regular lying, anchoring, and mooring of ſhips and veſſels in the ſaid harbour, and to determine any difference that may happen in relation thereto, and to cauſe a due execution and obſervance of the rules in this act, appointed, &c. and the truſtees are hereby impowered to allow ſuch perſon a ſalary, not exceeding 20*l. per annum*, &c.

And, for the better ſecurity of ſhips, which may have occaſion to put into the ſaid harbour in bad weather, all that part of Whitehaven-Bay, lying on the north eaſt of the ſaid intended counter-mole, ſhall be always left with a free and open beach to the full ſea, and that no walls, wharfs, or breaſt-works, ſhall, at any time, be made there, upon any pretence whatſoever, in any ſuch depth of water, as may endanger any ſhip or veſſel to ſtrike or run upon the ſame, without the conſent and approbation of ſeventeen of the truſtees for the time being.

Provided nevertheleſs, that, as the land ſhall happen to gain on the ſea, on the north-eaſt ſide, of the ſaid countermole, it ſhall be lawful for ſuch perſons as ſhall be owners of ſuch lands to advance any buildings, or other works, at their will or pleaſure, ſo as not to endanger the ſtriking of any ſhip or veſſel thereon; any thing herein contained to the contrary thereof notwithſtanding.

And as the temporary duties, granted by this act, cannot of a long time raiſe ſuch a ſum of money, as may be ſufficient for the aforeſaid extraordinary works, which are to be done at the ſaid harbour; *it is therefore further enacted*, that eleven or more of the ſaid truſtees are hereby impowered by deed or deeds, indented under their hands and ſeals, to convey and aſſure all the ſaid duties hereby granted, or any part of them, for all, or any part of the ſaid term of fourteen years, as they ſhall judge requiſite, to any perſon or perſons, who ſhall be willing to lend or advance any ſum or ſums of money thereupon, at intereſt, not exceeding the rate of ſix pounds *per centum per annum*, which money, ſo lent or advanced, ſhall be employed for, and towards the uſes of the ſaid harbour, according to the true intent and meaning of this act, &c.

If any action, ſuit, &c. ſhall be commenced, &c. againſt any perſon, for any thing that he ſhall do in purſuance of this act, &c. he may plead the general iſſue, &c. and this act ſhall be taken, and allowed, in all courts, as a publick act, &c.



*Continued*

*Continued by* 10 *Annæ for* 14 *years.*

The preamble of 13 *Geo.* II. recites the acts 7 and 10 *Annæ*, and ſhews their deficiency; and then this act continues the ſaid two recited acts for twenty-one years, to commence after the 10th day of April, 1740, except ſo far as either of them are by this act enlarged, altered, or otherwiſe explained.

It is further *enacted*, that the truſtees appointed by the former, or this preſent act, have power to mortgage all or any part of the duties (ſubject to the forementioned debt of 938*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.* 3*q.*) to any perſon who ſhall advance money thereon, to effect the neceſſary purpoſes of this act, and ſecure the repayment of the ſums ſo advanced, with intereſt for the ſame.

The money directed to be borrowed by this act ſhall be applied, in the firſt place to diſcharge the ſaid ſum of 938*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.* 3*q.* borrowed by authority of former acts, with the intereſt, and afterwards for making ſuch new works as may be neceſſary for improving the ſaid harbour, and keeping the ſame in good repair.

After the ſaid ſums are paid off, and the harbour judged, by the juſtices of the quarter-ſeſſions, to be in good repair, the temporary duties ſhall ceaſe, and a moiety only of the duties on tonage of veſſels, granted by the former acts, ſhall continue to keep the harbour in repair for ever.

This act ſhall be deemed a publick act, &c.

*The reſt of the preceding act is only relative to mending the roads, and ſetting up turnpikes in the neighbourhood of Whitehaven, and conſequently, as having no affinity with the maritime affairs we are now treating of, its inſertion here would be ſuperfluous and unneceſſary.*

WIDOW. *See* MARRIAGE SETTLEMENTS, *and* SETTLEMENTS SEPARATE.

WIFE. *Wills in favour of a bankrupt's wife.* I. S. married his daughter to one Bennett, (*Bennett* a *Davis.* 2 *Peer Will.* 316. *Mich.* 1725, *at the Rolls.*) a tradeſman in London, who was extravagant and in debt; the father makes his will, and deviſes the premiſes in queſtion (being lands in fee) to his daughter, the wife of Bennett, for her ſeparate uſe, excluſive of her huſband, to hold to her and her heirs; and that her huſband ſhould not be tenant by the courteſy, nor have theſe lands for his life in caſe he ſurvived his wife, but they ſhould, upon the wife's death, go to her heirs.

Soon after this the teſtator dies, and Bennett becoming a bankrupt, the commiſſioners aſſign the lands to the defendant Davis, in truſt for the creditors; and upon Davis's bringing his ejectment, the bankrupt's wife, by her next friend, prefers her bill againſt Davis the aſſignee and her huſband, to compel them to aſſign over this eſtate to her ſeparate uſe.

It was objected on behalf of the defendant, that he being a creditor, and having the law on his ſide, it would be hard to take that benefit from him; and that though the teſtator might intend theſe lands for the ſeparate uſe of his daughter, yet that this intention was not executed according to law, as the premiſes were not deviſed to truſtees for the ſeparate uſe of the wife, and according to law the huſband, during the coverture, was entitled to the wife's eſtate in her right; and it was farther urged, that the caſe of a deviſe of a legacy or of a term to the wife for her ſeparate uſe might be good, becauſe theſe remained in the executor until aſſent, and equity would not compel the executor to aſſent, whereby the intention of the teſtator ſhould be diſappointed, but would continue the executor a truſtee for the feme covert. Whereas in the preſent caſe, the deviſe being of lands in fee to the wife, who by the will only had an immediate title thereto, the huſband muſt conſequently be entitled to the profits in her right.

That here was no truſt, the teſtator never having intended to truſt the huſband, and the wife could not be a truſtee for herſelf; beſides, the huſband could not be a truſtee for the wife, they both being but one perſon.

On the other hand, the plaintiff's counſel would have read *parol evidence*, to prove that the teſtator did not intend theſe lands ſhould be liable to the huſband's debts; but the court would not permit ſuch evidence to be read, it being in the caſe of a deviſe of land, which by the ſtatute muſt be all of it in writing.

As to the chief point, the maſter of the Rolls took it to be a clear caſe, that it was a truſt in the huſband, and that there was no difference where the truſt was created by an act of the party, and where by the act of law.

If I ſhould deviſe that my lands ſhould be charged with debts or legacies, my heir taking ſuch lands by deſcent, would be but a truſtee; and no remedy for theſe debts and legacies but in equity: ſo in the principal caſe, there being an apparent intention that the wife ſhould enjoy theſe lands to her ſeparate uſe: by that means the huſband, who would otherwiſe be entitled to take the profits in his right during the coverture, is now declared and made a truſtee for his wife; and admitting the huſband to be a truſtee, then the argument of the creditors having the law on their ſide, was immaterial; as if the bankrupt had been a truſtee for I. S. his bankruptcy ſhould not in equity effect the truſt eſtate; and that though the huſband (the bankrupt) might be tenant by the courteſy, yet he ſhould be but a truſtee for the heirs of the wife. Alſo when the teſtator had a power to deviſe the premiſes to truſtees, for the ſeparate uſe of the wife, this court, in compliance with his declared intention, will ſupply the want of them, and make the huſband truſtee. And the defendant, the aſſignee, who claiming under the huſband can have no better right than the huſband, muſt join in a conveyance, for the ſeparate uſe of the wife, which was *decreed accordingly.*

The defendant's teſtator by his will deviſed eight hundred pounds to be paid within ſix months after his death to one Mr. Define, in truſt, that he ſhould lay it out and inveſt it in a purchaſe for the benefit of the wife of I. S. and to ſettle it ſo, as after the death of the wife it might come to her children, and the intereſt in the mean time to be paid to ſuch perſon as ought to receive the profits. I. S. becomes a bankrupt, and the plaintiff, as aſſignee under the ſtatute, would have the intereſt of this money decreed to him, during the joint lives of baron and feme, 2 *Vern.* 96. *Eaſt. Term.* 1689. *Vandenanker* a *Deſbrough.*

*Per curiam:* this not being any *truſt created by the huſband, or any thing out of his eſtate*, but given by a relation of the wife's, and intended for her maintenance, it is not liable to the creditors of the huſband, and the plaintiff hath no title thereto as aſſignee of the commiſſion of bankrupt; and therefore *decreed* it ſhould be paid to Define the truſtee, to be laid out in land, and ſettled according to the will.

The caſe of Drake and the mayor of Exeter was cited, where there was a leaſe for twenty-one years, with a covenant for renewal at the end of the term; the leſſee became a bankrupt; adjudged, the aſſignee under the ſtatute ſhould have no benefit of that covenant.

Walter Wallinger by his will left to his niece Elizabeth Tayleur, an infant, one thouſand pounds, payable after the death of the teſtator's wife, and at his ſaid niece's age of twenty-one years, if ſhe ſhould ſo long live, *Jackſon & al.* a *Williams.*

The niece married I. S. without the knowledge or conſent of her father, I. S. being at that time much in debt by judgment and otherwiſe; and gained the young gentlewoman's conſent by the influence of a maid ſervant, whom he had bribed to his intereſt. The niece was about eighteen years of age, 1 *Peer Will.* 383. *Caſe* 100. *Mich. Term.* 1717. *L. C. Cowper, Abr. Caſes in Eq.* 54.

Soon after the marriage I. S. became a bankrupt, and the commiſſioners of bankruptcy aſſigned over all the eſtate and effects of the bankrupt to the plaintiffs, in truſt for the creditors, who brought their bill for this legacy; the teſtator's widow being dead, and the niece being about twenty-one years old, and conſequently the legacy due; and the bankrupt had two children by his wife then living.

This cauſe coming on before baron Price, in the abſence of the lord chancellor, the baron, in regard to the creditors, did decree the legacy and intereſt to be paid to the plaintiffs.

But upon an appeal from that decree to the lord chancellor, his lordſhip declared, that forafmuch as the plaintiffs, the aſſignees in the commiſſion, claimed under the bankrupt, they ought not to be in a better caſe than the bankrupt himſelf; and ſince, if he had brought a bill for his legacy, the court would not have allowed it him, without obliging him at the ſame time to make ſome proviſion for the wife and children; ſo, for the ſame reaſon, when theſe claiming under the bankrupt, and who muſt be exactly in the ſame caſe as he himſelf would have been

in, come for equity, they ought to do equity, which would be to provide for the wife and children of the bankrupt, from whom they derived their claim. But with regard to the intereſt of the money, as the bankrupt commonly was allowed to receive that, ſo the aſſignees ought to receive the ſame during the bankrupt's life; alſo if the bankrupt's wife ſhould die without iſſue, then the bankrupt would have been allowed to receive the whole money, and therefore in ſuch caſe the aſſignees ſhould be allowed to receive it alſo.

However, his lordſhip ſaid, that as a judge had been of a contrary opinion, he would take time to conſider of it.

And on the cauſe's coming on again, the caſe of Taylor and Wheeler was cited; and it was moreover obſerved to the court, that the bankrupt had in this caſe gained his certificate and was diſcharged, and that the aſſignment made to the complainants being before the legacy was veſted, if they could not now ſupply the aſſignment, by making a new one, the conſequence was that the legacy was veſted in the bankrupt.

But the lord chancellor replied that this not appearing in the pleadings, he would take no notice of it; nevertheleſs, at another day the fact being made to appear by a petition with the certificate of the commiſſioners, and the allowance of the lord chancellor Harcourt annexed, the court ſaid it was clear, the commiſſioners, could not aſſign this poſſibility of right which the bankrupt had to the portion, and conſequently the aſſignees being plaintiffs in the bills, and entitling themſelves under this aſſignment, and this aſſignment being void, with reſpect to ſuch poſſibility *, therefore the bill muſt be diſmiſſed, but without coſts, becauſe the plaintiffs were creditors.

* *But the reaſon given above*, viz. *becauſe the bankrupt, the huſband, could not have come at his wife's portion without the aſſiſtance of a court of equity, which would not have decreed it to him, but on his making ſome proviſion for his wife, ſeems to have been the beſt foundation for his decree; ſince a poſſibility or contingent intereſt is certainly aſſignable by the commiſſioners. Thus in the caſe* Higden. v. Williamſon, *firſt heard at the Rolls, Mich.* 1731, *and afterwards affirmed by lord chancellor King, in Mich.* 1732. *The caſe in effect was, an eſtate was deviſed to be ſold, and the monies ariſing from ſuch ſale to be divided among ſuch of the children of* A *as ſhould be living at his death:* A *had ſeveral children, one of whom, viz.* B *became a bankrupt, and the commiſſioners aſſigned over his eſtate, after which* B *got his certificate allowed; and then* A *died: declared that this ſhare of this money, which on* A's *death belonged to* B *ſhould be paid to the commiſſioners; for that not only the latter ſtatutes relating to bankruptcy mentioned the word poſſibility, but alſo becauſe the* 13 Eliz. c. 7. ſ. 2. *empowers the commiſſioners to aſſign all that the bankrupt might depart with; and here* B *in the life-time of* A *might have releaſed this contingent intereſt. Beſides, the* 21 Jac. I. c. 19. *enacts, that the ſtatutes relating to bankrupts ſhall be conſtrued in the moſt beneficial manner for creditors.*

Afterwards in Trinity Term 1718, the wife of I. S. by her next friend, having brought a bill, ſetting forth her having been ſeduced into this marriage, and the huſband's bankruptcy, together with the certificate for his diſcharge, prayed that the money might be put out for her ſeparate uſe for her life, and afterwards for her children; to which the huſband putting in his anſwer, and declaring himſelf ſenſible of his having injured his wife, in manner as above, ſubmitted to what was deſired by the bill, only he prayed the arrears of intereſt.

On the other hand, the aſſignees oppoſed the bill, inſiſting, that the commiſſioners might ſtill make a new aſſignment of this, which was now and not before veſted.

But by lord chancellor Parker, the commiſſioners have executed their power, and the debts which the huſband, the bankrupt, owed to the creditors before the bankruptcy, are now extinct by act of parliament; and this portion is as a new acquired eſtate by the huſband in right of his wife; wherefore ſince the huſband agreed to this prayer of the wife's bill (which is but a reaſonable reparation for the wrong he had done her) *decree* the huſband the arrears of intereſt, deducting the coſts, and let the legacy be laid out in a purchaſe; and in the mean time let the wife have the intereſt for her ſeparate uſe, &c. by which means the whole legacy was ſaved to the wife, and to her ſeparate uſe. *See* ARTICLES *before marriage*, FREE-BENCH, SETTLEMENTS *and* MARRIAGE SETTLEMENTS.

WILD-FOWL, the taking of pheaſants and partridges with nets on the ground of another prohibited, 11 *H.* VII. *c.* 17.

Taking the eggs of falcons and ſwans prohibited, 11 *H.* VII. *c.* 17.

The taking of young herons prohibited, 19 *H.* VII. *c.* 11.

Killing wild-fowl in June and July prohibited, 25 *H.* VIII. *c.* 11. repealed, 3 and 4 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 7.

Taking their eggs prohibited, 25 *H.* VIII. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 3. 3 and 4 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 7. *ſ.* 2.

Buying and ſelling pheaſants and partridges (except by the officers of the houſhold) prohibited, 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 8.

Taking the eggs or birds of hawks, made felony, 32 *H.* VIII. *c.* 11.

The ducks, &c. between the firſt of July and firſt of September prohibited, 9 *Ann. c.* 25. *ſ.* 4.

The time enlarged between the firſt of June and firſt of October, 10 *Geo.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 10.

WIGTOUN, beſides its own diſtrict, comprehends alſo the weſt part of Galloway, which produces excellent wool, and briſk, hardy little horſes, called after the county, Galloways; the rivers abound with ſalmon, and both parts having ſeveral good harbours, they might carry on a much better trade than they do, was the induſtry of the inhabitants correſpondent with the products of the country.

WILL, in law, a ſolemn and authentic act, whereby a perſon diſpoſes of his eſtate and effects.

The common law call that a will when lands and tenements are given; and where it concerns goods and chattels alone, it is termed a teſtament. *See* WIFE.

WILTSHIRE, being one of the principal counties in England for the woollen manufactures, we ſhall here make a ſummary of what we have ſaid concerning them in the others; and in doing it, ſhall join ſome of the celebrated Mr. Daniel De Foe's remarks on theſe fabricks, in his Complete Engliſh Tradeſmen, to what experience, and ſome other authors have furniſhed us with.

This and the other large and populous counties of Somerſet, Glouceſter, and Devon, have manufactures ſo exceeding great as to employ above a million of people in them; and this will appear to be far from an exaggeration, if it is conſidered, that beſides the populous cities of Exeter, Saliſbury, Wells, Bath, Briſtol, and Glouceſter; the largeſt towns, and a greater number of them than any other part of Great-Britain can ſhew, and of which ſome exceed in magnitude the great northern towns of Leeds, Wakefield, Sheffield, &c. ſuch as Taunton, Devizes, Tiverton, Crediton, Bradford, Trowbridge, Weſtbury, Froom, Stroud, Biddeford, Barnſtaple, Dartmouth, Bridgewater, Blandford, Wimbourn, Sherbourn, Cirenceſter, Minehead, Pool, Weymouth, Dorcheſter, Honiton, Malmſbury, Warminſter, Tedbury, Tewkſbury, and many others, too numerous to be inſerted, as they amount to about a hundred and twenty market towns, and more than thirteen hundred pariſhes, are all employed either in ſpinning, weaving, or ſome other preparatory branch of the woollen manufactory; and notwithſtanding the aſſiſtance is ſo great, and the hands ſo many, yet it is by ſome affirmed that they purchaſe yearly thirty thouſand packs of wool, and twenty-five thouſand packs of yarn ready ſpun from Ireland.

It has already occaſionally been obſerved, that the interior or middle parts of England do alſo ſupply their ſhare of wool, as Leiceſter, Northampton, and Warwick ſhires feed a prodigious number of large ſheep (like thoſe of Lincolnſhire) for the London market, whoſe wool being of an extraordinary long ſtaple, and exceeding fine, is carried (or the greateſt part of it) weekly, on Tueſdays and Fridays, to Cirenceſter market, (which borders on Glouceſterſhire and Wilts) being not leſs in quantity than five hundred packs per week, and is there bought by the combers and carders of Tedbury, Malmſbury, and moſt of the towns on that ſide of the aforeſaid two counties, extra of what the clothiers purchaſe themſelves, and diſtribute among the poor of the neighbouring parts for ſpinning; which being performed, the yarn is diſperſed as far as Froom, Warminſter,

Warminſter, and Tanerton, and ſo made to ſupply the manufactures of the Weſt-country.

That part of the Leiceſterſhire wool, which remains undiſpoſed of in this manner, is carried northward to Wakefield, Leeds, and Halifax, where it is mixed and worked up with the wool of thoſe counties not eſteemed in general ſo fine as the ſouthern ones produce, though the fleece from the woulds, or downs, in the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire, and the biſhopric of Durham, is an exception to the above remark, as it is very fine and of a good ſtaple, more eſpecially from the banks of the Tees, that are for a conſiderable ſpace of a rich ſoil, and the ſheep deemed the largeſt in England; it is hither that all the beſt wool of the neighbouring territories is brought; and the coarſer ſort with that from Scotland, carried into Halifax, Rochdale, Bury, and the manufacturing towns of Lancaſhire, Weſtmoreland, and Cumberland, and there employed in the coarſer fabricks of thoſe counties, as kerſies, halfthicks, yarn-ſtockings, duffels, rugs, Turkey-work chairs, and many other uſeful manufactures, which thoſe parts abound in.

But it muſt not be underſtood from what we have here mentioned of the aforeſaid manufactures, that they are confined to the places there quoted, as they flouriſh in many other parts of the kingdom, and are taken notice of in the ſeveral counties and places where they are eſtabliſhed. The products of this ſhire are, beſides its ſheep and wool, a little fuller's earth, many of the famous rabbits of Auburn Chaſe, and a large quantity of cheeſe, as mentioned under Berkſhire and Somerſetſhire.

WIND, a ſtream or current of air. As the air is a fluid, its natural ſtate is that of reſt, which it endeavours always to keep or retrieve by an univerſal æquilibrium of all its parts.

When therefore this natural æquilibrium of the atmoſphere happens by any means to be deſtroyed in any part, there neceſſarily follows a motion of all the circumjacent air towards that part, to reſtore it; and this motion of the air is what we call wind.

*Cardinal* WINDS, are thoſe which blow from the eaſt, weſt, north, and ſouth, which are called cardinal points.

*Collateral* WINDS, are thoſe which blow between the cardinal points. The number of theſe is infinite, as the number of points they blow from are; a few of them only are conſidered in practice, and theſe have names compounded of the cardinal points between which they blow. *See* COMPASS.

WINDLASS, *or* WINDLACE, a machine uſed to raiſe great weights withal, as guns, ſtones, anchors, &c.

It is very ſimple, conſiſting only of an axis and roller ſupported horizontally at two ends ſupported by two pieces of wood and a pulley. The two pieces of wood meet a-top, being placed diagonally ſo as to prop each other. The axis, or roller, goes through the two pieces, and turns in them. The pulley is faſtened a-top, where the pieces join. Two-ſtaves, or hand-ſpikes, go through the roller, whereby it is turned, and the rope which comes over the pulley is wound on it.

WINDLASS in a ſmall veſſel, is a machine placed upon the deck, near the head, to weigh the anchors with. It conſiſts of a piece of timber, having ſix or eight ſquares. It is turned by handſpikes put into holes made for that purpoſe.

WINE, *vinum*, a liquor made of the expreſſed juice of the grape, which, immediately after preſſure, is called muſt, and being fermented becomes wine. The fermentation cauſes a ſeparation of the groſs tartar, and the viſcous part of the muſt from the pure ſulphureous and oily ones, in which are the ſpirit and eſſential ſalt. The ſolid part of the tartar adheres to the ſides of the veſſel, and the viſcous falls to the bottom.

The difference of flavour, taſte, colour, and body, in wines, is, perhaps, as much owing to the different manner and time of preſſing, gathering, fermenting, &c. the grape, as to any difference of the grape itſelf. In Hungary, whence Tockay and ſome of the richeſt and higheſt-flavoured wines come, they are extremely curious in theſe reſpects: for their prime and moſt delicate wines, the grape is ſuffered to continue upon the vine, till it is half dried by the heat of the ſun; and, if the ſun's heat ſhould not prove ſufficient, they are dried by the gentle heat of a furnace, and then picked one by one from the ſtalks; the juice of this grape, when preſſed out, is of a fine flavour, and ſweet as ſugar: this, after due fermentation, is kept for a year, and then racked from the lees, when it proves a generous, oily, rich wine, and is ſold at a very high rate. The Hungarians prepare a ſecond ſort of wine, by collecting together the better kind of grapes, carefully picking the fruit from the ſtalks, and then preſſing out the juice: this is extremely ſweet, and is made richer by infuſing in it, after it has fermented for ſome days, a ſufficient quantity of half dried grapes. This wine, is very ſweet, oily, of a grateful taſte, and retains theſe qualities for a long time. There is a third ſort made from the pure juice of the ſame kind of grape, without any addition. This is a more briſk and lively wine, and far leſs ſweet. They likewiſe prepare a fourth ſort, from grapes of different goodneſs mixed together; this, though not ſo general, is, nevertheleſs, an excellent wine. Theſe Hungarian wines are remarkable for preſerving their ſweetneſs, and for the delicacy of their taſte and ſmell; they likewiſe, do not grow eaſily vapid, and may be kept in perfection for many years.

The practice of the Hungarians, which we have extracted from Mr. Hoffman's obſervations, fairly points out a method of improving muſt, or the juice of the grape, ſo as to make it of any aſſignable degree of richneſs and ſtrength; and the celebrated Dr. Stahl has given us another method of improving poor thin wines, ſo as to make them ſtrong and full-bodied, without any ways altering their natural flavour or taſte. This he effects by expoſing a quantity of the liquor in proper veſſels to the action of cold freezing air, which, ſoon congealing the watery parts alone, ſuffers the richer to be poured from them. By this means, we have made the product of our own country cyder of ſuch a degree of ſtrength and richneſs, as to equal, if not exceed, the ſtrongeſt-bodied wines, and to ſtand the alternatives of the winter's cold, and the ſummer's ſun, without alteration; and if as much care was taken in the culture, choice, and management of the fruit, and particularly in the preſſure, and ſlow wary fermentation of the juice, there is reaſon to expect that the flavour and taſte would not fall far ſhort even of the more excellent wines.

WINE, *oil and honey*. The ton to contain two hundred and fifty-two gallons, the pipe or butt one hundred and twenty-ſix gallons, the hogſhead ſixty-three gallons, the barrel thirty-one gallons and a half, the rundlet eighteen gallons and a half, 2 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1. 18 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 1. 1 *Rich.* II. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 1.

Wines imported, are diſcharged from the impoſition of exciſe, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 15.

Or vinegar, landed before payment and ſecurity of the impoſt duty, are forfeited, or their value, and the importers are to pay the ſaid duty notwithſtanding, 1 *Jac.* II. *c.* 3. *ſ.* 5.

Wines, firſt landed in the out-ports, and carried afterwards to London by certificate, are to pay ſo much more as they paid ſhort of the duties due in London.

Every hogſhead run out, and not full ſeven inches, or above, and every pipe or butt not above nine inches leſt therein, are to be accounted for outs, and no duty is to be paid for the ſame.

Of the growth of Hungary, may be imported from Hamborough, paying duty as Rheniſh wines, 1 *Ann.* *c.* 12. *ſ.* 112.

Imported, twelve *per cent.* to be allowed for leakage.

Damaged, corrupt, or unmerchantable—Upon the importer's refuſing to pay or ſecure the duties, may at the landing be delivered up into the cuſtody of the officers of the cuſtoms, in order to be publickly ſold to be diſtilled into brandy, or made into vinegar; and that they ſhall not be uſed for any other purpoſe, ſecurity muſt be taken, which may be diſcharged upon a certificate (within three months after delivery) that they have been ſo uſed, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 3. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 20.

The produce of ſuch ſale is to be paid to the importer, by certificate, as a compenſation for the freight, &c. but ſuch allowance muſt not exceed four pounds for every ton of wine of the growth of France and Germany, and eight pounds for every ton of all other wines ſo delivered up; and if there be any overplus beyond the ſaid allowance, it muſt

muſt be placed to the duties out of which the charges have been paid, 6 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 4. 12 *Geo.* I. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 20.

But no allowance may be made for ſuch wines, unleſs they be imported in caſks on board a merchant's ſhip directly from the place of their growth, or the uſual place of their firſt ſhipping, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 19. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Except ſaved from ſhips ſtranded, which are to enjoy the ſame allowances as if imported in the ſhip wherein they were firſt laden, 8 *Geo.* I. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 20. 27 *Geo.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Except of the growth of the dominions of the great duke of Tuſcany, in open flaſks, or of Turkey, or any other parts of the Levant ſeas, may not be imported in flaſks or bottles, or in veſſels or caſks which ſhall contain leſs than twenty-five gallons, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value; to be ſued for in any of the courts of record in Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exchequer in Scotland, or by the laws of exciſe, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 7, 8.

Exceeding in quantity ten gallons, which have been imported from foreign parts into any of the out-ports, may not be brought from any place, either by land or water, into the port of London, or members thereof, or within twenty miles of the Royal Exchange, before the proprietor has paid to the collector, or proper officer of the cuſtoms, neareſt to the place from whence the wine is intended to be removed, the duties payable in any of the out-ports, and alſo the difference between the duties payable there and in the port of London on importation.

In bottles exceeding three dozen, and in caſks ten gallons, at the ſame time and in the ſame carriage, ſo removed without a certificate from ſuch collector or proper officer expreſſing the quantity and quality, and that the duties have been paid as above, or that the ſame was wine ſold for ſalvage, or has been compounded for or condemned, is forfeited, together with the caſks or veſſels containing it, and may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, and proſecuted in the ſame manner as any unaccuſtomed wines, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 1.

If after removal, and payment of the duties as above, it is ſtaved, loſt or periſhed before its arrival as aforeſaid, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or any three of them, upon proof thereof upon oath to their ſatisfaction, are to cauſe repayment to be made to the proprietor of the difference between the duties payable in the out-ports and in London, out of the duties payable on wines, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2.

WINE-COOPER. The boy deſigned for the buſineſs of a wine-cooper, ought to have a very nice and delicate palate, that he may diſtinguiſh, with great exactneſs, the peculiar properties and flavours of wine; but he needs only the common education of a tradeſman.

The wine-cooper in London is a wholeſale and retail dealer in wine; and receives the name of a cooper from his taking care of the caſks as well as the liquor they contain. He mixes wine of different growth, to anſwer the flavour and taſte of his cuſtomers; he fixes them down, purges them from their lees, and renders them fit for drinking; he recovers them when they are pricked; preſerves them when on the fret; and revives their colour and flavour when loſt by age or by accident. This is the honeſt part of the buſineſs; but there are ſome of this trade, who not contented with compounding wine, and removing its defects, convert cyder, mixed with ſloes, molaſſes and other materials, into the reſemblance of mountain, port, canary, and other products of the vine; and are become ſo expert at deceiving the palate, that few can diſtinguiſh the true juice of the grape, from the ſophiſticated liquor brewed by the wine-cooper. However, ſome of them import great quantities of wine; and theſe laſt generally aſſume the name of wine merchants.

Thoſe of this buſineſs take from about twenty-five to two hundred pounds with an apprentice; who, when out of his time, may have a guinea a week, beſides his perquiſites, which are very large; and it will require from about five hundred to five thouſand pounds to ſet up maſter.

WINE-MERCHANT. The youth deſigned for this buſineſs ought to be ſo well acquainted with the languages of France, Spain, and Portugal, as to be able to carry on a correſpondence by letter in thoſe countries. During his clerkſhip, he ſhould obtain a ſufficient knowledge of what Engliſh commodities are moſt wanted there, as well as of the courſe of exchange at the ſeveral ports. The wine-merchant imports great quantities of wine, which they chiefly ſell to the vintners. They take from one hundred to three hundred pounds with a clerk; who may afterwards have fifty pounds a year ſalary, or ſet up with two thouſand pounds.

WINTERTHOUR, is a privileged city of the Canton of Zurich in Switzerland, whoſe various manufactures have brought it into great reputation and trade; here are made muſlins, cravats, handkerchiefs, cotton cloth, woollen crapes, callimancoes, ſattins, damaſks, and camblets in imitation of the Engliſh. The cotton is ſpun here, where they alſo dye well.

WIRE, WIAR, WIER, *or* WYRE, a piece of metal drawn through the hole of an iron into a thread of a fineneſs anſwerable to the hole it paſſed through.

Wires are frequently drawn ſo fine, as to be wrought along with other threads of ſilk, wool, flax, &c.

The metals moſt commonly drawn into wire, are gold, ſilver, copper, and iron.

*Gold* WIRE is made of cylindrical ingots of ſilver, covered over with a ſkin of gold, and thus drawn ſucceſſively through a vaſt number of holes, each ſmaller and ſmaller; till at laſt it is brought to a fineneſs, exceeding that of a hair.

That admirable ductility which makes one of the diſtinguiſhing characters of gold, is no where more conſpicuous, than in this gilt wire.

A cylinder of forty-eight ounces of ſilver, covered with a coat of gold, only weighing one ounce, as Dr. Halley informs us, is uſually drawn into a wire, two yards of which weigh no more than one grain; whence, ninety-eight yards of the wire weigh no more than forty-nine grains, and one ſingle grain of gold covers the ninety-eight yards; ſo that the ten thouſandth part of a grain is above one eighth of an inch long.

He alſo, computing the thickneſs of the ſkin of gold, found it to be $\frac{1}{114500}$ part of an inch. Yet ſo perfectly does it cover the ſilver, that even a microſcope does not diſcover any appearance of the ſilver underneath.

Mr. Rohault likewiſe obſerves, that a like cylinder of ſilver, covered with gold two feet eight inches long, and two inches nine lines in circumference, is drawn into a wire three hundred and ſeven thouſand two hundred feet long, i. e. into a hundred and fifteen thouſand two hundred times its former length.

Mr. Boyle relates, that eight grains of gold, covering a cylinder of ſilver, is commonly drawn into a wire thirteen thouſand feet long.

*Silver* WIRE is the ſame with gold wire, except that the latter is gilt, or covered with gold, and the other is not.

There are alſo counterfeit gold and ſilver wires; the firſt made of a cylinder of copper, ſilvered over, and then covered with gold; and the ſecond of a like cylinder of copper, ſilvered over, and drawn through the iron, after the ſame manner as gold and ſilver wire.

*Braſs* WIRE is drawn after the ſame manner as the former. Of this there are divers ſizes, ſuited to the different kinds of works. The fineſt is uſed for the ſtrings of muſical inſtruments, as ſpinnets, harpſichords, manichords, &c.

The pin-makers, likewiſe, uſe vaſt quantities of wire to make their pins of.

*Iron* WIRE is drawn of various ſizes, from half an inch to one-tenth of an inch diameter.

The firſt iron that runs from the ſtone, when melting, being the ſofteſt and toughеſt, is preſerved to make wire of.

WIRE *of Iron*, viz. card wire, and all ſorts of iron wire ſmaller than fine-fine, and ſuperfine, and wool-cards, or any other wares made of iron wire, may not be imported, unleſs from Ireland, or wrecked, in order to be ſold in Great-Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, 3 *Ed.* IV. *c.* 4. *ſ.* 1. 1 *R.* III. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 2 *W.* and *M. c.* 4. *ſ.* 16.

*Card*-WIRE or iron wire for making of wool-cards, may not be imported, on forfeiture, or the value thereof, 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 1.

Lattin, braſs or copper wire, and gold and ſilver wire imported, to what duties liable, 4 *W.* and *M. c.* 5. *ſ.* 2.

Braſs-wire how exempt from payment of duties on exportation, 7 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 8.

WITTENBURG, in Saxony, is famous for the manufactory of coarſe cloths: the wool in this country is remarkably good. There are about five hundred private manufactories; cloths are alſo ſent hither from all parts to be died; the blues and greens, commonly called Saxon, are beſt died in this place.

WOAD, *gaudum, or glaſtum*, a drug uſed by dyers to make a blue colour.

WOOD, *lignum*, the ſubſtance, whereof the branches of trees conſiſt, deriving its growth from certain juices of the earth.

*Aloes* WOOD, *lignum aloes*, is a drug entirely different from the gum of that name, not only as one is wood, the other a concreted juice, but as they are the produce of very different parts of the world; and the one of a tree, the other of a ſucculent plant. The lignum aloes is a reſinous and ſweet-ſcented wood, of which there are three kinds kept in the ſhops. Theſe three are diſtinguiſhed by the names of calambac, lignum aloes, and calambour. The firſt is by far the moſt valuable, the lignum aloes the next, and the calambour the worſt, though it is moſt frequently met with in our ſhops.

They are all cordial, taken internally, and the Indians give them in diſorders of the ſtomach and bowels, and to deſtroy worms. A very fragrant oil may be procured from theſe woods by diſtillation, which is recommended in paralytic caſes, from five to fifteen drops.

*Roſe* WOOD. *See* RHODIUM.

WOOD, *Timber*, and *the goods called lumber*, as deals, timber-balks, barrel-boards, clap-boards, pipe-boards, or pipe-holt, white-boards for ſhoe-makers, boom and cant-ſpars, bow-ſtaves, cap-ravens, clap-holt, ebony-wood, headings for pipes, hogſheads and barrels, hoops for coopers, oars, pipe, hogſhead, barrel and firkin-ſtaves, trunnels, ſpeckled wood, ſweet wood, ſmall ſpars, oak plank, wainſcot, lignum vitæ, or any other ſort of wood, plank or timber, wrought or unwrought, or lumber (except maſts, yards, and bowſprits,) of the product of the Britiſh-plantations in America, may be imported directly from thence into Great Britain, free of all duties, until the firſt of September 1757, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, 8. *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 17. *ſ.* 5. 16 *Geo.* II. *c.* 26. *ſ.* 2. 24 *Geo.* II. *c.* 57. *ſ.* 11. *See* TIMBER.

WOOD-CUTTER. There are ſeveral branches of this buſineſs; ſome working for the calico printers, others for the printers of books, and others for the makers of hanging paper. The boy who is to be put apprentice to any of theſe branches, which are all formed on the ſame principles, ſhould learn to draw. They none of them require any great ſtrength; but thoſe who work for the printers of books ought to have the neateſt hand. There are however, not above two or three of this buſineſs in London; and but one of any reputation for ſkill. Thoſe who work for the letter preſs printers, therefore ſeldom or never take apprentices. It is proper to obſerve that all wooden cuts are directly oppoſite to engraving on copper, and that they are made by cutting away every thing that is not to appear in the impreſſion; while in copper plates nothing appears but the ſtrokes of the graver, &c. and what is not cut away makes no impreſſion. In thoſe branches where the artiſts take apprentices, they have about ten pounds with one of them. After the boy's time is expired he may ſet up for himſelf with five pounds; and if he is a good hand, may earn four ſhillings or a crown a day.

WOOD-MONGER. Thoſe of this trade are very few in number. They ſell faggots, billets, &c. for firing; and ſome of them likewiſe deal in coals. It is a trade that requires as little learning and abilities as any other that merely conſiſts in buying and ſelling; but the maſters do not uſually take apprentices.

WOOF, among manufacturers, the threads which the weavers ſhoot acroſs, with an inſtrument called a ſhuttle, between the threads of the warp, to form the web.

WOOL, *lana*, the covering of ſheep; of which the manufacturers make divers kind of ſtuffs, cloths, &c.

The wools moſt eſteemed are the Engliſh, chiefly thoſe about Leominſter, Cotſwold, and the Iſle of Wight; the Spaniſh, principally about Segovia, and the French about Berry, which laſt are ſaid to have this peculiar property, that they will knot or bind with any other ſort, whereas the reſt will only knot with their own kind. Among the ancients, the wools of Attica, Mogara, Laodicea, Apulia, and eſpecially thoſe of Tarentum, Parma, and Altino, were the moſt valued. Columella ſets the two laſt even above that of Tarentum, *lib.* VII. *c.* 2. and *Varro de Re Ruſtica*, *lib.* II. *c.* 2. aſſures us, the people there uſed to cloath their ſheep with ſkins to ſecure the wool from being damaged. Tavernier affirms, that the wools in Aſia are incomparably finer than thoſe of Europe, and there is no doubt but that wool was the golden fleece ſought at Colchis. The wools of England have always been in the higheſt repute, eſpecially abroad. Spaniſh wools bear a great price among us, to work up with ours, the goodneſs of which is owing to a few ſheep ſent into Spain, as a preſent, by Henry the ſecond, though ſome ſay by Henry the fourth, in 1465.

Mr. Colbert, a name the French manufactures and commerce are infinitely indebted to, had entertained a deſign of procuring ſome Engliſh ſheep, and propagating them in France, hoping, that by chuſing for them, in the provinces of that kingdom, ſuch paſtures, and ſuch temperament of air, as they had in their own iſland, they might there be perpetuated, and France be no longer obliged precariouſly to depend on the clandeſtine ſupplies of wool from the Engliſh owlers. But the count de Cominges, then an ambaſſador of France at the Engliſh court, laid the impoſſibility of having ſuch an export of ſheep, and the almoſt equal impoſſibility of keeping and making them multiply there, ſo ſtrongly before him, that he abandoned the deſign.

The fineneſs and plenty of our wool is owing, in ſome meaſure, to the ſweet ſhort graſs in many of our paſtures and downs; though the advantage of our ſheep feeding upon this all the year, without being obliged to be ſhut up in folds during the winter, or to ſecure them from wolves at other times, contributes not a little thereto. The Scotch and Iriſh wools are commonly ſold abroad for Engliſh, and upon the ſame footing; but foreigners, ſkilled in thoſe matters, find they come far ſhort of it in fineneſs. The yearly produce of wool, in England, was calculated at about two millions ſterling: anciently the principal commerce of the nation conſiſted of wool unmanufactured, which foreigners, eſpecially the Dutch, French, and Flemiſh bought of us, inſomuch that the cuſtoms of Engliſh wools, exported in Edward the III's reign, amounted at fifty ſhillings a pack, to 250,000 l. *per annum*, an immenſe ſum in thoſe days. This exceſſive cuſtom on the export of unmanufactured wool ſet our people upon making cloth of it themſelves, in which they ſucceeded ſo well, that towards the cloſe of the ſixteenth century, under the reign of queen Elizabeth, the exportation of any wool at all was abſolutely prohibited, and this upon pain of having the right hand ſtruck off. From that time England has been exceeding jealous of its wool; to prompt their vigilance, the lords in parliament are ſeated on wool packs. Accordingly ſcarce a parliament but has renewed and reinforced the prohibition, particularly about the middle of the ſeventeenth century, the exporting of wool was made a capital crime. But all theſe precautions are ineffectual, the Engliſh themſelves, particularly about the coaſts of Suſſex, making uſe of the long winter nights to waft over their wools to France, being ſure of carrying them to a good market: they deſpiſe the penalty, with an intredidity that the reſt of Europe are amazed at.

WOOLLEN MANUFACTORY, includes the ſeveral ſorts of commodities into which wool is wrought.

The woollen manufactory makes the principal article in the foreign and domeſtic trade of Great Britain. It employs the chief of the hands on ſhore, in its different parts; loads their ſhips, and brings into the nation the immenſe riches, for which our nation is, at preſent, ſo remarkably famous.

This ſtaple, however, did not fix itſelf on this iſland, till about the year 1420, when the art of making woollen cloths was imported from Flanders and Brabant, whoſe artiſts in that commodity, being driven from their native countries by oppreſſive taxes, and the ſeverities uſed in collecting them, took refuge in England, where they enjoyed great privileges, and carried on the myſtery of their

trade with greater eaſe than at home, having that wool now at hand, which before was bought of the Engliſh. The government ſpared no endeavour to preſerve ſo valuable an acquiſition; but we do not find our nation arrive at any conſiderable perfection in the woollen manufacture, till the troubles about religion, occaſioned by the cruelty of the duke of Alva, and the Spaniſh inquiſition introduced into the Low Countries, entirely ruined thoſe woollen manufacturers who had ſettled there, and greatly interfered with the trade eſtabliſhed in England. At this time the Dutch artiſts alſo joined us, and ſettled ſeveral great manufactures, at Norwich, Colcheſter, Sandwich, Hampton, as well as at London, &c. And from that time this trade throve ſo prodigiouſly, that Dr. Davenant and Mr. King compute the product thereof in their time (when it was not at the height it is now brought) to be eight million ſterling *per annum*; three fourths whereof, ſay they, are conſumed at home, and the reſt abroad.

*Method of weaving, thickening, fulling, &c. cloth.* Before the warp is mounted, the threads are ſtiffened with a ſize made of ſhreds of parchment, or gum-water; when dry, the weavers mount their looms in the following manner. In thoſe places where the moſt beautiful thin ſtuffs are made, it is the common cuſtom to place eighteen threads upon the pegs of the loom. The going back over all the pegs, and the bringing back and return of them, on all the ſame again, produce the firſt aſſemblage of thirty-ſix threads, which is called a handful. And forty of theſe are required to complete that bundle which is termed a chain. So that a chain, in weaving, contains fourteen hundred and forty threads, which multiplied by twelve ells, the uſual length of each thread, the ſum will be ſeventeen thouſand two hundred and eighty ells of thread. Then the artiſt, to render this bundle of long threads manageable and portable, winds the end thereof into a great loop, through which he thruſts his arm, and carries on it the bundle of threads. Then he makes a ſecond, and as many more links on it as convenient. And hence theſe long aſſemblages of warp threads, looped up, and ſhortened into a ſmall compaſs, take the name of the chain; a name they afterwards retain, even when extended on the loom to receive the croſs thread or woof. But ſeven of theſe chains muſt go to form the mounting of a ſtuff, or that firſt baſis of long threads, which are extended, parallel, from one end of the loom to the other. They are there received and rolled upon the beam; and as faſt as they are converted into ſtuff or cloth, by the throwing in of the woof, the ſtuff or cloth is rolled upon the other wooden cylinder that lies before the workmen under the play of the ſhuttles.

The warp being on the loom, the weavers, who are employed in broad works, attend two to each loom, one on each ſide, and tread at the ſame time alternately, on the ſame treddle, i. e. now on the right ſtep, and now on the left, which raiſes and lowers the threads of the warp equally; between which they throw, tranſverſely, the ſhuttle from one to the other: and each time that a ſhuttle is thrown, and ſo a thread of the woof inſerted within the warp, they ſtrike it conjointly with the ſame frame wherein is faſtened the comb, or reed, between whoſe teeth the threads of the warp are paſſed; repeating the ſtroke as often as is neceſſary, ſometimes no leſs than twelve or thirteen times, viz. ſix with the warp open, and ſeven with it ſhut. The cloſer the threads of the woof are ſtruck againſt each other, the cloſer the cloth will be; and better enabled to bear the violence of the fulling-mill, as well as of the teazel and fulling-thiſtle, without opening or fretting. When the whole warp is filled, the cloth is finiſhed, and it is taken from the loom by unrolling it from the beam whereon it had been rolled, in proportion as it was wove; and now given to be cleared of the knots, ends of threads, ſtraw, and other filth; which is done with little iron nippers.

When a ſtuff or cloth is intended to be thickened, and to be made more or leſs nappy, it is carried to the fulling-mill to thicken its warp, by ſtrongly preſſing the hairs of the woof, which are always found, in ſome degree, after weaving, be the wool never ſo fine; and being faſtened within the body of the ſtuff, ſtand with their ſharp end outwards. It is the fuller, who, properly ſpeaking, gives the cloths their real ſubſtance: his art being to add the advantage of felting to the regularity of weaving, and to cleanſe the ſtuff perfectly. None but cloths require the firſt operation; all cloths and ſtuffs require the latter. The firſt is performed by a mill, in which the cloths are beaten with hammers, while the water runs continually over them, till they are reduced to their proper breadth, and thoroughly cleanſed from all impurities. The ſecond is no more than a dry beating, after the ſtuff has been judiciouſly ſmeared with fuller's earth, which is an abſorbent matter, proper to extract all the unctuous juices: and, as occaſion ſerves, they waſh the moſt tenacious particles away with clean water. By repeating this ſeveral times, the moſt dirty cloths and ſtuffs are cleanſed from the earth, oil, impurities of dying, &c.

Beſides the variety which proceeds from the choice, the mixture, the preparation and working of the materials, the manufacture may be further diverſified by finiſhing or not finiſhing it in this or that manner, after the goods are really made. For they change their names according to the manner in which they paſs through the hands of the fuller, and are ornamented or dreſſed.

Firſt it is knotted, or rather cleared from all its knots, little ſtraws, and extuberances, by the help of ſheers and birchen whiſks; for if the leaſt hard body ſhould be left upon a cloth or piece of ſtuff, it would, in great likelihood, make a hole, while in the fuller's ſtock or pot; from whoſe hand it returns again to the knotter, who carefully turns it over a ſecond time, and with great exactneſs picks out all the earthy, and other ſubſtances, that remain, or had been overlooked, and might alter the colour, or otherwiſe damage the goods.

After this ſecond examination, the cloth or ſtuff is ſent again to the fulling-houſe, where it is perfectly cleanſed with hot water and ſoap. When the water runs out of the cloth as clear as it went in, then they leave off watering it to beat it dry. If the ſtuff or cloth has been felted or milled, they take care to unfold it every two hours, and pull it by its edges, as well to get out the creaſes contracted in the mill, as to prevent its too great ſhrinking; and, after that, waſh it once more in fair water.

The next operation is that of carding, thiſtling, or teazling the goods. A teazle, by ſome called a thiſtle, is a kind of wire bruſh, not unlike the head of a thiſtle, with an iron handle; every point of which terminates in a very ſharp hook. In this work they moiſten the ſtuff well with pure water, ſpread it out, or hang it on a pole, and then raiſe the hair with this inſtrument; and fetch out the hair by rubbing it ſeveral ways from bottom to top, then from top to bottom, both with and againſt the hair: firſt with a dead thiſtle, or one that has been uſed before, and afterwards with a live-thiſtle, or one that is entirely new; firſt with gentle ſtrokes, and then briſker; always taking care not to make the ſtuff ſwag, and to give it a nap, without weakening the ſubſtance, by adorning the outſide.

This work renders the ſtuff warmer, and more beautiful: but then it muſt undergo the ſheerers ſciſſars; who corrects the inequalities of the hairs raiſed by the teazle, and returns it to the carder. He cards it again very carefully, and remits it, for a ſecond inſpection, to the ſheerer: who now gives it at firſt a rough ſheering, and then finiſhes it both inſide and outſide in the exacteſt manner, according to his art.

As the cloth cannot be ſuppoſed to paſs through ſo many, and ſome of them dangerous operations, without being ſubject to ſeveral accidents from the teazle, &c. it is, when perfectly dry, ſent to the fine-drawer to mend the holes, and to ſtrengthen the weak parts, ſo as the moſt curious eye cannot diſcover them: and then committed to the tenter, which is a long frame of wood with rows of hooks quite round it, and of a width and length of the longeſt and wideſt piece of cloth. This frame ſtands upright, and is ſo contrived, that the parts of it are moveable, and can be pulled backwards and forwards at pleaſure. The uſe of this is to get out all the creaſes which the ſtuff has contracted in the fulling-trough, to keep it on the ſquare, and to bring it, without violence, to its proper ſize: and, finally, to put it in a condition, either to be better bruſhed and more gloſſy, or to be folded in ſquare folds, amongſt honeſt dealers. Whereas a too violent ſtretching upon the tenter undoes all the fulling-work,

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and looſes and weakens the cloth; leaving it ſwaggy, limber, and without ſubſtance: ſo that the legiſlature has been obliged to interpoſe their authority, and declare every piece of ſtuff forfeited, which has been lengthened on the tenter, more than half an ell in twenty; or ſtretched above a nail in width more than it was before. This fraud is detected by wetting a piece of cloth, when taken off the tenters, which will bring it immediately to its natural ſize.

When the cloth has continued its proper time on the tenter, it is then bruſhed again, and always in the ſame direction, that the nap may lie all the ſame way. And the gloſs and uniform inclination of the nap is accompliſhed principally by the means of a tool, called a jack, made of a deal board. This jack is laid over with maſtic, roſin, powder of free-ſtone, and ſifted filings, on the ſide that touches the ſtuff; which compoſition attracts and clears the ſtuff or cloth of every little ſtraw, hair, and pairings of the ſheers, that happen to remain unobſerved after the former proceſs.

But to finiſh its luſtre, the cloth muſt now be ſent to the hot-preſſer, who folds the cloth or ſtuff in ſquare folds; and ſometimes ſprinkles each fold with gum-water: and always interleaves each fold with paſte-board, or very thick cartridge-paper; covering the laſt fold with a ſquare board, to ſecure the goods from the preſs, under which they lie for ſome time, till the heat has gradually exhauſted all the ſuperfluous moiſture, and all the hairs which point upwards are deprived of their ſpringineſs: otherwiſe, the firſt drop of rain which ſhould fall upon the ſtuff, would, when it was dried away, reſtore to the hairs, it wetted, ſome kind of elaſticity, and make that ſeem a ſtain, which is really nothing but a reflection of light different from that of the hairs which are round about it, and have not been wetted. And to prevent this miſchief, they endeavour to make the preſs touch every-where alike: they repeat the interleaving, and ſometimes, in fine cloths, ſupply the firſt leaves with others finer and ſleeker; and, at ſome diſtance from each other, they add plates of wood or braſs made very hot.

This work uſed formerly to be performed by rolling the ſtuffs and cloths round the cylinders of a calender, and making them paſs, by the help of a turning beam, between an immoveable table of marble or hard wood, and another table very well poliſhed, or covered with a large ſheet of copper, backwards and forwards on the rollers, with a weight of eighteen or twenty thouſand pounds weight.

Nor would we have it imagined that all this pains and charge, to give the woollen manufactures a gloſs, are intended only with a view to give them an uſeleſs luſtre, or to impoſe on the chapman by a brilliancy, which will ſoon fly off: but to give them a permanent beauty, and to add to them a real value: for experience teacheth that a cloth, which has not gone through theſe operations, never wears ſo well, nor gives ſo much ſatisfaction to the purchaſer; it has the appearance of a very hair cloth, without any equality in its grain, or exactneſs in its colour. The unequal tenſion of the two threads, which mutually croſs each other, and the accidental diverſity of ſtiffneſs and ſuppleneſs, which may happen to every part of the ſtuff, and even to each little fibril, neceſſarily diſpoſe the whole piece to crack and pucker up: and this would be unavoidable, eſpecially to light ſtuffs, without the ingenious precautions of the dreſſers and preſſers.

The ſtuffs and ſerges, whether thoſe which, being very ſleek, do not go to the fulling-mill; or thoſe which have been only beaten with water: or, laſtly, ſuch as have been beaten dry, as well as wet, in order for napping, ſhould all be raiſed and expoſed to the air. They are taken off the poles to give them the laſt finiſhing; the principal deſign of which is, as obſerved before, to deſtroy entirely any remaining ſpringineſs or ſtarting, which may interrupt the equality of the texture; to incline all the hairs on one ſide of the piece in the ſame direction, that a right ſide may be formed; and to produce a kind of harmony thrnugh the whole piece, by rectifying all diſorderly tenſion of the fibres within the ſtuff, and by the uniformity of its reflections of the light from without. This is performed in very thin ſtuffs by ſtretching them in a proper manner, each ſeparately on a little roll, and laying all the rolls together in a large ſquare copper kettle, on a board full of holes, which is raiſed to ſome diſtance from the bottom of the kettle, under this board; in the kettle is a quantity of water, which being heated, and the kettle cloſe covered, the ſteam that riſes is neceſſarily reflected by the cover, and returned back from all ſides upon the ſtuffs, and getting into them by little and little, it ſupplies all the hairs that have too much ſtiffneſs and elaſticity. The preſs will do the reſt.

But all fulled ſtuffs are ſprinkled over the wrong ſide, firſt with gum-water, and, after extenſion on a large roller, to get out all the creaſes and inequalities, they are rolled off ſlowly upon a bar of poliſhed iron, which ſupports the piece in that ſtate over a large chafing-diſh, capable, by its heat, to put the leaſt fibre in motion; and from thence it is carried upon another roller, which draws it even by the help of a wheel or engine for that purpoſe. And thus the ſtuff is returned from one to another, at the diſcretion of the workmen: and this is called dreſſing or calendering.

WOOL-STAPLE, implies a city or town, where wool uſed to be ſold.

The owners of wool ſhorn or lodged within ten miles of the ſea-ſide, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, muſt, within three days after ſheering, give an exact account in writing of the number of fleeces, and where lodged, to the officers of the next port.

The like notice muſt be given before removal, expreſſing the number of fleeces, and weight, the name and abode of the buyer, and the place to which it is intended to be carried, and a certificate taken from the officer who firſt entered it, upon forfeiture, and three ſhillings *per* pound weight.

Such certificates muſt ſpecify the names of the owners and buyers, and be limited to ſuch times and places to be removed; for which certificate, the officer is to receive ſix-pence, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 3.

Perſons reſiding within fifteen miles of the ſea, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex, may not buy wool before they have entered into a bond, with ſureties, that all the wool they buy ſhall not be ſold by them to any perſons within fifteen miles of the ſea.

Found carrying towards the ſea-ſide in the aforeſaid counties, unleſs entered, and ſecurity be given, is forfeited, and three ſhillings *per* pound weight, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 4.

Removed from the place where firſt lodged after ſheering, within ten miles of the ſea, may not be lodged, after the firſt removal, within fifteen miles of the ſea, in the aforeſaid counties, upon forfeiture thereof, if found, or of three ſhillings *per* pound weight by the owners, if carried away, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 5.

Wool, laid or hid within fifteen miles of the ſea, and not entered, is forfeited.

The claimer of ſuch wool, ſo ſeized as forfeited, muſt give ſufficient ſecurity in the court of exchequer to pay treble coſts, if caſt, over and above the penalties and forfeitures, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 6.

One-third part of all the aforeſaid forfeitures and penalties is to be to the uſe of his majeſty, and the other two-thirds to the uſe of the ſeizer or ſuer, 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 8.

Coaſtwiſe, deſigned to be carried to any place on the ſea-coaſts, with an intention to be conveyed to any other port or place on the ſea-coaſts, from whence it may be exported, muſt, before loaded, or carried within five miles of the place, be entered at the port from whence it is to be conveyed, mentioning the exact weight, marks and numbers, upon forfeiture thereof, with the horſes, &c. and perſons concerned in carrying, driving, &c. are liable to the forfeitures inflicted on the exportation.

But not to hinder the conveyance of wool from the place of ſheering to the proprietor's dwelling-houſe, though within five miles or leſs of the ſea; provided that within ten days after the ſheering, and before the removal or diſpoſal, he certifies under his hand, to the officers of the next port, the number of fleeces, and where lodged; and does not remove or diſpoſe thereof, without certifying his intention, at leaſt three days before removal.

Such certificates are to be kept and regiſtered by the officers, 1 *Will.* and *Mar.* *c.* 32. *ſ.* 2, 3. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

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A regiſter of all wool ſent coaſtwiſe, with the particular weights and number, the ſhip-maſter's name, owner's name, and to whom conſigned, muſt be kept at the cuſtom-houſe London, 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 32. *ſ.* 11. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

Wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, and tobacco-pipe clay.

The cockets for the carriage thereof coaſtwiſe muſt be written upon paper, and not parchment, expreſſing the exact weights, marks, and numbers, and be ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, in whoſe preſence they are to be weighed. The return or certificate of landing the wool muſt be written on paper, not parchment, the quantity not obliterated, or interlined, and muſt expreſs the exact weights, marks and numbers, and be ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, in whoſe preſence it muſt be weighed, 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 32. *ſ.* 4. 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1. 5 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 14.

Officers not performing their duties, are to be deemed aiders and abettors of the tranſportation, and ſhall ſuffer the penalties contained in 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. and 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 32. *ſ.* 5. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

Wool, ſheep, &c. may not be exported, nor packed, or loaded upon any horſe, &c. nor laden on board any ſhip with intent to be exported, unleſs as hereafter excepted, upon forfeiture, and twenty ſhillings for every ſheep, and three ſhillings for every pound weight of the reſt, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 1, 2, 3. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2, 3, 8. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 2, 3, 4. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1, 2.

Owners of the ſhips, knowing thereof, are to forfeit their intereſt therein, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

And if they be aliens, or natural-born ſubjects not inhabiting within this kingdom, ſuch ſhips are forfeited wholly to his majeſty, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 9.

Maſters and mariners knowing thereof, and aſſiſting therein, are to forfeit all their goods and chattles, and to ſuffer three months impriſonment, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 3.

The exporter, beſides other penalties, is diſabled to require any debt, &c. 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 4.

Owners, maſters or mariners, diſcovering upon oath, within three months after knowledge of offence, or after their return into Great-Britain, the number, quantity, and quality of the goods exported, &c. are to be diſcharged of all penalties, and to have the benefit of an informer's part, 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 11. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 32. *ſ.* 8. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

Sheep, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay, the exportation declared a common and publick nuſance, 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 11.

Offences may be tried and determined at the general quarter-ſeſſions in the county where committed, or where the offenders ſhall be apprehended, or the goods or ſhips taken, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 5. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 4, 12. 10 and 11 *Will.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 12.

Offences muſt be proſecuted within three years, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 6. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 6. 7 and 8 *Will.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 12. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 9.

Such goods ſhipped, or found on the ſhore, at, or near the ſea, or any navigable river, or packed or loaded on any horſe, &c. with intent to be exported, may be ſeized by any perſons; but ſuch perſons may not be evidence againſt the offender, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 7, 8. 1 *Will.* and *Mar. c.* 32. *ſ.* 8, 9. 9 and 10 *Will.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

But the aforeſaid prohibition is not to extend to lamb-ſkins ready dreſſed and prepared for furs or linings.

Nor to wool-fells or pelts, or beds, ſtuffed with flocks, or wether ſheep alive, or the wool growing thereon, taken on board, for the uſe and food of the ſhip and paſſengers, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 10, 11. 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 10.

Nor to the exportation of unkembed wool, out of the port of Southampton, into the following iſlands, and not exceeding the following reſpective quantities yearly; viz.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| To Jerſey | 4000 | Tods, not exceeding 32 pounds each. |
| To Guernſey | 2000 | |
| To Alderney | 400 | |
| To Sark | 200 | |

Provided the exporter, before ſhipping, delivers to the cuſtomer, comptroller, ſurveyor or ſearcher, a writing under the ſeals of the reſpective governors, ſignifying that the perſon therein named is authorized to export the number of tods therein mentioned, and that he has given ſufficient ſecurity for the due landing.

Governors may not grant licences for any greater quantities, upon forfeiture of twenty pounds per tod to his majeſty.

Such wool may not be again tranſported, or attempted to be tranſported out of the ſaid iſlands, upon forfeiture of twenty pounds per tod; one half to his majeſty, one fourth to the informer, and one fourth to the poor; and the offenders to be rendered incapable of any grant or warrant for wool for the future.

Cuſtomer of Southampton muſt keep a true account of the quantity of the wool ſhipped, and may not permit any greater quantities than thoſe before limited, upon forfeiture of office and one hundred pounds, 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 32. *ſ.* 2, 12, 13. 1 *W.* and *M. c.* 32. *ſ.* 14. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

Wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, yarn made of wool, wool-flocks, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, or tobacco-pipe clay. Packs, ſacks, bags or caſks of ſuch goods, may not be loaded on any horſe, &c. nor carried by land within this kingdom, but in the day-time, and at ſeaſonable hours; that is to ſay, from the firſt of March to the twenty-ninth of September, between four in the morning, and eight in the evening, and after the twenty-ninth of September to the firſt of March, between ſeven in the morning, and five in the evening, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 9.

Such goods may not be loaded upon any horſe, &c. or carried by land, within five miles of the ſea-coaſt, but between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, upon forfeiture thereof and the horſe, &c. Exported into parts beyond the ſeas, the penalty is forfeiture of ſhip and goods, and treble the value, with treble coſts of ſuit.

Perſons aſſiſting in the exportation, are to ſuffer three years impriſonment without bail or mainpriſe.

The firſt three perſons (not being the owners) aſſiſting in the exportation, diſcovering their crime to any juſtice of the peace, are diſcharged of all penalties and puniſhments, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 8, 10, 11.

The inhabitants of the place out of which, or through which ſuch goods are carried or exported, are to forfeit twenty pounds, if they be under the value of ten pounds; but if above, treble the value, and alſo treble coſts of ſuit, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 8.

But the hundred of Winchelſea in the cinque ports, being divided by a navigable arm of the ſea, is to be deemed as two diſtinct hundreds; and the offences committed in one part, are not to be chargeable on the inhabitants of the other, 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

Execution for the informer may be had againſt two or more of the inhabitants; and the juſtices at their general quarter-ſeſſions may tax every town, &c. in the hundred, &c. as in the caſe of robbery, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 9.

The owner of the goods, and each of his aſſiſtants, are to anſwer treble the value of the penalties to the inhabitants, and treble coſts of ſuit; to be recovered by action in the name of the clerk of the peace, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 10.

Perſons intitled to penalties and forfeitures, compounding with any hundred, port or place, for leſs than is due by law, any other perſon may ſue for the whole, as if no ſuch compoſition had been made, and the compounder is to ſuffer five years impriſonment, without bail or mainpriſe, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 13.

The admiralty are to appoint one ſhip of the fifth rate, and two of the 6th, and four armed ſloops, to cruize conſtantly from off the North Foreland to the Iſle of Wight, with orders for ſeizing all veſſels exporting wool, or carrying or bringing prohibited goods, or any ſuſpected perſons, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 14.

The admiralty are to appoint three ſhips of the 6th rate, and eight or more armed ſloops, to cruize on the coaſt of Great Britain and Ireland, in ſuch ſtations as ſhall be aſſigned them by the admiralty, with orders to ſeize all veſſels in which any wool, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth-ſerges,

ſerges, ſhalloons, or any other drapery, ſtuffs, or woollen manufactures whatſoever, ſhall be exported, or laden to be exported from Ireland to foreign parts. A liſt of the ſhips and ſloops, the names of the commanders, and copies of their inſtructions, are to be ſent to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great Britain, and commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, within ten days after given, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 16. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 1.

The commanders of ſuch ſhips may ſearch any veſſels within the limits of their ſtations; and if any of the abovementioned goods are found on board without a cocket or warrant licenſing the exportation thereof, may carry them with crew and cargo into any port in Great Britain or Ireland, 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 2.

After ſeizure, the goods are to be ſecured in the king's warehouſe: and when condemned muſt, together with the veſſel, her guns, tackle and furniture, be ſold by inch of candle to the beſt bidder, after twenty-one days public notice; one fourth of the produce of ſuch ſale to the commander, one fourth to the officers of the ſhip or ſloop, one-fourth to the mariners, and one-fourth to the king, out of which the charges of proſecution are to be paid, except the ſeizure be made upon information; in which caſe the informer is to be indemnified from all penalties, &c. and to be paid one-fifth of ſuch ſale, and the reſidue to be divided into four parts, and diſtributed as above, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 17. 5 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 3.

Commanders neglecting their duties, compounding for, or conniving at the exportation of wool, are to forfeit all their pay due, to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, and be rendered incapable of any ſervice in the navy, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 18.

Offenders againſt any of the laws made for the preventing of the exportation of wool, may be proſecuted by action, &c. in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, and thereupon a capias may iſſue in the firſt proceſs, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for; and ſuch offenders be obliged to give bail to anſwer the ſuit, and alſo, at appearance, to pay the penalties incurred, or to yield their bodies to priſon, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10 *ſ.* 20.

Offenders in priſon for want of ſufficient bail, for the unlawful exportation of wool or wool-fells, not pleading to a declaration or information delivered by the ſpace of one term, judgment may be entered againſt them by default.

If judgment be obtained againſt ſuch offences, and they do not pay the ſum recovered within three months, the court may order tranſportation for ſeven years, as for felony, 4 *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 6. 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 27.

Wool, yarn made of wool, and wool-flocks, may not be preſſed together with any ſcrews, preſſes, or other engines, into any ſack, pack, bag, caſk, &c. nor carried nor laid at or near the ſhore or coaſts of the ſea, or any navigable river, or into any place adjoining, with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, 14 *Car.* II. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 7.

Wool, Spaniſh or foreign, may be exported only in Britiſh ſhipping, upon pain of confiſcation.

Wool, woolfells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, may be exported from any port in Ireland, with intent to be imported into any port in Great-Britain, and not otherwiſe; but cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth-ſerges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks, and manufactured in Ireland, may not be exported out of Ireland, unleſs they be ſhipped in the ports of Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Dundalk, Galway, Kinſale, Limerick, New Roſs, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, Wexford, Wicklow, and Youghall in Ireland, and with intent to be imported into the ports of Barnſtaple, Bidiford, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Cheſter, Liverpool, Milford-haven, and Minehead, in England and Wales; but notice muſt be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the cuſtomer or collector of the port into which they are intended to be brought, of the quantity, quality and package, with the marks and numbers, the name of the ſhip and maſter, and the port of importation; and bond be entered into, with one or more ſufficient ſureties, in treble the value of the goods, that they ſhall be landed accordingly; and a licence be alſo granted under the hands of the commiſſioners, or any three of them, or by the cuſtomer, or the collector of the port where bond is given, upon forfeiture of ſhip, goods, and five hundred pounds by every offender.

Maſters, mariners, or others knowing of ſuch offence, and aſſiſting therein, are to forfeit forty pounds.

Actions and informations, may be tried in any of his majeſty's four courts at Dublin.

The firſt three perſons aſſiſting (not being owners) diſcovering their offence, are diſcharged of all penalties.

Acquittals in Ireland, not to bar or delay proſecutions in England, 1 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 32. *ſ.* 6. 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 5. 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 1, 2, 3, 10, 14. 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 13. *ſ.* 9. 4 *Ann.* *c.* 7. *ſ.* 1. 3 *Geo.* I. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 4, 5. 5. *Geo.* I. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 21. 5. *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 6. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 11. *ſ.* 1, 2.

Wool, woolfells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth-ſerges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool, or wool-flock, for every ſhip ſailing, from Ireland to Great-Britain, with any of the aforeſaid goods, bond muſt be given before ſhipping, to the chief officers of the port, by two ſufficient perſons, in double the value of the goods, that they ſhall be all brought to Great-Britain, and there landed, and the duties paid, upon forfeiture of the ſhip.

The penalties and forfeitures of ſuch bonds, may not be granted or aſſigned over to any perſon, 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 5, 15.

The cockets or warrants for carrying of ſuch goods from Ireland to Great-Britain muſt be written upon paper, and not parchment, and ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, with the exact quantities, qualities, marks and numbers indorſed thereon.

The like indorſement muſt be upon the warrant for the landing the ſame in England, and the goods muſt be viewed and examined by the ſurveyor or land-waiter.

The certificates of landing, granted for diſcharging the bond taken in Ireland, muſt be written on paper, and not parchment, ſigned by at leaſt three of the chief officers, with the exact quantities, qualities, marks and numbers, indorſed thereon, and not obliterated or interlined, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 7. 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 7, 9.

A regiſter of all ſuch goods, with the particular quantities, qualities, weights and numbers, the ſhip, maſter's name, owner's name, and to whom conſigned, muſt be kept at the cuſtom-houſe, London, 1 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 32. *ſ.* 11. 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 6.

The commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Ireland muſt, every ſix months, or within thirty days after, tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England, duplicates of the bonds taken for the lading, and a true account of all ſuch goods exported, expreſſing the quantity, quality and weight, by whom and in what ſhip exported, where conſigned, the names of the officers certifying the landing in England, the dates of their certificates, where landed, and the quantity, quality, weight, marks and numbers contained in ſuch certificates, 7 and 8 *W.* III. *c.* 28. *ſ.* 6. 10 and 11 *W.* III. *c.* 10. *ſ.* 8.

The commiſſioners appointed to execute the ſeveral acts againſt the exportation thereof, 1 *W.* and *M.* *c.* 32. *ſ.* 7. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 40. *ſ.* 1.

Wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſies, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth ſerges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool or wool-flocks, may not be put on board any veſſel or boat in Ireland, or imported from thence into this kingdom, but ſuch as are of the built of Great-Britain or Ireland, and wholly owned and manned by the ſubjects of this kingdom or Ireland, and regiſtered as under, on forfeiture of the goods or value thereof, as alſo of the veſſel or boat, with her guns, tackle, apparel, and furniture, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 6.

Oath muſt be made by one of the owners, before the collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms at the port to which ſhe belongs, as follows:

Jurat. A. B. that the ſhip of whereof is at preſent maſter, being built, of tons, was built at in the year and that of and of are at preſent owners thereof; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare, part, or intereſt therein.

A certificate of which oath, atteſted by the collector and comptroller under their hands and ſeals, is (after having been regiſtered by them) to be delivered to the maſter of the ſhip for the ſecurity of her navigation; and a duplicate of the regiſter to be immediately tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in London, in order to be entered in a general regiſter to be there kept for this purpoſe, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 7.

No ſhip's name, after regiſtering, may be changed, or the property transferred to another port, without regiſtering her again, and delivering up the former regiſter to be cancelled, under the ſame penalties as before directed. And in caſe of any alteration of property in the ſame port, by ſale of any ſhare, ſuch ſale muſt be acknowledged by indorſement on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 8.

Wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, may not be packed up in Great-Britain or Ireland, in any other package but packs or truſſes of leather, or pack cloth, and marked on the outſide with the reſpective words WOOL or YARN in large letters, not leſs than three inches in length, on forfeiture of the goods and package, and three ſhillings for every pound weight, to be paid by the owner or packer of it, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 10.

Coverlids, waddings, or other manufactures of wool ſlightly worked, or put together, ſo as they may be reduced to, or made uſe of as wool again, or mattraſſes or beds ſtuffed with combed wool, or wool fit for combing, may not be exported from Great-Britain or Ireland, under the like penalties and forfeitures as for being concerned in the exportation of wool, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 9.

Wool, wool-fells, mortlings, ſhortlings, combed wool, woollen or bay yarn, worſted, yarn, cruel, or wool ſlightly manufactured, may not be laden on any veſſel bound to parts beyond the ſeas; nor laden in order to be carried coaſtwiſe, from one port of Great-Britain or Ireland to another; unleſs notice be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port, from which they are intended to be ſent or exported, of the quantity, quality, and package, with the marks and numbers, the ſhip and maſter's name, the name and place of abode of the owner of the goods, and the port into which they are intended to be imported, and to whom conſigned; and bond be entered into, in treble the value of the goods, that they ſhall be landed accordingly (notice whereof to be tranſmitted from the cuſtomer or collector of the port from whence the ſame is intended to be exported, to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port into which the ſame is intended to be imported) and unleſs a licence be taken out under the hands of three of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or from the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller, where ſuch bond is given for landing and carrying thereof as aforeſaid; on forfeiture of the goods, together with the veſſel or boat and furniture on which they are laden. The licence to be granted without any charge to the perſon demanding it.

The ſaid bond not to be diſcharged, but by a certificate under the hand and ſeal of the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port where they are landed, of the quality, quantity and package, the marks and numbers, with the name of the ſhip and maſter. And bonds not ſo diſcharged after ſix months, are to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, or to the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland, who are to put them in ſuit immediately, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 11.

No other ſecurity now required by law, for goods carried coaſtwiſe, to be hereby leſſened; or law in force for preventing the exportation of wool, or other goods aforeſaid, to be repealed or made void hereby, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 12.

None of the goods before mentioned, imported from Ireland or carried coaſtwiſe within this kingdom or Ireland, may be ſhipped or landed but in the preſence of the proper officers, and at the lawful keys, without leave from the commiſſioners and officers of the cuſtoms, on forfeiture of the goods or value thereof, and three ſhillings for every pound weight; to be paid by the proprietor of the goods, or any perſon concerned in the ſhipping, or landing thereof, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 13.

Wool, wool-fells, wool-flocks, mortlings, ſhortlings, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, tobacco-pipe clay, or any ſcouring-clay or earth, tranſported out of Great-Britain, or any of the ſaid goods or cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth-ferges, ſhalloons, or other drapery ſtuffs, or woollen manufactures made up or mixed with wool, or wool-flocks, illegally tranſported out of Ireland.

Informations of ſeizure of any of the ſaid goods, as forfeited by this or any other act, are to be entered by none but officers of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt-duties, and informations againſt any perſons, for recovery of the penalties and forfeitures on account of the illegal tranſportation of the ſaid goods, to be filed, and proſecuted only in the name of the attorney general, or in the name of ſome officer of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or ſalt-duties.

But this act is not to take away the power given by any law to the commander and officer of ſhips of war, or the armed ſloops, appointed by the admiralty to guard againſt the tranſportation of wool out of Great-Britain or Ireland, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 14.

Any officer making a colluſive ſeizure or information of the ſaid goods, or any fraudulent agreement, whereby the perſons concerned may avoid the penalties and forfeitures incurred, forfeits two hundred pounds, and is incapable of ſerving in any office of the revenue; and the exporters, importers, and owners of the goods, forfeit treble the value, to the uſe of the perſon who informs or ſues for the ſame in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or Dublin, or the court of exchequer in Scotland, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 16.

Any perſon concerned therein firſt making a diſcovery, ſo as one of his accomplices be convicted, is to be cleared and diſcharged thereof; and not being an officer of the revenue, or owner of the goods, to have the whole money recovered on conviction of the offender, the charge of proſecution being firſt deducted, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 17.

Wool, wool-fells, wool-flocks, mortlings, ſhortlings, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cruels or wool ſlightly manufactured, or mattraſſes or beds ſtuffed with combed wool or wool fit for combing, fuller's earth, fulling-clay, tobacco-pipe clay, or any other ſcouring earth or clay, exported from Great-Britain, or any of the ſaid goods, or cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſeys, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth-ferges, or any other drapery made of or mixed with wool manufactured in Ireland, and illegally exported from thence.

Actions, ſuits, or informations upon this, or any other act, may be proſecuted (except where by this act is otherwiſe directed) in any court of record at Weſtminſter, or in the court of exchequer in Scotland, or at the quarter-ſeſſions of the peace, or before two juſtices of the peace, in a ſummary way, at the election of the ſeizer or informer, or by any law relating to the revenue of Ireland in that kingdom; and if the property be claimed, the *onus probandi* to lie upon the owner or claimer, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 18.

All penalties and forfeitures before mentioned in this act (except where otherwiſe directed) to be for the uſe of the perſon who ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 19.

On condemnation of the aforeſaid goods, the reſpective commiſſioners may cauſe them to be ſold publickly to the beſt bidder, and the charges of condemnation and ſale being firſt paid, the remainder is to be paid to the perſon who ſhall ſeize, inform, or ſue for the ſame, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 20.

But if an officer makes a ſeizure, or carries on a proſecution to effect, by the information of any other perſon, ſuch perſon is to have half of what is recovered by the officer, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 21.

If any perſon who may become liable to the payment of the three ſhillings *per* pound weight by this or any former acts, is not able to pay it, the reſpective commiſſioners may cauſe one ſhilling *per* pound weight of the goods, for which the offender is convicted, to be paid to the informer or proſecutor by their receiver-general, out of any publick money in his hands, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *ſ.* 22.

Any maſter, mate, or mariners belonging to any ſhip concerned in the illegal exportation or importation of the goods aforeſaid, from Great-Britain or Ireland, giving an account

account within six months after the shipping the same, to the commissioners of the customs in England or Scotland, or the commissioners of the revenue in Ireland, of the name of the ship, the species and quantities of the goods, the name of the owner, exporter, or persons who act in their aid and assistance, so as they may be convicted, is to be indemnified, discharged of all penalties and forfeitures, and receive three-fourths of what is recovered, clear of all charges, the other one-fourth to be applied to the use of his majesty, after deducting the charge of prosecution and condemnation, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 23.

Every person appointed by deputation, commission, or other instrument, under the hands and seals of the commissioners of the customs, excise, or salt, to act as an officer or servant under them in putting this or any act, against the transportation of wool, in execution, is to be esteemed an officer of the customs, excise, or salt, respectively, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 24.

Offering or promising to bribe an officer to connive at the said illegal practices, the penalty is three hundred pounds, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 25.

Persons obstructing officers, or their assistants, in making seizures, by virtue of this act, or who being armed or disguised, attempt to rescue any of the aforesaid goods after seizure, are to be transported for seven years, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 26.

Wool, wool-fells, wool-flocks, mortlings, shortlings, cruels, worsted, woollen and bay yarn, mattrasses, and beds stuffed with combed wool or wool fit for combing, exported from Great-Britain or Ireland, and woollen manufactures exported from Ireland, insured to parts beyond the seas; the person insuring, his aiders, abettors, and assistants, forfeit five hundred pounds over and above all other forfeitures and penalties they are liable to, and the person insured forfeits five hundred pounds to the use of the informer, or person who sues for the same, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 29, 30.

The insurer first making discovery, within six months after such transaction, so as the persons concerned with him be convicted thereof, is to be acquitted of the offence, receive the whole forfeiture recovered, deducting charges of prosecution, and likewise retain the money given him for insurance. Or the person insured first making discovery as aforesaid, is to receive back what was paid for the insurance, and also to have the whole forfeiture imposed on the insurer, deducting the charges of prosecution, and to be discharged of the forfeitures incurred, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 31.

The said penalties to be sued for in the name of the attorney-general; or of any of the officers of customs, excise, or salt, 12 *Geo.* II. *c.* 21. *f.* 32.

Woollen cloths exported, or shipped for exportation, before payment of the said duty, are forfeited, or their value, 6 *Ann. c.* 8. *f.* 2.

And white woollen cloths made in Great-Britain may be exported by any person, any law, custom, prescription, or provision to the contrary notwithstanding, 6 *Ann. c.* 9. *f.* 1.

Cloths, stuffs, stockings, or other manufactures of wool made in Great-Britain, may be bought and and exported by any persons without molestation, 1 *W.* and *M. c.* 32. *f.* 12. 9 and 10 *W.* III. *c.* 40. *f.* 1.

Manufactures, British, as cloths, kerseys, bays, serges, cottons, stuffs, stockings, hats, caps, or any other manufactures made of or mixed with sheep or coney-wool, may be exported duty free, 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 20. *f.* 1.

Thrumbs or woollen-yarn may not be exported, upon forfeiture of double the value, 8 *H.* VI. *c.* 23. *f.* 1.

WOOLLEN CAPS, woollen cloths, laces, corses, ribbons, fringes of silk and of thread, silk twinced, silk in any wife embroidered, laces of thread, of gold, of silk or gold, saddles, stirrops or harness pertaining to saddles, spurs, bosses for bridles, andirons, gridirons, any manner of locks, hammers, pinsons, fire-tongs, dripping-pans, dice, tennis-balls, points, purses, gloves, girdles, harness for girdles of iron, latten, steel, tin, or of alkmine, any thing wrought of any tawed leather, any tawed furs, buskins, shoes, goloches or corks, knives, daggers, wood knives, bodkins, sheers for taylors, scissars, razors, chessmen, playing-cards, combs, pattens, pack-needles, any painted wares, forcers, caskets, rings of copper, or of latten gilt, chasing-dishes, hanging candlesticks, chasing-balls, sacring-bells, rings for curtains, ladles, scummers, counterfeit basons, ewers, hats, brushes, cards for wool, may not be imported by any persons, to be uttered or sold in Great-Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, as often as they may be found in the hands of any person to be sold, except made and wrought in Ireland, or taken upon the seas without fraud or collusion, or wrecked, 3 *Ed.* VI. *c.* 4. *f.* 1, 2, 3.

WORCESTERSHIRE, is not among the number of the most inconsiderable counties, either for products or manufactures; it abounds in corn, cattle, cyder, and perry; at Droitwich are salt-works; at Stowerbridge those for iron and glass; broad cloth, mixt or medleys, frize, various sorts of stockings, &c. are made at Worcester; stuffs for hangings and printing, with some linsey woolsey at Kidderminster, and seamen's high crowned caps (called Monmouth caps) at Bewdley.

WORKHOUSES. The most considerable workhouse in the city of London, is that in Bishopsgate street, wherein some hundreds of idle persons are constantly employed in beating hemp, &c. and a great many poor children maintained and educated, *ft.* 13 and 14 *Car.* II. And in the city of Bristol a great workhouse is erected, for the better employing and maintaining the poor, governed by a corporation, &c. 7 and 8 *W.* III. So in the cities of Worcester, Gloucester, and Canterbury, by the statutes, 3 *Ann.* 13 *Geo.* I. and 1 *Geo.* II. For parochial workhouses, *See* POOR.

WORM-SEED, *semen contra*, *semen sanctum*, *or semen santonicum*, is a hot, bitter, drying kind of seed, often given to destroy worms in the human body.

This seed is small, of a browniſh colour, an oblong figure, a bitter taste, and a strong smell. It must be chosen new, greenish, of a sharp, bitter, aromatic taste, not a little disagreeable.

The place where it is produced is Persia, about the frontiers of Muscovy. It is brought to us from Aleppo, &c. Naturalists are not agreed about the plant that produces it. J. Bauhine has a large dissertation on the subject. Some will have it to be the species of absynthium, or wormwood, called santonicum, or marinum absynthium; others the tanacetum, others the abrotanum.

M. Tournefort gives us the following account of this notable drug, in the second volume of his travels. The sementine, or worm-powder, is not gathered like our seeds. The plant grows in the meadows, and must be let to ripen; and the mischief is, that as it grows near to maturity, the wind scatters a good part of it among the grass, where it is lost; and this it is makes it so dear.

As they dare not touch it with the hand, for fear of making it spoil the sooner; when they would gather what is left in the ear, they have recourse to this expedient. They take two hand-baskets, and, walking along the meadows, sweep the baskets, the one from right to left, the other from left to right, as if they were mowing; by this means the seed is shook out into the baskets.

WORMWOOD. *See* ABSYNTHIUM.

WORSTED-MAN. This, like other businesses, that merely consist of keeping shop, buying, selling, and making up parcels, requires very little genius, and no more learning than is necessary for every tradesman. These shop-keepers buy worsted, or employ women to spin it; make it up into small skains and bottoms, and keep large quantities by them of all colours, and of different degrees of fineness. They likewise deal in crewels, which are the ends of the warps of worsted or yarn cut out of the loom; and some of them also deal in bed-lace. They take twenty or thirty pounds with an apprentice; and keep no other journeymen but as book-keepers, to whom they give fifteen or twenty pounds a year with their board. Few who have served an apprenticeship to this business, can therefore find employment; it is therefore worth no parent's while to bind his son apprentice to it, unless he is able to set up when out of his time; to do which, in a handsome way, will require three or four hundred pounds.

WRAPPERS. The merchants of York, Kingston upon Hull, Newcastle upon Tyne, and the members thereof, shall be allowed free of custom and subsidy, two of the northern cloths and kerseys in ten, to be shipped in those ports in the names of double wrappers, as formerly hath been there allowed them.



The

The merchants of Exeter, and other weſtern parts, ſhall be allowed free of ſubſidy, one perpetuana in ten for a wrapper, and three Devon dozens in twenty for wrappers; the ſame to be ſhipped out of the ports of Exeter, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Barnſtaple, Lime-Regis, or the members thereof.

All merchants tranſporting any ſorts of woollen, whether new or old drapery, as alſo bays and cottons, ſhall be allowed one in ten for a wrapper, free of cuſtom and ſubſidy. But by 11 and 12 *W.* III. *c.* 20. all woollen manufactures are free, except white broad-cloths, as *per* 6 *Ann. c.* 8.

WRECK, (*Wreccum maris,*) is, where a ſhip is periſhed on the ſeas, and no man eſcapes alive out of it: the civilians call it naufragium. This wreck being made, the goods that were in the ſhip being brought to land by the waves, belong to the king by his prerogative, or ſuch other perſon to whom the king hath granted wreck. But if a man or a dog, or a cat eſcape alive, ſo that the party to whom the goods belong, come within a year and a day, and prove the goods to be his, he ſhall have them again by the proviſion of the ſtatute of *Weſtm.* 1. *c.* 4. and 17 *Ed.* II. *c.* 11. *Co. vol.* 6. *fol.* 106. Bracton, *lib.* 2. *c.* 5. *num.* 7. This in the grand cuſtomary of Normandy, *c.* 17. is called varech, and latined *veriſcum*; and in ſome ancient charters it is written *ſeupwerpe*, *quaſi ſea up-werpe*, that is, *ejectum maris*, from *up-werpen*, *ejicere*. By which, and other antiquities, it appears that wreck did not only comprehend goods that came from a periſhing ſhip, but whatever elſe the ſea did caſt up upon the land, were it precious ſtones, fiſhes, or the like, as appears by the ſtatute made, 17 *Ed.* II. *c.* 11. called *ſtatutum prærogativæ regis*. *See* 2 *inſt.* 167. Cowell, *edit.* 1727.

*Stat. Weſtm.* 1. 3 *Ed.* I. *c.* 4. "Concerning wrecks of the ſea, it is agreed, that where a man, a dog, or a cat, eſcape quick out of a ſhip, that ſuch ſhip, nor barge, nor any thing within them, ſhall be adjudged a wreck; but the goods ſhall be ſaved and kept by view of the ſheriff, coroner, or the king's bailiff, and delivered into the hands of ſuch as are of the town, where the goods were found; ſo that if any ſue for thoſe goods, and after prove that they were his, or periſhed in his keeping within a year and a day, they ſhall be reſtored to them without delay; and if not, they ſhall remain to the king, and be ſeized by the ſheriff's coroners, and bailiffs, and ſhall be delivered to them of the town which ſhall anſwer before the juſtices of the wreck belonging to the king. And where wreck belongeth to another than to the king, he ſhall have it in like manner; and he that otherwiſe doth, and thereof be attainted, ſhall be awarded to priſon, and make fine at the king's will, and ſhall yield damages alſo. And if a bailiff do it, and it be diſallowed by the lord, and the lord will not pretend any title thereunto, the bailiff ſhall anſwer, if he have whereof; and if he have not whereof, the lord ſhall deliver his bailiff's body to the king."

Many have doubted what the common law was before the making of this ſtatute; and ſome have holden that the common law was, that the goods wrecked upon the ſea were forfeited to the king, and that they be forfeited alſo ſince the ſtatute, unleſs they be ſaved by following this ſtatute. To this we anſwer with Macrobius, *multa ignoramus, quæ nobis non laterent, ſi veterum lectio nobis eſſet familiaris*; for Bracton, who wrote before this ſtatute, proves, that this act is but a declaration of the common law, 2 *Inſt.* 166. cites *Brac. lib.* 3. *fo.* 120. *Brit. fo.* 7, 26, 15. *Flet. lib.* 1. *c.* 41. *and* 2 *Inſt.* 167. cites *Mirr. c.* 1. *ſ.* 13. *and c.* 3. *ſ. de wrecks.*

Where a man, a dog, or a cat.] Albeit the Mirror wrote after this ſtatute, yet he wrote of the ancient laws before the ſame, and is more large than the words of the act; for therein is named only of a man, a dog, and a cat, that eſcapes alive; and this author ſpeaks generally of any beaſt, hawk, or other living thing; ſo as he purſues not this act, but treats of the common law, 2 *Inſt.* 167. 5 *Rep.* 107. *b.* S. P. in Sir H. Conſtable's caſe. And this ſtatute being but declaratory of the common law, theſe three inſtances are put but for examples; for beſides theſe two kinds of beaſts, all other beaſts, fowls, birds, hawks, and other living things are underſtood, whereby the owner, ſhip, or property of the goods may be known. And Bracton yet goes farther, *ſi certa ſigna appoſita fuerint mercibus, & aliis rebus*, &c. 2 *Inſt.* 167, 168.

Although this ſtatute ſpeaks only of a wreck, yet it extends to flotſam, jetſam, and ligan, 2 *Inſt.* 167.

The cauſe wherefore originally wreck was given to the crown, ſtood upon two main maxims of the common law; firſt, That the property of all goods whatſoever muſt be in ſome perſon. Secondly, That ſuch goods as no ſubject can claim any property in, do belong to the king by his prerogative, as treaſure-trove, ſtrays, wreck of the ſea, and others; becauſe of ancient time, when the art of navigation was not ſo perfect, nor trade and merchandize grown to ſuch perfection as now it is, it was a matter of great difficulty to be proved in whom the property of goods wrecked at ſea was. Others have yielded another reaſon, that the king, by old cuſtom of the realm, as lord of the narrow ſea, is bound to ſcour the ſea of the pirates, and petty robbers of the ſea; and ſo it is read of that noble king Edgar, that he would twice in the year ſcour the ſea of ſuch pirates, &c. and becauſe that could not be done without great charge, the law gave unto him ſuch goods as be wrecked upon the ſea, towards the charge, 2 *Inſt.* 167.

If any ſhip be ready to periſh, and all the men therein, for ſafeguard of their lives, leave the ſhip; and after the forſaken ſhip periſhes, if any of the men be ſaved, and come to land, the goods are not loſt, 2 *Inſt.* 167.

If a ſhip on the ſea is purſued with enemies, and the men for ſafeguard of their lives forſake the ſhip, and the enemies take the ſhip, and ſpoil her of her goods and tackle, and turn her into ſea; by the weather ſhe is caſt on land, where her men arrived; it was reſolved by all the judges of England, that the ſhip was no wreck, nor loſt. 2 *Inſt.* 167. cites 5 *R.* II. Fiſhlake's caſe.

But the goods ſhall be ſaved.] Yet if the goods be *bona peritura*, the ſheriff may ſell ſuch goods within the year, leſt they ſhould periſh, and nothing be made of them; and therefore for neceſſity (which is excepted out of law) the ſale in that caſe is good within the year. 2 *Inſt.* 168.

So that if any ſue for thoſe goods.] Where goods are taken as wreck, he who was the owner ought to make proof of the property within the year and day after the taking, and otherwiſe he ſhall not re-have them, *per Nottingham, Br. wreck, pl.* 2. cites 35. *H.* VI. *c.* 27.

Yet if the owner dies within the year, his executors or adminiſtrators may make proof, for that this act is but a declaration of the common law, 2 *Inſt.* 168.

Within a year and a day.] This year and day ſhall be accounted from the ſeizure made as wreck, for that is the thing whereof the owner may take the beſt notice, 2 *Inſt.* 168. 5 *Rep.* 107. *b.* S. P. in Sir H. Conſtable's caſe; for tho' the property is in law veſted in the lord before ſeizure, yet till the lord does ſeize and take it into his actual poſſeſſion, it is not notorious who the perſon is that claims the wreck, nor to whom the owner muſt reſort to make his claim, and to ſhew his proofs.

But if the king's goods be wrecked and caſt upon ground where a ſubject has wreck of the ſea, who ſeizes the ſame, the king may make his proofs at any time when he will, and is not confined to a year and a day, as the ſubject is, 2 *Inſt.* 168. S. P. for *nullum tempus occurrit regi*. *Br. wreck, pl.* 2. cites 35 *Hen.* VI. *c.* 27.

Now if the goods or merchandize ſo caſt upon the land be not ſeized, as is aforeſaid, but taken away by certain wrong-doers not known, the party may have a commiſſion of oyer and terminer to inquire of them that did the treſpaſs, and to hear and determine the ſame, and to make reſtitution to the party, 2 *Inſt.* 168. S. P. and a writ to the ſheriff to return the *probos* and *legales homines*. F. N. B. 112. (C.) 5 *Rep.* 107. *b.* 108. *a.* In Sir H. Conſtable's caſe. If the wreck belongs to the king the party may have ſuch a commiſſion, for no proof is allowable by law but the verdict of twelve men; and if the wreck belong to another than to the king, then if the owner cannot ſatisfy him who claims them as wreck by his mark or cocket, or the book of cuſtoms, or the teſtimony of honeſt men, then the owner may have ſuch commiſſion, or he may bring his action at common law, and prove it by verdict of a jury; and if the commiſſion be awarded, or the action be commenced within the year and day, though the verdict be given for him after the year, it is ſufficient.

And

And if not, they ſhall remain.] That is, it ſhall not be tried in the admiral court, but before the king's juſtices at the common law, becauſe the wreck is overcaſt upon the land, 2 *Inſt.* 168.

To another than to the king.] Wreck may belong to the ſubject either by grant from the king, or preſcription, 2 *Inſt.* 168.

Of ancient time wreck of the ſea and other caſualties, as treaſure-trove in the land, ſtrays and the like, were *primi inventoris quaſi totius populi, ſed poſtea ad regem tranſlata fuerunt, quia non modo totius populi, ſed reipublicæ etiam caput eſt*; but if treaſure be found in the ſea, the finder ſhall have it at this day, 2 *Inſt.* 168.

And he that otherwiſe doth &c.] Which is to be underſtood, that the king's juſtices, before whom the party is attainted, ſhall ſet the fine: *et non dominus rex per ſe in camera ſua, nec aliter coram ſe, niſi per juſticiarios ſuos, & hæc eſt voluntas regis, viz. per juſticiarios & legem ſuam, unum jus dicere*, 2 *Inſt.* 168.

In an information for landing goods without paying or agreeing for the cuſtom; the defendant pleaded that the goods were wreck, and caſt upon the land of C. who had of the ſea appurtenant to his manor adjoining to the ſea, and that C. ſeized them and ſold them to the defendant, and ſo juſtified. Quære if the juſtification be good? *Mo.* 224. *pl.* 365. *Mich.* 28 and 29 *Eliz. in the exchequer, Saunders's caſe.*

At common law all wreck was wholly the king's, or that they could not then be chargeable with cuſtom, and by *ſtat. IV.* I. *c.* 4. where wreck belongs to another than the king, he ſhall have it in like manner, that is, as the king has his, *Vaugh.* 164. *Shepherd* v. *Goſnold.*

The words of the *ſtat.* of 12 *Car.* II. *c.* 4. of tunnage and poundage granted to the king, are of all merchandize, &c. to be imported, &c. into the kingdom of England, &c. by way of merchandize of ſuch a value, &c. *per Vaugh.* Ch. J. in delivering the opinion of the court, by theſe words wreck imported, and not imported as merchandize, is not to pay the king's ſubſidy; and judgment accordingly. *Vaugh.* 160, 168, 170. *Hill.* 23 and 24 *Car.* II. C. B. *Shepherd* v. *Goſnold* & al'. *Molloy* 276. (8th *edit.*) *lib.* 2. *c.* 5. *ſ.* 9. ſays, that in the like caſe in all circumſtances, *Hill.* 6 *W.* III. C. B. between Power and Sir William Portman, the judges, and more particularly Treby Ch. J. ſeemed to be of opinion that goods wrecked or flotſam ſhould pay cuſtom. *Ld. Raym. Rep.* 388. *Mich.* 10 *IV.* III. *Anon.* ſays, that mention being made that this point had been argued three or four times in C. B. in the caſe of Sir William Courtney v. Bower, he ſaid that he would not have ſuffered more than one argument if it had been in B. R. and that *pro forma tantum*; and that always ſince the caſe of Shepherd v. Goſnold, Vaugh. 159. it had never been a doubt, but that wreck ſhould not pay cuſtom. *Ld. Raymond. Rep.* 501. S. C. of Courtney v. Bower having been adjudged in C. B. by 3 J. that no cuſtoms ought to be paid contra to the opinion of Treby Ch. J. a writ of error was brought in B. R. and judgment affirmed without other reaſon given than the authority of that caſe in Vaugh. Goods caſt into the ſea to unburthen a ſhip in a ſtorm, and never intended for merchandize, are wreck when caſt on the ſhore without any ſhipwreck, *Per Vaugh. Ch. J. Vaugh.* 168. *Hill.* 23 and 24 *Car.* II. C. B. *in caſe of Shepherd* v. *Goſnold* & al'.

Derelict goods, viz. deſerted by the owners, and caſt into the ſea, which happens upon various occaſions, as coming from infected towns and places, and for many other reſpects, will be wreck, if caſt on ſhore afterwards, though never purpoſed for merchandize; but goods caſt over board to lighten a ſhip are not, by Bracton, nor from him in Sir H. Conſtable's caſe eſteemed derelict goods; which is a queſtion not thoroughly examined; *ſi autem ea mente, ut nolit eſſe dominus, aliud erit*; *per Bract. By Vaughan Ch. J. Vaugh.* 168. *in caſe of Shepherd* v. *Goſnold* & al'.

In trover for an anchor, &c. a ſpecial verdict found that the plaintiff was poſſeſſed of this anchor, &c. and that the manor of M. adjoins to the ſea, and that the cuſtom of the manor is, that if any ſhip or boat ſailing or floating on the ſea ſtrike upon the ſoil of the ſaid manor ſo that it periſhes, though it be not wreck, yet the beſt anchor and cable belong to the lord, and that the ſhip to which this anchor, &c. belonged ſtruck upon the ſoil of the manor, *& adtunc & ibidem periit*, but that the men in it were ſaved, and that the defendant ſeized the anchor and cable to the uſe of the lord; adjudged that this cuſtom is void, [it being] without any conſideration. The reporter ſays, note, no cuſtom of ſalvage is found; 3 *Lev.* 85. *Hill.* 34 *Car.* II. C. B. *Geere* v. *Burkenſham.*

But where an action was brought upon a like cuſtom, the defendant ſet forth, that the lords of the manor have uſed, in caſe of wreck of any ſhip caſt upon the manor there *inter fluxum & refluxum maris*, to take care of the ſick and wounded, and of burial of the dead, and to preſerve the goods caſt there, for the uſe of the proprietors, and in conſideration thereof to have the beſt anchor and cable of the ſhip ſo caſt there, and that ſhip being wrecked and caſt upon the manor, the defendant as ſervant to the lord, took the anchor and cable in the declaration mentioned; though it was objected, that this is no more than what common charity obliges the lord to do; yet Powel and Rookſby, the only juſtices then in court, were of opinion that ſuch cuſtom is not unreaſonable, it being for encouragement and ſafety of navigation; *ſed adjournatur.* But afterwards it was adjudged for the defendant, 3 *Lev.* 307. *Trin.* 3 *IV.* and *M. in* C. B. *Simpſon* v. *Bithwood.*

Wreck may be claimed by preſcription, and may belong to the lord high admiral by preſcription, for it is an ancient office, time whereof, &c. *per* Holt Ch. J. and ſaid he made no doubt but wreck belonged to the admiral about the cinque ports, and ſuch places where he was moſt converſant in ancient time, 12 *Mod.* 260. *Hill.* 11. *W.* III. *in the caſe of Wiggan and Branthwaite.*

If a man, either by grant or preſcription, has right to a wreck thrown upon another man's land, of neceſſary conſequence he has a right to a way over the ſame land to take it. And the very poſſeſſion of the wreck is in him that has ſuch right, before any ſeizure. Originally all wrecks were in the crown, and the king has a right to a way over any man's ground for his wreck, and the ſame privilege goes to the grantee thereof, *per cur.* 6. *Mod.* 149. *Paſch.* 3 *Ann.* B. R. *Anon'.*

It ſeems that the taking of wreck before ſeizure cannot be felony, becauſe no one has property of the goods at the time of the taking, *Hawk. pl.* C. 93. *c.* 33. *ſ.* 24. *ſays it ſeems agreed.*

Wreck to be valued and delivered to the towns, 4 *Ed.* I. *ſt.* 2.

The kings prerogative in wreck, whales and ſturgeon, *Prærog. Reg.* 17 *Ed.* II. *ſt.* 1. *c.* 11.

Directions for preſerving ſhips in diſtreſs, 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 18. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 6.

Salvage to be paid, 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 2.

Making holes in ſhips felony without clergy, 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 5.

Penalty of fraud or neglect in officers of cuſtoms, 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 18. *ſ.* 7.

Stealing goods of ſmall value petit larceny, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 2.

Reward for ſaving any veſſel or goods, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 5.

Officers of the cuſtoms may raiſe the ſalvage by ſale of the veſſel or cargo, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 7.

Proſecution by clerk of the peace, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 8.

Commiſſioners of land-tax, deputy ſheriff and officers of exciſe, to put the 12 *Ann. ſt.* 2. *c.* 18. in execution. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 9.

The 12 *Ann.* not to affect the juriſdiction of the cinque ports, 4 *Geo.* I. *c.* 12. *ſ.* 2. 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 10.

Aſſaulting any perſon in the ſalvage of any veſſel, tranſportation, 26 *Geo.* II. *c.* 19. *ſ.* 11. *See* FLOTSAM, JETSAM, LEGAN.

WRITS, pleas, or proceſſes, or any other proceedings upon any indictment or information, at the ſuit of the crown, are not to be diſcontinued by the demiſe of his majeſty, or his ſucceſſors, 1 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 4.

Commiſſions, proceſſes, or proceedings in, or iſſued out of any court, are not to be determined by the demiſe of his majeſty, or any king or queen of this realm, but are to continue in full force for ſix months, unleſs ſuperſeded by the ſucceſſor, 1 *Ann. c.* 8. *ſ.* 5, 6.

# X.

X A double conſonant, and the twenty-ſecond letter of the Engliſh alphabet, is a numeral letter, ſignifying ten, as it repreſents two V's, one placed on the top of the other.

When laid flat, thus ⋈, it ſignifies a thouſand; and when a daſh is added over it as $\bar{X}$, it ſignifies ten thouſand.

XYLO-ALOE, in pharmacy, the aloes wood, or lignum aloes. *See* ALOES WOOD.

XYLO-BALSAMUM, the wood of the tree which bears the balm of Gilead.

# Y.

Y The twenty-third letter of the Engliſh alphabet, is a numeral letter ſignifying one hundred and fifty, or, according to Baronius, one hundred and fifty-nine.

When a daſh was added a-top, $\bar{Y}$, it ſignified one hundred and fifty thouſand.

YACHT, or YATCH, a kind of veſſel adorned both withinſide and without, to accommodate ſtate paſſengers, &c. They have but one deck, carrying from four to twelve guns, and from twenty to forty men, being from thirty to one hundred and ſixty tons burthen.

YARD, *virga*, a long meaſure uſed in England and Spain, chiefly to meaſure cloths, ſtuffs, &c.

The Engliſh yard contain three feet, and was ſettled by Henry I. from the length of his own arm.

The Engliſh yard is juſt ſeven ninths of the Paris ell; ſo that nine Engliſh yards make ſeven Paris ells.

The Spaniſh vara, or yard, chiefly uſed at Seville, contains ſeventeen twenty-fourths of the Paris ell; ſo that ſeventeen Paris ells are equal to twenty-four Spaniſh yards.

YARDS, or ſail-yards of a ſhip, are long pieces of timber, tapering at each end, fitted acroſs for the ſeveral maſts, to carry the ſails.

For the bounty and regulations concerning yards, maſts, and bowſprits, ſee BOUNTY.

YARDS belonging to the navy. Perſons making diſturbance or counterfeiting the hands of ſigning or vouching officers in yards, how puniſhed, 1 *Geo.* II. *c.* 25. *ſ.* 6.

YARMOUTH. Regulations of the herring fair there, 31 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 2.

To be under the government of the barons of the cinque ports, 31 *Edw.* III. *ſt.* 2. *c.* 2.

Mayor, &c. to have the ſame rights as bailiffs, 1 *Ann ſt.* 2. *ſ.* 7.

Regulations of duties of four ſhillings and ſix pence per ſhip on importing coals there, 5 *Ann c.* 7. Any perſon may import coals, paying the rates and for ballaſt, *ditto Ann.*

Duties for the harbour of Yarmouth, 9 *Geo.* I. *c.* 20 and 23 *Geo.* II.

YARN, brown or raw linen yarn made of flax, may be imported in Britiſh ſhips legally navigated, free of duty, from the twenty-fourth of June 1756, for fifteen years, and to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament, if duly entered and landed in the preſence of the proper officers. If any doubt ariſes whether ſuch yarn is made of flax or not, the *onus probandi* to lie on the importer or claimer, 29 *Geo.* II. *c.* 15. *ſ.* 13, 24.

*Mohair* YARN. *See* GOODS INWARDS.

*Woollen or Bay* YARN. *See* PLANTATIONS, WOOL, and WOOLLEN.

Worſted may not be exported upon forfeiture of forty ſhillings per pound, 3 *Hen.* VIII. *c.* 16. *ſ.* 2. 1 *Edw.* VI. *c.* 6. *ſ* 3.

YEAST. *A method of curing yeaſt, the flower of wine, and wine lees, for the ſervice of diſtilling, wine-making, vinegar-making,* &c.

Take a quantity of common ale-yeaſt, and put it into a cloſe canvas-bag, and gently ſqueeze out the moiſture in a ſcrew-preſs, till the remaining matter is left as hard as clay; in which ſtate, being cloſe packed in a light caſk, and well ſecured from the air, it will keep freſh and ſound for ſeveral months, as has been often experienced.

This is an experiment of conſiderable uſe to brewers and diſtillers, who in England, though they employ very large quantities of yeaſt, ſeem to have no good method of preſerving it, or raiſing nurſeries thereof, whereby they ſuſtain a conſiderable loſs: whereas the brewers in Flanders make a great profit, by ſupplying the malt diſtillers of Holland with yeaſt, which is rendered laſting and fit for carriage, after the manner of the preſent experiment.

The ſame method is practicable to much greater advantage, in the yeaſt of wine and wine-lees, if they could be imported into England: for by this means we might eaſily imitate the wines and brandies of foreign growth; the lees and yeaſt of wine readily affording an eſſential oil, by diſtillation, a ſmall proportion whereof will flavour a large one of wine or brandy. But a ſhorter and more perfect way, is to let any taſteleſs, or other proper wine fret, or ſtand for ſome time, upon ſuch lees, or wine-yeaſt, whereby it will, to great advantage, acquire the natural taſte and flavour of the wine whereto the lee or yeaſt belonged. *See the article* BREWING.

YELLOW, in dying, is one of the five ſimple and mother colours. For the fineſt yellows they firſt boil the cloth or ſtuff in alum or pot aſhes, and give the colour with weld or wold.

Likewiſe turmeric gives a good yellow, though not the beſt. There is alſo an Indian wood that gives a yellow colour, bordering on gold. There is another ſort of yellow made of ſavory, but this is inferior to them all.

With yellow, red of madder, and that of goats hair prepared with madder, are made the good yellow, aurora, thought-colour, macarate, Iſabella, chamoiſe colour, which are all caſts or ſhades of yellow.

Painters or enamelers make their yellow of maſticote, which is ceruſs raiſed by the fire, or with oker.

Limners and colourers make it with ſaffron, French berries, or canette, &c.

YONALTOUN. *See* MENALTOUN.

YORKSHIRE, the largeſt ſhire in England, has a proportionable ſhare both of the foreign and home trade of it, which it carries on from the ſeveral good ports lying in the county: its products are various, according to the difference of the ſoil, which in ſo large a tract muſt be much more fertile in ſome parts than others. At Wakefield are coals; at Knareſborough, Ripley, and Pontefract, liquoriſh. In the north-riding the hills incloſe lead, copper, and pit-coal; in the eaſt-riding is allum; and about Sheffield iron, which is there wrought into various cutlery wares; at Rippon, Leeds, Halifax, Wakefield, Bradford, and Huthersfield, are large manufactures of broad and narrow cloth, mixt, called dozens, kerſies, and ſome ſhalloons; Doncaſter is noted for ſtockings, gloves, and knit waiſtcoats, as Rippon is for ſpurs;

ſpurs; and in ſeveral parts are found freeſtone, fullers earth, and jet. This is a great dairy county, and ſends a hundred thouſand firkins of butter yearly to London, of which about fifteen thouſand are ſhipped on the river Tees, from the port of Stockton; fifty-five thouſand is the average quantity, one year with another, brought into the city of York, and ſent down the Humber in keels, to be re-ſhipped at Hull, and the remaining thirty thouſand are ſent from that place, Malton, Whitby, and Scarborough. Among other products of this county particularly, as well as others, that of horſes ſhould not be forgot, which brings large ſums of money into the kingdom, there being few princes in Europe who are not ſupplied from England with ſaddle-horſes for their own uſe, and for the officers of their armies.

YVERDON, a very agreeable town, on the weſtern extremity of the lake of Neufchatel, is a conſiderable ſtaple, or depoſit for wine, ſalt from Roche and Savoy, and other merchandize, for whoſe reception here are large halls built, which ſerve for no other purpoſe. Its chief trade however is that of wine, and delft-ware made here.

# Z.

Z, The laſt letter in the alphabet, is a numeral letter, ſignifying 2000. When a daſh was added a-top z̄, it ſignified 2000 times 2000.

ZACUES, a ſmall ſilver money current in Perſia, being half a mamoudi. *See* MAMOUDI.

ZAFFRE, *or* SAFREE, is a mineral of a bluiſh, or partridge-eye colour, which the Engliſh, Dutch, and Hamburghers bring from the Eaſt-Indies, and eſpecially from Surat.

Moſt of the zaffre we have is in a grey powder, like aſhes, from which it ſo little differs in appearance, that we are forced to conſult the workmen who uſe it, to know, by trials, whether it is what it ought to be.

There are, however, two ſorts of zaffre, the fine and the common; the former is in a bluiſh, or cineritious ſtone, the latter in powder, and very often ſo bad, that it is hardly good for any thing, and being ſo very weighty, muſt needs be mixed with ſome ſtony ſubſtance, the other being much lighter.

This matter is much uſed by delft-ware and glaſs-makers, to give a blue colour to both ſorts of ware: it is alſo with zaffre that they colour calcined pewter, in order to make a ſort of falſe ſtone; and with zaffre it is that the azure colour of glaſs is produced, and of which is made the counterfeit ſapphire, according to Pomet.

Monſieur Lemery ſays, *ſaphre*, *ſafre*, *zaphre* or *ſapphire*, is a mineral whereof there are two kinds, one called fine ſapphire and the other common: the fine ſapphire is a pretty ſoft ſtone, of a bluiſh colour; the common ſapphire is a greyiſh heavy powder: both ſorts come from India. The fine ſapphire is uſed to give a blue colour to enamel, to earthen ware, and glaſs; they likewiſe colour counterfeit ſapphires with it, whence it takes its name.

ZATOU, *ſee* VOULE.

ZEDOARY, a medicinal root, the ſeveral ſpecies of which differ ſo much from one another in ſhape, that they have been divided into two kinds, as if two different things, under the name of *zedoaria longa & rotunda*, the long and round zedoary; and ſome authors have gone ſo far as to ſuppoſe them the roots of two ſeveral ſpecies of plants; this, however, is erroneous: the long and the round zedoary are only the ſeveral parts of the ſame root.

The long pieces of zedoary are of a very ſingular figure; they are not of the nature of the common long roots of plants, but are, themſelves, properly tubera or glandules, as well as the round ones, differing from them in nothing but their oblong figure: they are two, three, or four inches in length, and of the thickneſs of a man's finger; not large at one end and tapering away to the other, but thickeſt in the middle, and growing gradually ſmaller to each end, where they terminate in an obtuſe point each way: they are of a tolerable ſmooth ſurface, except that they have ſome little protuberances in ſeveral parts from which fibres have originally grown: they are of a very cloſe and compact texture, conſiderably heavy, and very hard: they will not cut eaſily with a knife; when cut, they ſhew a fine ſmooth, and gloſſy ſurface: they are of a pale greyiſh colour on the outſide, with a faint mixture of brown in it, and are of a dead whitiſh hue within: they are not eaſily powdered in the mortar; their ſmell, while bruiſing, is very remarkable, and is highly aromatic, and of a bitteriſh taſte.

The round zedoary has all the ſame characters with this, and differs only in figure, being ſhort and roundiſh, of the ſize of a ſmall walnut, ſmooth on the ſurface, except where the bundles of fibres have adhered, and generally running into a ſharp point at the end.

Zedoary is to be choſen freſh, ſound, and hard, in large pieces; it matters not as to ſhape, whether long or round; of a ſmooth ſurface, and a ſort of fatty appearance within, too hard to be bitten by the teeth, and of the briſkeſt ſmell that may be; ſuch as is friable, duſty, and worm-eaten, is to be rejected.

The ancient Greeks were wholly unacquainted with zedoary; there is no mention of any ſuch drug in the works of Dioſcorides or Galen. The Arabians, however, were well acquainted with it, they mention it ſometimes under the name of zedoary, and ſometimes under that of zerumbeth; but are ſo ſhort in their deſcriptions, and ſo at variance among one another, that it is not eaſy to aſcertain their meaning, as to the diſtinction, if they originally meant any, between the ſubſtances expreſſed by theſe two names.

Serapio and Rhazes uſe the words zedoaria and zerumbeth as ſynonymous; and declare both to mean only the ſame root. Avicenna, on the contrary, diſtinguiſhes the zedoary, and zerumbeth; and even talks of two kinds of zedoary. Others of them make the zarnab they ſpeak of different both from the zedoary and zerumbeth; but Serapio, an author as much to be depended upon for his accuracy as any of them, declares zedoary, zerumbeth, and zarnel, all to be the ſame thing.

Zedoary, both of the long and round kind, is brought to us from China; and we find by the Arabians, that they alſo had it from the ſame place. The round tubera are leſs frequent than the long; and ſome of them have, therefore, ſuppoſed them the produce of a different and more rare plant; but this is not ſo probable as that the general form of the root is long, and the round tubera are only luſus naturæ, and leſs frequent in it.

The plant which produces it, is one of the claſs of the herbæ bulboſis affines of Mr. Ray. It is deſcribed in the Hortus Malabaricus, under the name of the malan kua. Thoſe who are of opinion that the zerumbeth was a different thing from zedoary, ſuppoſe, that author meant, under that name, the root of another plant of the ſame claſs, deſcribed in the Hortus Malabaricus, under the name of kue; and by Herman, in his Muſæum Zeylanicum, by the name of Walingburn. This is the zerumbeth of Gracias; but we ſcarce ever ſee the root of this plant imported, nor is there any ſound reaſon for ſuppoſing that any of the old authors ever meant it by that name.

Zedoary, diſtilled with common water, affords a thick and denſe eſſential oil, which ſoon concretes of itſelf into a kind of camphire, and on this oil its virtues principally depend. It is a ſudorific, and is much recommended by ſome in fevers, eſpecially of the malignant kinds. It is alſo given with ſucceſs as an expectorant in all diſorders of the breaſt, ariſing from a tough phlegm, which it powerfully incides and attenuates; it is alſo good againſt flatulencies,

lencies, and in the cholic; it ſtrengthens the ſtomach and aſſiſts digeſtion; and, finally, is given with ſucceſs in nervous caſes of all kinds. It is not an ingredient in any of our ſhop compoſitions. It was in the Philonium Romanum of the late London Diſpenſatory; but it is now omitted in the Philonium Londinenſe of this: in extemporaneous preſcriptions it is ſeldom given ſingly; but is a common ingredient in reſtorative powders and infuſions. Its doſe is from five to ten grains in powder; and from a drachm to two drachms to the pint in infuſion.

ZEST, the woody thick ſkin, quartering the kernel of a walnut.

ZEST, is alſo uſed for a chip of orange or lemon peel; ſuch as is uſually ſqueezed into ale, wine, &c. to give it a flavour; or the fine ethereal oil which ſpurts out of that peal on ſqueezing it.

ZIANGI, a ſilver money of Amadalath, that is likewiſe current in other places of the Mogul's territories; it is among the number of the rupees; and worth twenty *per cent.* more than thoſe called Gaſona; and is about thirty-ſix French ſols, the value of which laſt coin is to be underſtood (except where it is expreſſed otherwiſe) to be as it was current at the time of making it, viz. thirteen livres, ſix ſols, and eight deniers for a pound ſterling.

ZINK, a ſemi-metallic ſubſtance, which, more than all the others of that claſs, approaches to the nature of true metals. It is very heavy, and leſs hard than biſmuth; and greatly leſs friable than either antimony or that mineral. It, in ſome meaſure, approaches to malleability, being ductile to a certain degree, though that a very limited one, eſpecially, when made warm. It is very little ſuſceptible of ruſt; and though in itſelf is not ſonorous, yet, in mixture with other metals, it renders them much more ſo than they were before. It melts with a very ſmall degree of fire; and if urged by a heat a little more intenſe, it flies wholly off in fumes. If theſe fumes are preſerved, they are found to form a peculiar ſort of flowers, not eaſily reducible into zink again. Zink is of a bluiſh white colour, very elegant, and much approaching to that of ſilver; and though it wants ſomewhat of the biſmuth, yet it has that loſs amply made up to it, in its more metalline appearance. If burnt away in an open fire, it yields a flame of a beautiful green colour. It melts very readily with lead and tin, and renders both of them the leſs malleable, in proportion as it is mixed in a larger proportion with them. It may alſo be mixed in fuſion with copper and iron; but when mixed with theſe, or any other of the metals that do not melt eaſily, caution muſt be uſed that the degree of fire neceſſary to fuſ em do not burn away. For this purpoſe, the metals ſhould be made into thin plates or filings, and be heated red-hot in a crucible, before the zink is added; and as ſoon as this is done, the fire ſhould be made very briſk immediately, and the operation ended with all poſſible expedition.

Zink, mixed in this manner, with four times its weight of copper, makes a very beautiful yellow metal, called by us, Bath-metal, and prince Rupert's metal; which if its malleability equalled the beauty of its colour, would be a very valuable compoſition. Zink has alſo this peculiar quality, that when urged by a large fire in mixture with the other metals, it does not go off alone, but carries up a great part of them, alſo, in form of flowers. This is the origin of pompholyx, tutty, and the *cadmia fornacum*, which are principally procured from the furnaces, where copper and calamine, which is the ore of zink, and acts only as zink on theſe occaſions, are melted together.

Zink is ſoluble in *aqua regia*, and other of the ſtronger acids. It is to be choſen the heavieſt and brighteſt coloured that can be found, and ſuch as will not extend under the hammer; for the people who ſell it, ſometimes, have the diſhoneſty to mix lead among it; but this is diſcovered by the two great degree of malleability it gives to it.

The ores of zink have, till very lately, been but little known. The principal of them, indeed, has been well known for many ages, as a foſſile ſubſtance of uſe in medicine; hut though it was found to have the ſame effect on copper as zink, and in the fire, if kept in cloſe veſſels, to ſublime in the ſame ſort of flowers; yet it did not occur, of a long time, to any body to ſuſpect that theſe two ſubſtances belonged in any manner to one another. The ore, we mean, is the common *lapis calaminaris*, or *calamine*, which, as it is known by a peculiar appellation, and is famous for many virtues independent of the zink it contains, we have treated of it under its common name. *See* CALAMINE.

ZOFFINGUE is a tolerable large town of Switzerland with many privileges, and furniſhes trade with ſeveral articles from its fabrics, ſuch as flannels, ſilk ribbons and ferrets, various ſorts of cloth made with cotton, and wool, ſeparate and mixed; cutlery ware; and here are alſo very good linen printers and dyers.

ZONE, in geography and aſtronomy, a diviſion of the terraqueous globe, with reſpect to the different degrees of heat found in the different parts thereof.

There are five zones. One of which is called the torrid zone, and is that ſpace or tract of the earth which is comprehended between the two tropics. The ancients imagined this tract of the earth to be uninhabitable, on account of the heat of the ſun there. There are two frigid zones, the one is that portion of the earth's ſurface which is included within the artic circle, the other within the antartic. The remaining two are the temperate zones, lying one on one ſide the equator, and the other on the other, between the frigid and the torrid zones.

ZOPISSA, naval pitch, or that ſcraped off from the ſides of ſhips that have been a long time at ſea. It is a compoſition of pitch and tar, impregnated by the ſalt of the ſea; and is uſed in external applications as a reſolutive and deſiccative.

ZUG is one of the moſt agreeable of the ſmall cantons in Switzerland; and its principal city with the ſame name is well built, ſtanding on the lake called alſo Zug. The country produces corn, wine, a great many cheſnuts, and has excellent paſtures; beſides which here are manufactures of linen and woollen ſtuffs.

ZURICK, capital of the chief canton of Switzerland, is ſeated on a fine lake very abundant in fiſh, from which the Limmat flows, that divides the city in two parts, whoſe communication is by two wooden bridges. Although Zurick has but few bailiages, it is one of the richeſt cantons by the trade and fabrics which its inhabitants have attracted and ſet up among them, and which have flouriſhed beyond their moſt ſanguine expectation. It is certain that the Zurickers have a genius that qualifies them for imitation; and the peaſant a patience and attachment to labour, which conquer moſt difficulties, and at the ſame time are a plain indication of the good effects that manufactures and diligence produce.

Commerce is properly ſpeaking the buſineſs of Zurick, the particular object of its induſtry, and the determined ruling taſte; the moſt conſiderable men of the city do not diſdain to intereſt themſelves in trade, but apply to it with the ſame diligence, as the inferior citizens, and their great riches never render their aſſiduity, patience, and neceſſary labour, to augment their manufactures, and perfect their works, irkſome; this is what makes their republic flouriſh, and has raiſed it to the degree of power it at preſent poſſeſſes.

The ſilks and organzines, which the Zurickers buy yearly in the Trentin, Italy, and Piedmont, to twiſt or throw, employ a great many people; and the ſale which they afterwards have for them in England, France, Holland, and elſewhere, is very conſiderable; they alſo employ great quantities of ſilk in their own manufactures, wrought ſeparately in ſeveral ſtuffs, handkerchiefs, crapes, &c. mixt with worſted, cotton, thread or ferret: large parcels of cotton are alſo ſpun here, for the aforeſaid fabrics; cotton linen is made for printing, as are ſtockings and handkerchiefs of the ſame materials, the fineſt being wrought into muſlins; and towards the end of the laſt century, the art of drawing gold and ſilver wire, was introduced here.

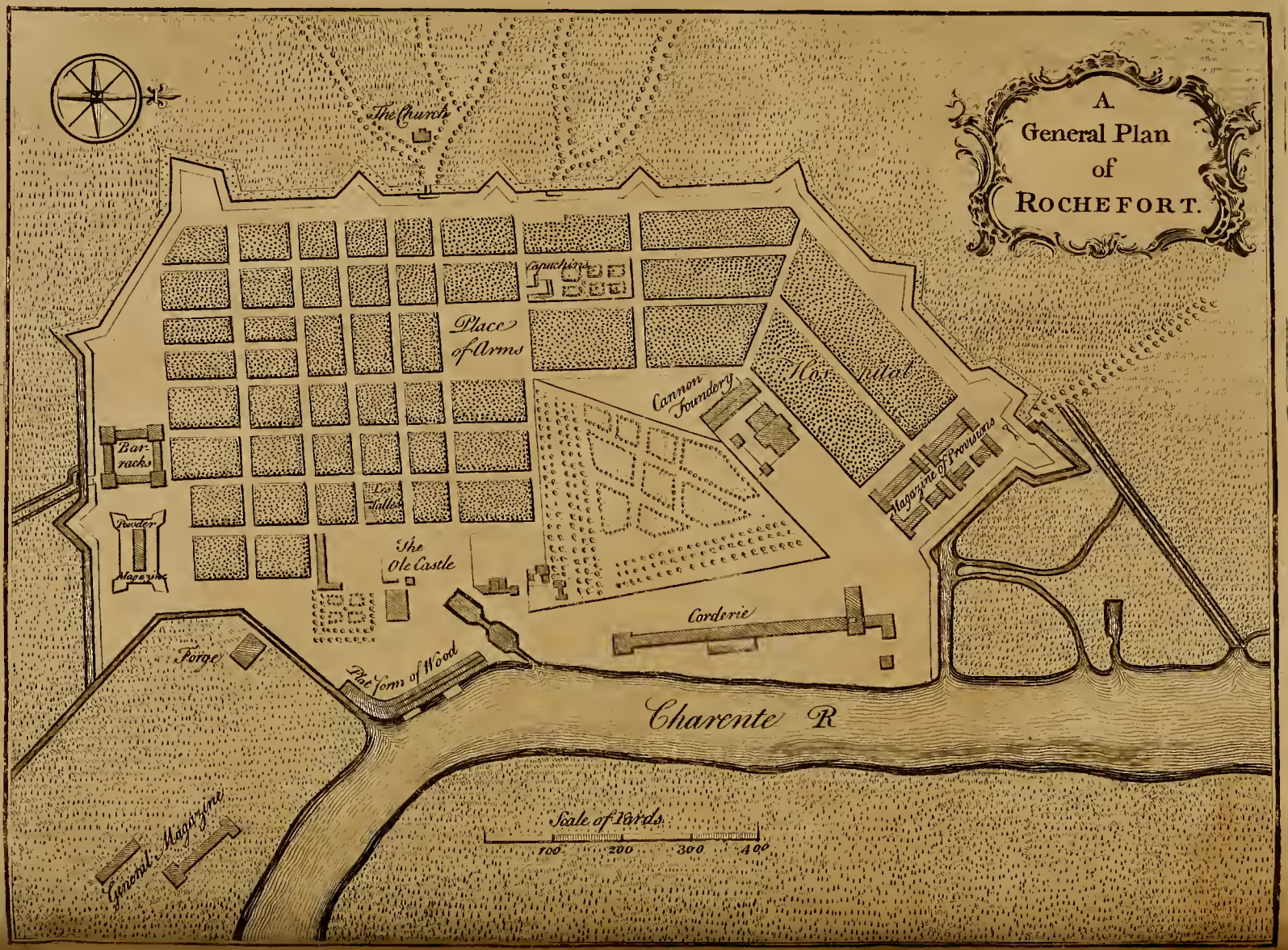
ZURZACH, in Switzerland, is rendered noted for its two fairs held here at Pentecoſt and St. Verena, (at the end of Auguſt) which attract a great number of merchants from diverſe countries.

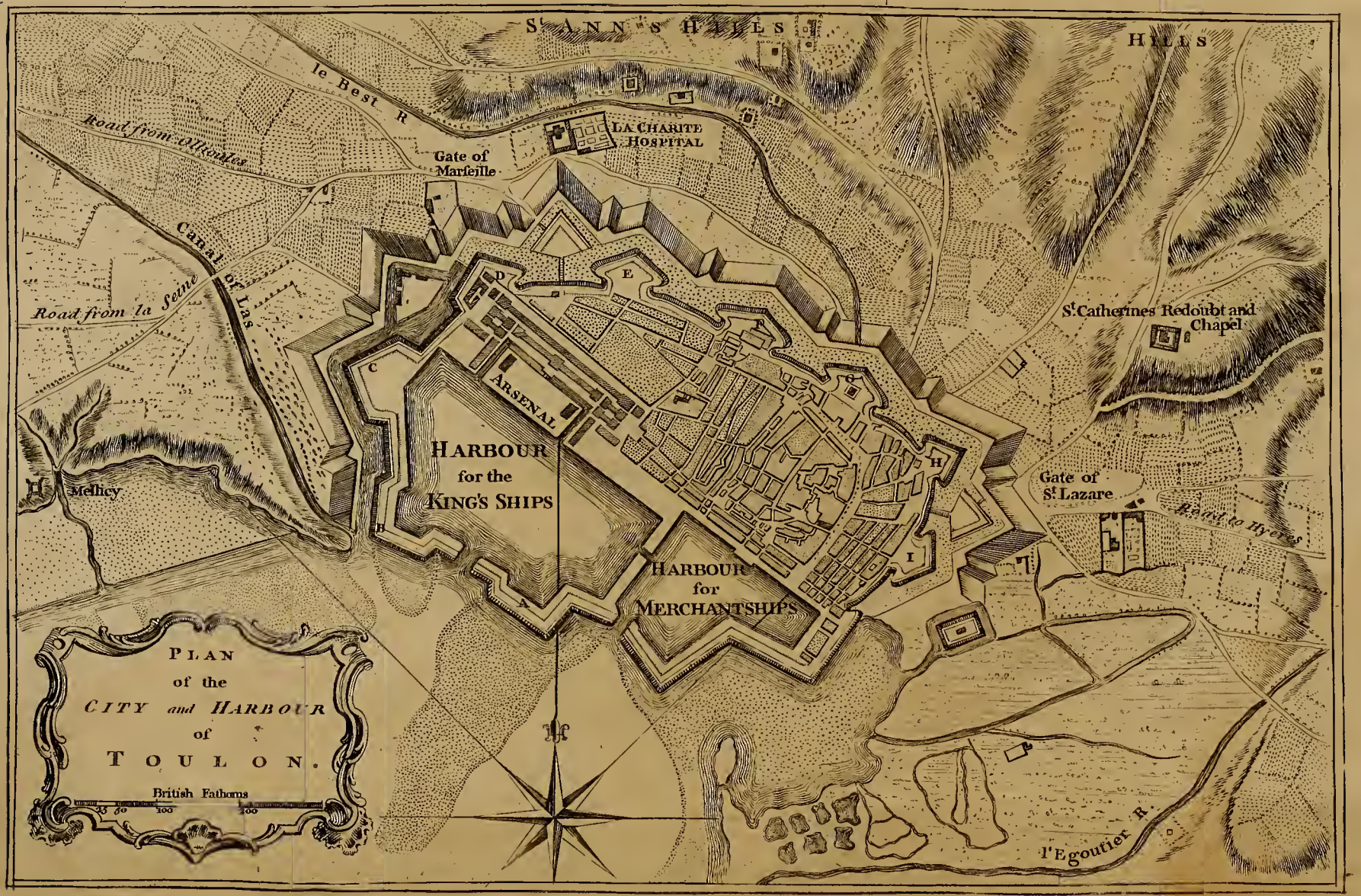


FINIS.

PLAN
of the
CITY and HARBOUR,
of
MARSEILLE.
BAY OF MARSEILLE
British Fathoms
75 50 100 200
Gate of Galle
St Pauls Tower
Royal Gate
Gate of the Carthusians
Windmill
Gate of the Reformed
Gate of Noailles
Fort St Jean
Town House
la Tete de Mort
Entrance of the Harbour
The Boom
THE HARBOUR
la Canebiere the Opera House
St Nicolas
Hospital General for the Galleys
Mole
St Roch
CITADEL
Riveneuve
Docks
Docks for the Galleys
PLACE OF ARMS
St Victor Abbey
Gate of Notre Dame de la Garde
Gate of St Victor
Gate of Rome
Gate of Notre du Mont
St Michaels Fields
The Minims

The Kings Pleasures
Pond
Knel
Kroman Suburb
Le Moustover
Boudramen Aqueduct
Faudie Farm
MUD dry at low Water
Great Gate
Place of Arms
Rope Yard
Little Gate
Lime Kiln
Mast Yard
Wet Docks
Mast house
Forge
THE BASON
L'ENCLOS
PONSCORF OR SCORF RIVER
HENNEBON RIVER
MUD dry at low Water
Le Fond
Brialee
Plan of
PORT L'ORIENT.
British Fathoms.
25 50 100 200 300 400


A
General Plan
of
ROCHEFORT.
The Church
Capuchins
Place of Arms
Hospital
Cannon Foundery
Barracks
Jail
Magazine of Provisions
Powder Magazine
The Ole Castle
Corderie
Forge
Platform of Wood
Charente R
General Magazine
Scale of Yards
100
200
300
400

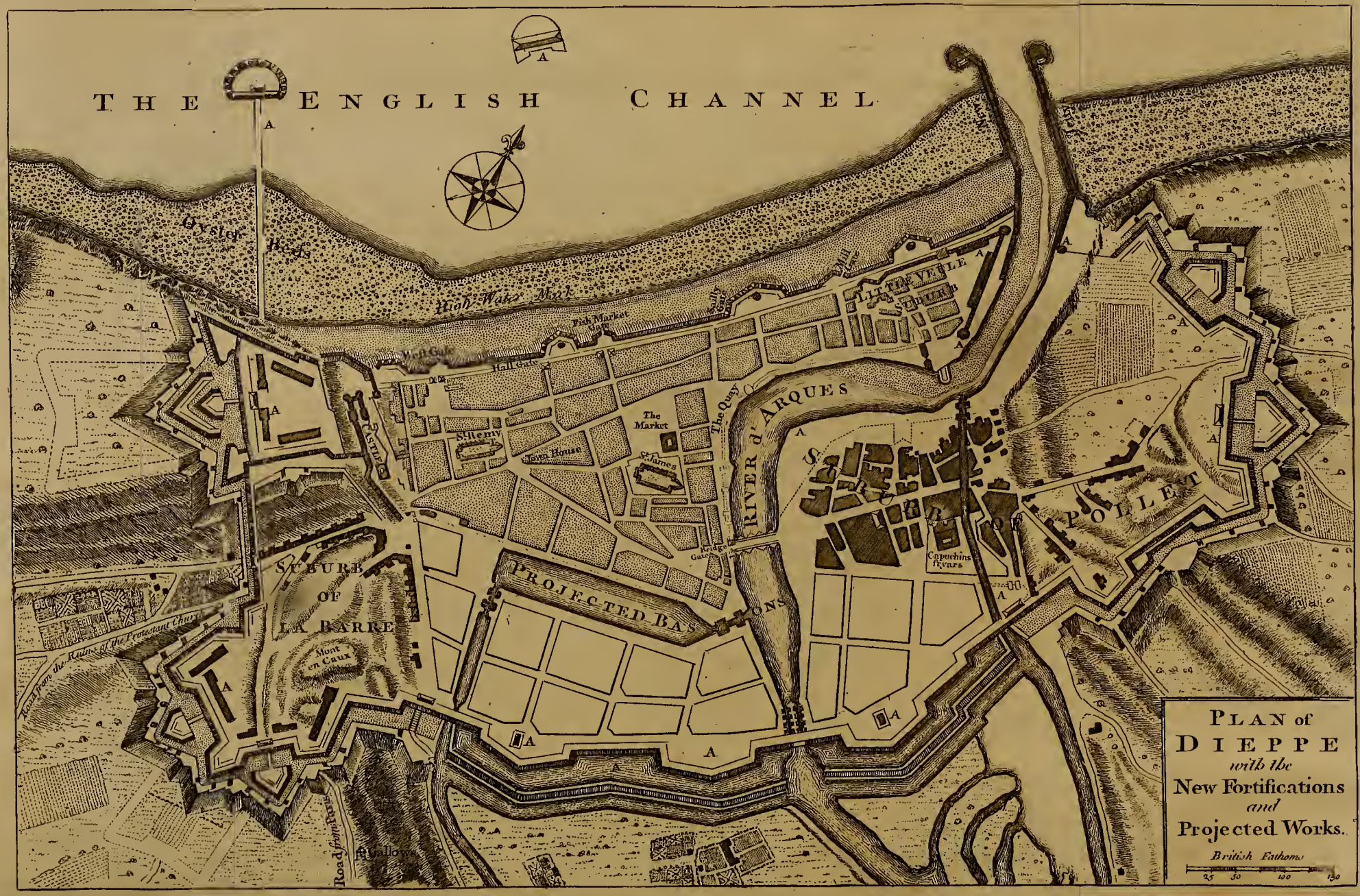


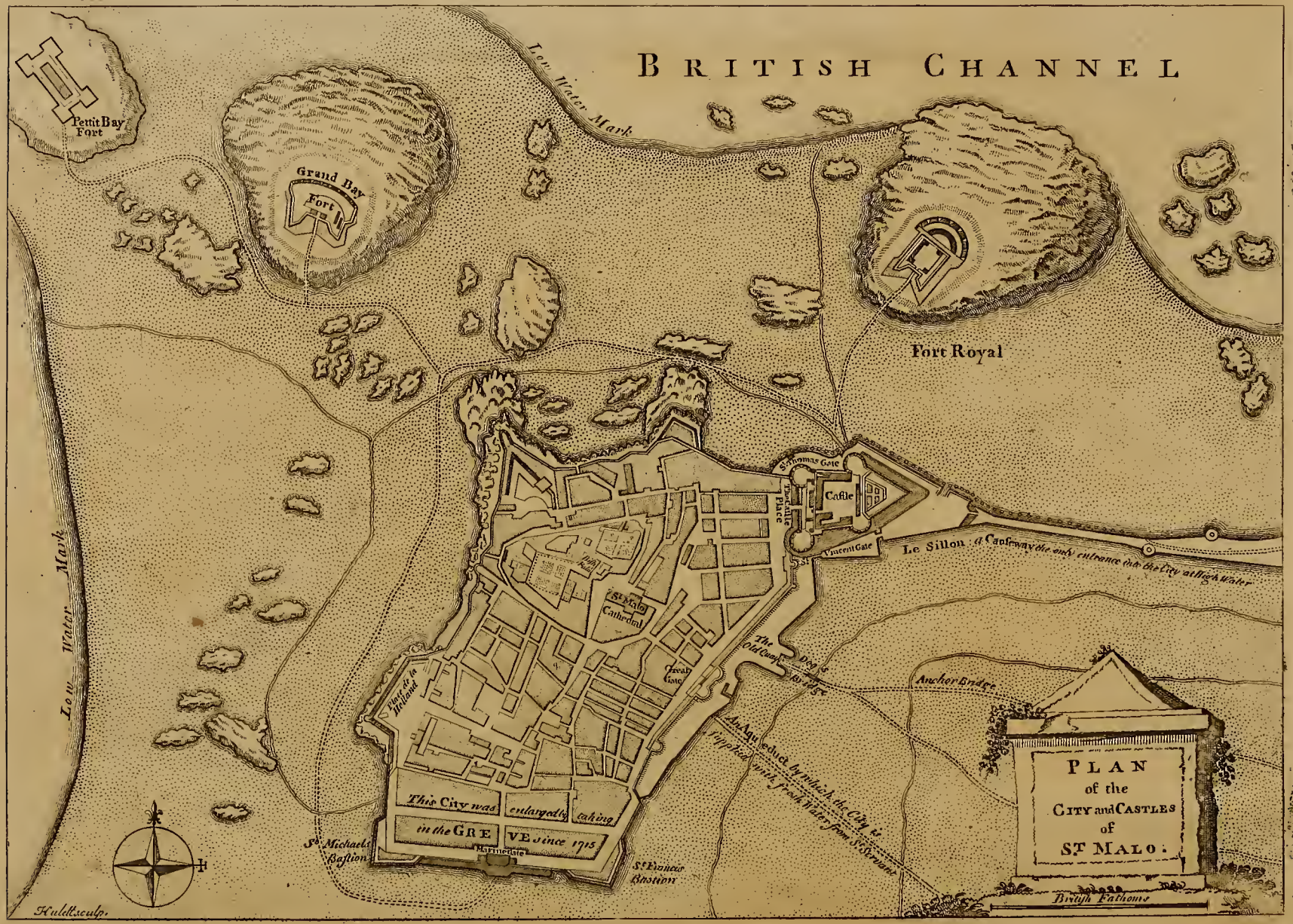
St ANN'S HILLS
HILLS
le Best R
Road from Ollioules
LA CHARITE HOSPITAL
Gate of Marseille
Canal of Las
Road from la Seine
St Catherines Redoubt and Chapel
ARSENAL
HARBOUR for the KING'S SHIPS
HARBOUR for MERCHANTSHIPS
Gate of St Lazare
Road to Hyeres
Mellicy
l'Egoutier R.
PLAN of the CITY and HARBOUR of TOULON.
British Fathoms
25 50 100 200

PLAN
of the
TOWN and MOLE
of
AGDE
with the
FORT de BRESCOU
British Fathoms.
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
CANAL ROYAL
Round Sluce of Agde
St Basile's Bridge
Sluce of Bagnas
ETANG de THAU
AGDE
MOUNTAIN
OF AGADE
St Loup
A G A D E Z
EGRAU T. R.
Notre Dame du Grau
GRAU d'AGDE
St MARTIN'S POND
la Conque
the Tower
CAPE of AGDE
THE MOLE
Long Rock
ISLE DE BRESCOU
and FORT
Feet

British Fathoms
50
100
Tour d'Ordre
les Tintelleries
the New Gate
THE CASTLE
UPPER TOWN
Place
Home Pond
the Downs Gate
Gavelle Gate
le Pideux
Ruins of Fort Rouge
les Carreaux
LOWER TOWN
HARBOUR
Quay
Breque reque
LA LIANNE RIVER
le Chatillon
les Brebiettes
la Madeleine
Road to Montreuil and Paris
Chapel N.D
Capelure
PLAN of the TOWN and HARBOUR of BOULOGNE.

B R I T I S H C H A N N E L
ISLE DELE'E
British Fathoms.
100 200 300 400 500 600
Course of the Tides
ROAD PROJECTED
Entrance for Small Ships
Shore
Point & Rock du Hommet
Fort d'Equeudreville
Fort du Galet
Equeudreville
Fort Lougay or Langlet
Redoubt of Tourlaville
Tourlaville
Road
Anse
English
Hilton sculp.
PLAN of
CHERBOURG
with the
Forts & Batteries,
as when taken by the English
in August 1758.


THE ENGLISH CHANNEL
Oyster Beds
High Water Mark
West Gate
Hall Gate
Fish Market Gate
Sally Gate
Mill Gate
LITTLE VEILE SUBURB
The Market
The Quay
St. Remy
Town House
St. James
Castle
RIVER d'ARQUES
Bridge Gate
Capuchins fryars
SUBURB OF POLLET
SUBURB OF LA BARRE
Mont en Caux
PROJECTED BASTIONS
Road from the Ruins of the Protestant Church
Road from Paris
Gallows
PLAN of DIEPPE with the New Fortifications and Projected Works.
British Fathoms
25 50 100 150


BRITISH CHANNEL
Low Water Mark
Pettit Bay Fort
Grand Bay Fort
Fort Royal
St Thomas Gate
Castle
The Castle Place
St Vincent Gate
Le Sillon: a Causeway the only entrance into the City at High Water
St Malo Cathedral
Great Gate
The Old Quay
Dog's Bridge
Anchor Bridge
Place de la Holland
This City was enlarged by taking in the GREVE since 1715
Marinedale
St Michaels Bastion
St Francis Bastion
An Aqueduct by which the City is supplied with fresh Water from St Servant
PLAN of the CITY and CASTLES of ST MALO.
British Fathoms
Low Water Mark
Hulett sculp.